

**RELATIONSHIP AMONG LEADERSHIP PRACTICE, SCHOOL  
CULTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL HEALTH IN SECONDARY  
SCHOOLS OF ADDIS ABABA CITY ADMINISTRATION, ETHIOPIA**

**PhD DISSERTATION**

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We hereby certify that we have read and evaluated this dissertation entitled *Relationship among Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia*, prepared under our guidance by *Teklemariam Bekele Bogale*. We recommend that it be submitted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement.

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved teachers from those early grades to the higher institutions that their priceless contribution and effort made me to achieve this goal.

## STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR

By my signature below, I declare and affirm that this dissertation is my own work. I have followed all ethical and technical principles of scholarship in the preparation, data collection, data analysis and compilation of this dissertation. Any scholarly matter that is included in this Dissertation has been given recognition through citation.

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AACGBoFED	Addis Ababa City Administration Government Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
AACGEB	Addis Ababa City Government Education Bureau
AE	Academic Emphasis
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
EH	Encouraging the Heart
EL	Emphasis on Learning
EOA	Enabling Others to Act
ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
II	Institutional Integrity
IS	Initiating Structure
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
ISV	Inspiring Shared Vision
LP	Leadership Practice
LPI	Leadership Practice Inventory
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MoE	Ministry of Education
MW	Modeling the Way
OH	Organizational Health
OHI	Organizational Health Inventory
OHI-S	Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary School
PI	Principal Influence
PV	Professional Values
REB	Regional Education Bureau
RS	Resource Support
SC	School Culture

**Continues...**



SCEQ	School Culture Elements Questionnaire
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SP	Shared Planning
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
TL	Transformational Leadership
WEO	Woreda Education Office
ZED	Zone Education Department

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## **Relationship among Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia**

### **ABSTRACT**

*The purpose of this research was to examine the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools of Addis Ababa city Administration. Convergent parallel mixed research design was used. A total of 450 teachers were randomly selected from 13 secondary schools. Data for the quantitative part was collected using three sets of questionnaire: Leadership practice inventory observer developed by Kouzes and Posner, School culture elements questionnaire developed by Cavanagh and Dellar and Organizational Health inventory for secondary schools developed by Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp. Interview with 4 principals, 16 teachers (who did not participate in filling questionnaire) and document analysis were used for the qualitative data collection. Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics with structural equation modeling for the quantitative data and thematic analysis for qualitative data. The study revealed that school principals were practicing leadership at a moderate level; school culture and organizational health of the schools were also found to be moderate that shows schools were not exhibiting strong leadership and school culture. The three variables were found to be significantly related to each other. Accordingly leadership practice of principals was found to predict both culture and organizational health of the secondary schools. School culture was found to mediate the relationship between principal leadership and organizational health of schools. Positive relationship among most of the subscales of the three variables was found ranging from weak to moderate correlation. Qualitative findings showed low level of school based professional development, low level of student motivation to learn and average expectation of teachers from students as challenges of the secondary schools. It can be concluded that the absence of strong leadership and school culture led to lower organizational health in the secondary schools of Addis Ababa city Administration. The more principals practice effective leadership there will be a determining effect on the level of organizational health of the schools. It was recommended that principals would focus on leadership, professional development programs for principals that are focused on leadership need to be introduced, positive school culture may be built, student motivation to learn would be improved and school leadership guidelines would be reexamined and improved.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, subtopics such as, background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions and hypotheses, objectives of the study and significance of the study are presented. In addition, delimitation of the study and operational definition of the terms are also presented.

### **1.1. Background of the Study**

The role of leadership has become an important aspect in today's organizations (Gholamzadeh and Khazaneh, 2012) and considered as an essential construct for a positive result and an antecedent to different work outcomes (Tordera, Gonzalez-Roma, Peiro, 2008; Vecchio, Justin and Pearce, 2008). Leadership as a process of interaction between leaders and followers requires the leader to influence followers to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010). Indeed, the type of leadership used by organizational leaders is known to affect various organizational variables, one of which is organizational health (Toprak, Inandi and Colak, 2015). Leithwood and Sun (2012) found that effective leadership included many of the same practices and concluded that researchers and practitioners needed to give more attention to the impact of specific leadership practices and less to leadership models.

Researchers argued that organizational health is among significant research topics associated with different personal and organizational variables in schools (GuClu, Recepoglu and Kilinc, 2014; Korkmaz, 2005; Roney, Coleman and Schlichting, 2007). Today, organizations are thought as living things who have an independent identity of their members (Lynden and Klingle, 2000). Organizational health is undoubtedly one of the most effective indices in boosting the productivity at any organization (Nasab, Nia and Keshavarzi, 2016). Recently, organizational health has become a concept that all institutions and sectors pay attention to since its levels seem to influence various aspects. In schools it influences aspects such as job satisfaction, effectiveness, teacher performance, student achievement and is also being affected by these variables (Korkmaz, 2007).

Studies indicate that there is relationship between leadership and organizational health. There appears to be a high correlation between a strong school vision and organizational health (Korkmaz, 2005). In this connection, Cemaloglu<sup>a</sup> (2007) stated that leadership style of school leaders is significant source of school health. Korkmaz (2007) studied the effects of leadership styles on organizational health and job satisfaction in high schools of Ankara, Turkey. The researcher assessed the leadership style, organizational health of schools and teachers job satisfaction using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Organizational Health Inventory and Job Satisfaction Scale. The study found that the transformational leadership of the principal directly and, through teachers' job satisfaction indirectly, affected school health. Korkmaz's study was quantitative using path analysis.

Besides, Toprak, Inandi and Colak (2015) studied the influence of principals' leadership style on organizational health of Turkish schools using multiple regression analysis. In this quantitative study, the researchers found that leadership style has effect on school health. Consequently transformational leadership style positively influenced school health. On the contrary, a negative relationship between transactional leadership and a school's organizational health was found. Transactional leadership is supposed to decrease organizational health to a great extent by focusing on rules and bureaucratic procedures. The use of reward and punishment system, which is the main feature of transactional leadership may not create good atmosphere for people relationship (Bogler, 2001). As a result, in a school where transactional leadership avoids making mistakes and focus on existing or prospective problems, the relationship among the staff weakens and commitment to the school's vision declines (Korkmaz, 2007). Notably, Sisman (2011) explained that school principals' instructional leadership practices have a positive effect on the organizational health of schools. Sisman adds that this is because instructional leadership is pointed to the behaviors that school principals perform to improve student learning and instruction.

Another important aspect of organizations is school culture. It is the set of values, norms, standards for behavior and shared expectations that influence the way in which individuals and teams interact with each other and co-operate to achieve organizational goals (Jones and George, 2009). The cultural elements and their relationships create a

pattern that is a distinctive part of an organization, as personality is unique to the individual (Niemann and Kotze, 2006). Regarding this, Goffee and Jones (1996) interpret the meaning of school culture in terms of the community of the organization and particularly in terms of how people relate to one another. “School culture to a large extent, is influenced by the actions of leaders and is embedded and strengthened by effective leadership” (Niemann and Kotze, 2006, p. 13).

Schein (1992) states that organizational culture is complex and it cannot be easily manipulated by leaders. However, leadership and culture are important dimensions to organizational success and they have been studied extensively in the business literature. They are equally important in the human services organizational context; however, the literature is scarce in this area (Hardina, Middleton, Montana and Simpson, 2007). There are some studies that treated school leadership with culture. Niemann and Kotze (2006) studied relationship between leadership practices and school culture in South African schools in Free State province. They used Leadership practices inventory of Kouzes and Posner (1993) to measure principals’ leadership practices and Goffee and Jones's (1996) School culture Questionnaire to explore two dimensions of school culture and then the relationship between the two variables. The researchers concluded that there is significant relationship between school principals’ leadership practice and two dimensions of school culture (sociability and solidarity). Although the two researchers investigated the relationship between leadership practice and school culture, they studied only two aspects of school culture. The other aspects are also important for schools as well particularly the relationship with the school community, staff development and emphasis for learning.

In another study, Martin (2009) examined the relationship between leadership styles of principals and school culture in Georgia schools in the US through quantitative study. Data were collected using the School Culture Survey and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, on school culture and leadership styles of principals respectively. The result indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between most of the factors of the leadership styles of principals and the factors of school culture. More specifically, the findings indicated that a positive relationship existed between all of the factors of transformational leadership and all factors of school culture. In addition, one

factor of transactional leadership, contingent reward, was positively correlated with school culture. Similarly, Piotrowsky (2016) studied the impact of leadership on school culture and student achievement in South Carolina. This study used the School Culture Survey developed by Gruenert (1998). The study was quantitative research. Howard (2004) reported that leadership has a statistically significant positive impact on school culture in public elementary schools in state of Michigan, USA.

On the other hand, a study by Sufean (2014) focused on school culture and instructional leadership of high-performing and low-performing public secondary Schools in Malaysia using quantitative method. The study employed two sets of survey instrument, namely the Effective Instructional Leadership Questionnaire developed by McEwan (2002), and the School Culture Elements Questionnaire (SCEQ) developed by Cavanaugh and Dellar (1997). The study found that there was a slight relationship between instructional leadership and school culture in high-performing schools. In addition, in high-performing schools, the school heads maintained positive attitudes toward students, staff, and parents; created a climate conducive to learning and predominantly emphasized teachers' professional values and collegiality. Surprisingly, the study also found that the high-and low-performing schools were similar in two aspects of school culture, namely teacher collegiality and shared visions.

Most research works in the past examined leadership practice with either organizational health or school culture separately. However, studies that have been carried out to examine the relationships among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in school setting simultaneously are rare. Arokiasamy's (2017) study is a case in point. In Ethiopia, despite the presence of much research on school leadership style, leadership skill, and the like, the relationship among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in Ethiopian schools is not well studied. Therefore, this study attempts to fill this gap by examining the leadership practices in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia) secondary schools, and their organizational health as mediated by school culture.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

Ethiopia achieved rapid improvements in its education system with the introduction of ‘Education and training policy’ in 1994. As a result, the country has witnessed remarkable achievements in addressing access to education at all levels. For instance, secondary school enrolment has expanded rapidly, roughly five fold (Ministry of Education, MoE, 2015). The results can be partly attributed to the commitment of the Government of Ethiopia. The Government showed its commitment by: allocating finance on incremental basis, launching quality assurance projects and improving teacher training to mention a few. Furthermore, to enhance quality of education, the government had also taken measures such as ‘General Education Quality Improvement Program’ for both primary and secondary education and ‘Improving Quality of Primary Education Program’ for primary education.

Through these interventions over a decade, teacher qualifications have improved; supply and distribution of books have reached optimum levels; new methods of curriculum delivery including student centered methods and Continuous Assessment have been introduced. In addition, a recent educational innovation in which students are organized into groups of five (commonly called one-to-five; one leader and four members) was introduced and scaled up to all schools. This was intended to make students help each other and cooperate in their learning (MoE, 2018). Teacher qualification has been improved in the past years in the secondary education level. For instance, in 2018/19 out of the total number of teachers teaching in secondary schools (Grades 9-10), teachers who fulfill the standard qualification for the level were 94 percent in the first cycle and 96.2 percent in the second cycle (11-12) (Ministry of Education, 2019).

Despite all these efforts, learning outcomes of secondary school students was deteriorating and the learning environment of the schools was getting worse. This was traced back to the period of ESDP III (2005/06 – 2010/11) which uncovered the student achievement to remain low against substantial improvements to raise the quality of education. As a result, ESDP IV foresighted challenges it should emphasize on in the period of its implementation. Some of these issues were: a strong improvement in student achievement through a consistent focus on the enhancement of the teaching

learning process and the transformation of the school into a motivational and child-friendly learning environment. Furthermore, improvement of the effectiveness of the educational administration at all levels, through capacity development and the creation of motivational work environments were also envisioned (ESDP, 2010). However, still student achievement was found to be at a low level. Student achievement at grade 12 national examination indicated a slight decline at the end of ESDP IV implementation (ESDP, 2015). The gross enrolment rate of secondary education for first cycle (grade 9-10) was only 40.5 percent and the second cycle (grade 11-12) during the same period was 11.2 percent in 2014/15 (FDRE, 2016). This shows a lot remains to be achieved to increase enrolment in this level of education. However, the low student achievement from within the low enrolment rate was a critical issue for the education system.

A study for preparation of 'Education road-map for 2018-2030' by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education has indicated a number of drawbacks of secondary education. In the mentioned national study respondents indicated that teachers lacked the energy to motivate students to learn. Furthermore, a majority of the students were reported to perceive the teaching learning process in their respective schools as either partly uninteresting or completely boring. Most interviewed stakeholders confirmed student engagement and energy to be very low. Stakeholders observed absence of determination in students in attending classes, carrying their books to the schools; absence of enthusiasm in attending classes and absence of interest and energy in doing their homework (MoE, 2018).

Surprisingly, the report disclosed that teachers and students wasted much of the instructional time both in school and out of school for different reasons. Teachers spend much time in meetings, on school administrative tasks and absenteeism. It was also reported that teacher and student off-task state is widespread in secondary and preparatory schools. The report indicated that, the type of interventions for the secondary education used to be input-focused. Most interventions focused on supplying inputs for education rather than focusing on the process. Moreover, the report stated that students' lack of interest in their learning could be attributed to failure in the education system (MoE, 2018).



The aforementioned pitfalls of Ethiopian secondary education can be attributed to leadership practices and school culture. For example, teachers' and students' off-task behavior is failure of leadership to inspire and influence them. In addition, it shows that positive school culture was not developed. This situation seemed to highly affect school culture of the schools. This was witnessed in the national study's findings which stated that the Ethiopian education system compared to other nations like Vietnam and Malaysia was found in a different scenario. In Vietnam and Malaysia students take education very seriously and carefully engage in their studies with interest. Furthermore, they were hardworking, disciplined and greatly valued seniority. Teachers reciprocated by loving their profession and challenged their students to work hard (MoE, 2018).

It is evident that secondary education in Ethiopia is heading to a serious problem this time not due to short supply of human and material resource and lack of direction but failure in the process of education. A timely intervention seems urgent in issues like leadership, management, motivation, moral, work environment, and work culture to safeguard the education level that is crucial in preparing the youth to be productive and responsible citizen and complementing the endeavor of the government. Therefore, this study attempts to fill this gap as a result of the failure of process in the education system by focusing on leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools.

Locally there were studies on leadership style of secondary school principals. Tamrat (2018) studied the practices and problems of secondary school leaders in Oromia special zone surrounding Finfinne. He found that principals were not performing school functions properly and were preoccupied with administrative tasks. In addition, it was reported that school leaders were not leading professionally. There were few studies conducted on school climate with different variables (Leadership, job satisfaction, and motivation). For example, the research conducted by Miressa (2014) emphasized on school climate and leadership practices in four selected secondary schools of East Hararge zone using a descriptive survey method. The study focused on the relationship between teachers and principals, teachers and students, the relationship among teachers, between community and school and students' academic orientation as the school climate components and the three leaders' behaviors.

Furthermore, Garedeu (2015) examined the effect of school climate on teachers' job satisfaction in secondary schools of East Arsi zone using descriptive survey method. The study revealed that most of the teachers were demotivated because of school factors, leaders' factors, supervisors, external factors and student factors which are considered as dimensions of school climate in the study. As well, Nebiyu (2015) assessed teachers' motivation and school climate in 12 selected secondary schools of East Arsi zone using correlational survey design and qualitative methods. The participants of the study were 180 teachers' who were selected randomly and 30 principals and 4 supervisors who were selected by purposive sampling. The finding showed that teachers were not motivated to their job due to lack of conducive school climate such as lack of availability of teaching materials and equipment, and lack of good relationship between teachers and students.

Mulugeta (2015) investigated relationship between school culture and teachers' job satisfaction of Ethiopian orthodox Tewahido church schools in Addis Ababa. The respondents were 86 teachers in the schools. In the study, School culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron and Quinn, 2011), and Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1997) were used for data collection. The findings showed that the schools under the study tended to emphasize Clan culture, being the dominant school culture which is characterized like an extended family, loyalty that have shared values and goals and it focuses on mentoring, nurturing and doing things together. The results of this study also suggest that the clan culture has a very strong and positive significant influence on overall teacher's job satisfaction.

Mintesinot (2018) conducted a study on School culture in Government and Private Primary schools in Woreda one of Akaki Kality Sub City. He used School culture Assessment Instrument (SCAI) developed by Quinn and Cameron (2006) for collecting quantitative data from 71 teachers. Accordingly, Mintesinot found that teachers in private primary schools interact and were better in sharing their ideas and feeling with each other, and their schools were more dynamic and result-oriented than government schools. In private schools teachers were more involved in managerial decision making and were delegated some power and responsibilities.

Hana (2019) also studied leadership style and school culture of private secondary schools in Addis Ababa using Northouse Leadership Questionnaire based on Lewin (1939) and School Culture Survey of Gruenert, (1998) involving 2015 teacher respondents. She found democratic leadership as dominant type of leadership and collegial support was found dominantly perceived school culture by teachers in private secondary schools of Addis Ababa with the highest mean value than the other types of culture. Principals were perceived by teachers as providing guidance without pressure, frequently communicating and supportive with teachers, helping teachers for completing their work and to find their passion. However, principals were not participating teachers in decision-making. It was also reported that positive relationship existed between principals leadership style and school culture. The study revealed a statistically significant and positive relationship between democratic leadership style and all dimensions of school culture at 0.00,  $P < 0.05$ .

Generally, most of the aforementioned studies emphasized on the relationship between organizational health and other variables and the research methods used were quantitative in nature. This study attempts to examine if leadership has a significant impact on organizational health of school, as mediated by school culture. From the literature review, the relationship among leadership practices, school culture and organizational health of schools has been rarely investigated in developing countries including Ethiopia. For instance, the study by Arokiasamy (2017) studied on the influence of transformational leadership and school culture on organizational health of secondary school teachers in Malaysia using quantitative method. He found that transformational leadership and school culture affected organizational health. Research works regarding these variables treated simultaneously were few. Such a shortage of research on the problems indicates a gap. This study was concerned with how much of the variation of the school health stems from the principals' leadership practices as mediated by school culture in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.

Most research works that attempted to study the aforementioned variables employed quantitative design, used questionnaire as data gathering tool and descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis. This study differs from previous works because it

treated leadership practice, school culture and organizational health simultaneously and employed mixed design.

### **1.3. Research questions and hypotheses**

The study attempted to answer and test the following research questions and hypotheses.

1. To what extent do school principals practice leadership in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration as perceived by teachers?
2. What type of school culture is prevalent in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration as perceived by teachers?
3. What is the level of organizational health in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City as perceived by principals and teachers?
4. Is there significant difference in principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health with respect to respondents' demographic characteristics and secondary schools Addis Ababa City Administration?
5. Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between principals' leadership practice and school culture in secondary schools Addis Ababa City Administration.
6. Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant relationship between principals' leadership practices and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.
7. Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant relationship between school culture and organizational health in Addis Ababa city secondary schools.
8. Ho<sub>4</sub>: School culture does not significantly mediate the relation between leadership practice and organizational health Addis Ababa secondary city schools.
9. Ho<sub>5</sub>: There are no significant inter-correlations among the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in Addis Ababa city secondary schools.
10. What factors affect leadership school, culture and organizational health of secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration?

### **1.4. Objectives of the study**

This study attempted to achieve the following general and specific objectives.

### **1.4.1. General objective**

The major objective of this study was to examine the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health and explore factors that determine the state of these variables in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.

### **1.4.2. Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Assess the extent principals practice leadership in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.
2. Assess the school culture in secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration
3. Examine the level of organizational health of secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration.
4. Assess the significance difference in principals' leadership practices, school culture and organizational health with respect to demographic variables of respondents and among secondary schools Addis Ababa City Administration.
5. Examine the relationship between principals' leadership practice and school culture in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.
6. Explore the relationship between principals' leadership practice and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.
7. Examine the relationship between school culture and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.
8. Examine the mediating relationship of school culture between leadership practice and school culture.
9. Examine inter-correlations among the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health.
10. Explore the determinant factors for the current leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.

### **1.5. Significance of the study**

This study, examining the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and school health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration, is anticipated to be significant for the following reasons. First, the results of the study may provide valuable information about the status of principals' leadership practice, school culture and school health and their relationship in secondary schools. Secondly, policy makers, planners, and educational leaders at different levels could use results obtained from the study to improve school leadership, school culture as well as the organizational health in the secondary schools. Thirdly, due to the scarcity of studies on principals' leadership practice, schools' culture and organizational health in our setting, this study may provide new insights in our context. Finally, the study may initiate other researchers to conduct further studies on the same or related issues. The study also benefits the researcher as it helps him to improve his professional career.

### **1.6. Delimitations of the Study**

This study was delimited to government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration. Schools in Addis Ababa city administration were administered by principals trained principals. In addition, schools were supported by sub-city education offices supervisors. However, problems related to leadership and other issues were observed. The schools that were included in the study were secondary schools that run grades 9-12. Private secondary schools were not included in this study as the context of privately owned secondary schools is different from the public one. Addis Ababa was considered ideal for this study since it is the capital city of the country where schools are relatively more resourceful than their counterparts in rural areas. The majority of the schools involved in the study had relatively similar infrastructure, teachers, student population with similar socio-economic background and government support system. In addition, secondary schools in Addis Ababa have trained leaders most of them trained in school leadership. However, serious problems related to school leadership, school culture and organizational health is prevalent in secondary schools of the city.

The population for this study was government secondary schools, school principals and teachers in Addis Ababa City Administration. Sample schools and participants were selected from population in focus. The schools were all that served at least five years since their establishment. The participants of the study were school principals and teachers in the sample schools. Teachers that have served at least for three years in the same school were included in the study because it was believed that those teachers with some years of stay in the schools will have better understanding of their principal's leadership and the schools' culture. In addition it was anticipated that they will have information that is related to organizational health of their schools since it is exhibited in the interaction of the school community. Schools principals who served at least three years in the same school were included in the study with the assumption they might have developed their own leadership practices over a span of time.

The variables to be treated were principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools. The possible relationship among the three variables and their sub-scales was also investigated. This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect and analyze data. In the quantitative part three sets of questionnaires were employed. The quantitative data collection and analysis was intended to get the general picture of the problem under study. In the qualitative part interview and document analysis were employed. The qualitative data collection and analysis elaborated and refined findings from the quantitative research further.

Theoretically, this study was guided by Kouzes and Posner's leadership theory (1993), Schein's organizational culture model (1985) and the model of organizational health developed by Hoy and Feldman (1987). Kouzes and Posner's leadership theory was selected for this study because it specified the practices of leadership. It enables to assess what principals do in their schools in the course of leading their schools. Schein's organizational culture model acknowledges the interrelationship of leadership and organizational culture and influence between each other. Thus this makes this model preferable for this study. With regard to organizational health the model of organizational health developed by Hoy and Feldman is the one that Organizational health model considers organizations as systems.

### **1.7. Limitations of the study**

This study focused on secondary schools in Addis Ababa city with the intention of examining the relationship of leadership practice of the principals in relation to school culture and organizational health. In addition, the sample schools were public secondary schools. This may not enable to research the relationship of the variables for the study in different situations like in rural and other types of schools, private and community schools.

The respondents were teachers and principals in the secondary schools. The study did not include parents, students as respondents assuming teachers and principals are the main actors and the one that have high interaction in the school. In addition, these respondents are highly involved in the day to day activities in the school that makes them to have well understanding of the different aspects of their school. However, if parents and students were included they would have added to the information in understanding the interplay among leadership, school culture and organizational health in schools from their perspective. The study used convergent parallel mixed design method. Studying the variables under investigation in this research in a longitudinal design may provide a different understanding of the interplay of the variables. As a result, the study dealt with the current situation not how the variables were changing in the schools in a span of time.

### **1.8. Operational Definitions of Terms**

Under this section, concepts related to the major variables of the study were operationally defined as they were intended to be used in the context of this study.

**Leadership** refers to the process and ability of an individual to influence, to motivate, and enable others (individual or group) to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of an organization.

**Leadership practice** refers to the school principals' role in becoming a model, inspiring and Sharing vision, challenging the school process, empowering teachers other personnel, and encouraging them.

**School culture** is the assumptions, norms and values, and cultural artifacts that are shared by school members, which influence their functioning at school.



**Organizational health** refers to teachers' perceptions of their school's ability to function effectively, to cope adequately and to change.

**Organizational health dimensions** are school health components such as institutional integrity, initiating structure, principal influence, consideration, resource allocation, morale and academic emphasis.

**Secondary school** refers to schools that run grade 9 to 12, in the Ethiopian context.

## 2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter dealt with the review of the related literature on leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools. Issues such as, the concept of leadership, leadership practice, the concept of organizational health, the characteristics of healthy and unhealthy school, the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of school were treated. The literature review was exhaustive with selective citation of the concepts related to the variables under study. In addition, narrative review was used in reviewing the literature (Randolph, 2009).

### **2.1. Leadership, Leadership Theories and Leadership Practice**

Leadership is a function of all organizations. It affects different aspects of the organization. In the next sections the topics related to the study: concept of leadership, theories of leadership, dimensions of leadership, leadership practice and school leaders' role, school culture and organizational health of schools are presented as reviewed from the existing literature.

#### **2.1.1. The concept and definition of leadership**

Leadership is a multifaceted concept and is not easy to define (Leithwood and Duke, 1999). As a result it was defined and conceptualized in different ways. Daft (2005) stated that there are more than 350 definitions of the term leadership given by scholars and writers. Silva (2016) noted that many authorities contend that there are more than 1,000 definitions of leadership. Similarly, Kouzes and Posner (1995) stated that there are over 225 definitions of leadership. Even fresh definitions are being added to the already existing ones (Cokluk and Yılmaz, 2010). Therefore, there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (DuBrin, 2001).

There is, however, little consensus upon the definition of leadership. Leadership is difficult to define because: it consists of a multitude of follower interactions, follower's interactions occur in different kinds of organizations, and organizations have their own settings and situations. The reason for various definitions of the concept is attributed to a

number of factors. These factors include that the word is taken from the common vocabulary without being precisely redefined, the use of imprecise terms (like power, authority, administration, management) to explain similar situations and researchers' definition in their individual perspective and interest (Yukl, 2002). In addition the nature of leadership itself is complex (Daft, 2005) and there are different leadership theories in positioning leadership (Northouse, 2010). Northouse argued that the way leadership was conceptualized contributed to its multitude of definition. He stated leadership was viewed as forms of group process, personality perspective, a behavior, power relationship and a transformational process (Northouse, 2016). Yukl also showed that leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships and administrative position (Yukl, 2002). As a result, the concept and definition of leadership has been a topic of debate among scholars for many years (Leithwood and Duke, 1999).

Although there is no consensus on the definition of leadership, it is essential to look into some of the definitions and the ones provided by scholars to be used as general definitions. Accordingly, Daft (2005) defined leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared process. Moreover, Hackman and Johanson (2004) asserted leadership as the act of making a difference. Leadership is to make people work together for a particular goal, and refers to sum of knowledge and skills in order to achieve intended goal (Tagraf and Calman, 2009).

Significantly, Yukl (2010) attempted to define leadership broadly. According to him, Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. In the same way, Yukl claims that this definition takes into account several things that determine the success of a collective effort by members of a group or organization to accomplish meaningful tasks. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2016).

Yukl states that leadership includes efforts to influence and facilitate the current work of the group, and it also ensures that the group is ready to meet future challenges.

Leadership, which is a function in all organizations, is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of an organization (Yukl, 2010). Despite the fact that there have been very different definitions of leadership, the concept of ‘influence’ has been used in almost all of them (Cokluk and Yılmaz, 2010). Leaders who exert influence over organizational members help to meet these goals and increase their organizations chances of success (Jones and George, 2009).

Daft (2005) states leadership is an influence and people activity. Emphasizing on the role of influence he goes on to say:

*Leadership involves influence that occurs among people. Influence means that relationship among people is not passive, is multicultural, and non-coercive. An important aspect of leadership is influencing others to come together around a common vision to bring about change toward a desirable future. Leadership is a people activity, occurs among people; it is not done to people. Followers are an important part of leadership process. Each person takes personal responsibility to achieve the desired outcome. Effective followers are committed to something outside their own self-interest, and they have the courage to stand up for what they believe. At its best leadership is shared among leaders and followers, with everyone fully engaged and accepting higher levels of responsibility (p. 24).*

From this explanation, we can understand that influence is an important aspect of leadership. Influence of leaders facilitates followers to achieve the goal of the organization. It also allows leaders to release their responsibility.

Leadership is often regarded as a critical point of success or failure of the organization (Karabina, 2016). Various dramatic changes such as globalization, technological advances, social and demographic trends and legal and ethical issues lead to changes in the organization of work which then necessitate that business leaders evaluate and restructure their style and approach in line with these new workplace values (Ekuma, 2014). As suggested by Hesselbein and Cohen (1999), organizations are now evolving toward structures in which rank means responsibility but not authority, and where the supervisor’s job is not to command, but to persuade. Hence, in order to be effective, it is critical for managers to influence their subordinates, peers, and superiors to assist and support their proposals, plans, and to motivate them to carry out with their

decisions (Blickle, 2003). According to Yousef (2000), those who perceive their superior as adopting consultative or participative leadership behavior are more committed to their organization. Supervisors who provide more accurate and timely types of communication enhance the work environment and are likely to increase employees' commitment to the organization.

Some scholars like Aldoory and Toth (2004) and Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich (1985) contend the idea that leadership plays a strong role in organizational performance and assert that there are false-assumptions regarding the importance of leadership factors to the functioning of groups. On the other hand, scholars like O'Reilly *et al.* (2010) and Yukl (1994) have reached a conclusion that leadership truly matters in an organization and leaders play an important role in the attainment of organizational goals by creating a climate that would influence employees' attitudes, motivation, and behavior. Despite disputes on the construct of leadership as a strong force in organizations, the common understanding is towards the active role of leadership for the success of an organization (Toprak, Inandi, and Colak, 2015).

In particular, in today's highly competitive environment (Kushwah and Barghaw, 2014) where classical leadership approaches do not work well, the existence of any organization is mainly dependent on the effectiveness and efficiency of its leaders (Ekuna, 2014). Recent studies have also indicated that types of leadership in an organization influence organizations' performance, efficiency and health to a great extent (Celik, 2007 cited in Toprak, Inandi, and Colak, 2015).

Appropriate leadership behaviors might benefit organizations, while on the contrary, ineffective leadership practice harm organizations (Armstrong, 2013). The use of a particular leadership behavior by a manager affects both job satisfaction and productivity of the employees. Leadership theories have proposed many leadership behaviors such as: autocratic, bureaucratic, laissez-faire, charismatic, democratic, participative, situational, transactional and transformational leadership. But there is consensus among researchers that a particular leadership behavior will yield result in a particular situation. In other words, a single leadership behavior is not ideal for every situation. A leader may be more effective in a particular situation but may not emerge

as effective in a different situation (Mosadeghrad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). Particularly, deficiencies of accustomed leadership theories resulted in emergence of new theories and styles of leadership two of which are transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Turan, 1996 cited in Toprak, Inandi and Colak 2015). Burns (1978) describes transforming leaders as individuals that inspire his followers in acquiring moral values such as equity and justice. While putting emphasis on moral values, transformational leaders also try to diffuse rapid and effective changes in organization (Celik, 2007 cited in Toprak, Inandi and Colak 2015).

### **2.1.2 Leadership theories**

Leadership theories have been developed since the period of great-man theory and are still under continuous study. The recent ones that focus on leader behavior are style, situational, transformational, contingency and transformational theories. Leadership style theory proposes that leaders use different style depending on the employee's development and work type (Northouse, 2012). Situational theory proposes that leaders choose the best course of action upon situational conditions. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for different types of decision making. Transformational theory focuses on the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. In this case it can be seen the leaders are not only focused on the performance of group members but also on each person to fulfilling his or her potential (Amanchu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015).

The trait theory of leadership was one of the first organized efforts to understand the concept of leadership in the early 20th century (Northouse, 2007). According to this theory, the traits found in leaders make them different from non-leaders. The leadership qualities of individuals are believed to be inherited and a part of their personality. Thus, this theory argued leaders were effective due to some unique and innate leadership qualities (Allen, 1998). Consequently, different researchers in their studies attempted to find out attributes and personal characteristics that distinguished leaders from others. "Researchers analyzed physical and psychological traits, or qualities, such as high energy level, appearance, aggressiveness, self-reliance, persuasiveness, and dominance in an

effort to identify a set of traits that all successful leaders possessed” (Lussier and Achua, 2010, p. 16). Stogdill (1974) in Asrar-ul-Haq and Anwar (2018) proposed intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability as the unique traits of effective leadership; later he added responsibility and task completion as additional leaders’ traits.

Although trait theories of leadership emphasized more on the traits of the leaders, but never clarified as if these traits are inherited in the leaders or can be learned with time through adequate education or training (Allen, 1998). At the same time, Pierce and Newstrom (2006) indicated that, many researchers came up with individual traits of effective leadership, yet no one was able to predict the leadership success and failed to identify precise traits that predict leadership success. Horner (1997) in Asrar-ul-Haq and Anwar (2018) further highlighted that trait theory ignored the environmental and situational factors which tend to affect the effectiveness of the leader in a particular situation. “It focuses exclusively on the leader, not on the followers or the situation. In essence, the trait approach is concerned with what traits leaders exhibit and who has these traits” (Northouse, 2019, p. 78).

Unlike the trait theory, behavioral theory concentrate on leaders’ certain personality characteristics. It emphasized more on studying the determinants of behavior of a leader and concluded that leadership style can be learned; it is possible to learn leadership behavior and styles through training (Allen, 1998). The behavioral theories include two types of behaviors: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. The task behaviors are related to the task accomplishment whereas the relationship behaviors motivate the followers to carry on their efforts (Northouse, 2007).

Contingency theories of leadership focused on studying the behavior of leader which varies from one situation to another. Hence, particular variables related to the environment that might determine which style of leadership is best suited for a particular work situation is given emphasis (Lussier and Achua, 2010). Accordingly, a leader is required to define one particular behavior or leadership style which could fit in varying situations. Therefore, contingency theories propose that there is no best leadership style in every situation. Success depends upon a number of variables, including leadership

style, qualities of followers and situational features. Effective and successful leaders use different leadership styles based on the situation and followers. Effective leadership is the best fit between the behavior, context and the need (Bhindora, 2013).

Transformational leadership is a recent theory in an attempt to understand leadership. In this theory leaders are considered as individuals who need to make use of the motives of followers in order to better reach the goals of leaders and followers and inseparable from followers' needs. Hence this theory emphasizes on intrinsic motivation and follower development (Northouse, 2007). The leader's primary goal is to motivate the employees to cooperate, as opposed to forcing them to perform tasks and job duties. "Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Burns, 1978, p.20). Because the employees are inspired to perform the work that is needed, they are also more receptive to change. "The transformational leadership model can be linked to human needs because it requires the transformational leader to develop the followers' higher-level needs of self-esteem and self-actualization" (Burns, 1978, p. 20). The improvement in followers' performance is the main emphasis of transformational leadership theory (Avolio, 2011).

Transformational leadership has five parts; the first is idealized influence. It describes the extent a leader is able to instill pride in the followers and sacrifices his or her needs for the group. Idealized behavior is the second which explains the extent leaders establish trust, and are risk-takers. The third is inspirational motivation which is the leader's ability to communicate a high expectation, inspire followers to share the vision, and adopt a sense of mission. The fourth one refers to intellectual stimulation in which the leader seeks to initiate creativity and innovation, resourcefulness focused on one's own values, and the solution of everyday challenges. The fifth one, individualized consideration is the ability to offer personalized attention to followers, advising and providing support as needed (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

In addition, to previous works by Bass on transformational leadership theory two other researches have contributed to understanding of the nature of transformational leadership.



They are the research of Bennis and Nanus (1985) and the work of Kouzes and Posner (2002, cited by Northouse, 2019).

Kouzes and Posner formulated ‘The practices of exemplary leaders framework’ which refers to five domains of leadership practices. These practices include: Modeling the Way, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Challenging the Process, Enabling Others to Act, and Encouraging the Heart. They were developed through a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative research and analysis of cases of personal best leadership experiences. These practices of effective leaders all concentrate on the change, preservation, or improvement of an organization’s culture (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Leaders who employed ‘The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership’ are recognized by their followers to be better leaders. According to Kouzes and Posner, individuals who are working with leaders using the five leadership practices are found to be more satisfied with their leaders and more productive in their performance. The five practices of exemplary leadership include all the areas explained by other scholars (Kouzes and Posner, 2010).

Northouse (2019) stated that:

*Overall, the Kouzes and Posner model emphasizes behaviors and has a prescriptive quality: It recommends what people need to do in order to become effective leaders. The five practices and their accompanying commitments provide a unique set of prescriptions for leaders. Kouzes and Posner stressed that the five practices of exemplary leadership are available to everyone and are not reserved for those with “special” ability. The model is not about personality: It is about practice (p. 279).*

Therefore, the work of these two scholars also contributed to the understanding of leadership.

### **2.1.3. Kouzes and Posner’s model of leadership and leadership dimensions**

The operationalization of the construct of leadership for this study is based on conceptualization of the Kouzes and Posner’s leadership model. Kouzes and Posner conducted intensive research on current leadership practices for almost 20 years (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). They came up with leadership practices that are considered to be essential components of the concept of transformational leadership. In their influential

work of identifying the best practices of leadership based on research of personal best narratives, Kouzes and Posner identified five domains of practices and ten commitments of exemplary leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). These leadership practices identified by the two researchers have been recognized by many researchers as truly representative of highly effective leadership practices (Taylor, 2002). They are also taken as dimensions of leadership as designed by Kouzes and Posner. Each of the dimensions is explained in the paragraphs that follow.

Modeling the Way refers to leader's ability to demonstrate the guiding principles and the shared vision of the organization through the leader's personal thoughts and actions and encouraging others within the group to act in a similar fashion (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). The first step to be a good leader is using words guided by the leader's personal beliefs and values rather than the words of someone else. Leaders clarify values by finding their voice and affirming shared values, and they set the example by aligning their actions with the shared values. This strong commitment to beliefs and a clear set of values lends credibility to the leader (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). To inspire goals and improve achievements at the highest levels words alone are not enough but leaders' deeds are far more important than their words (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Inspiring a Shared Vision has to do with a leader's vision of the future and the leader's ability to inspire others to see the ultimate possibilities for success (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). People are not willing to follow someone that is not forward-looking. Hence, leaders should have a desire to make something happen, to change the way things are, to create something that no one else has ever created before (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). Leaders give life into the ideas of others and enable them to see the exciting possibilities that the future holds. Leaders envision the future by imagining exciting and enabling possibilities, and they bring others around a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations (Kouzes and Posner, 2007).

Challenging the Process stresses the issue that the leader must constantly search for opportunities to challenge the status quo. Leaders are expected to find new ways to improve the organization through seeking, developing, and encouraging innovation (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Effective leaders are willing to take risks to bring

improvements in their organizations. Leaders search for opportunities by taking the initiative and looking outward for innovative ways to improve, and they experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

Enabling others to act, focuses on leadership practices directed towards facilitating collaboration and team building within an organization (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). Exemplary leaders foster collaboration, build trust, involve stakeholders, and create an atmosphere of mutual respect (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). When leaders establish an environment where people feel strong, capable, and committed greater achievement is possible. By enabling followers leaders strengthen them by increasing self-determination and developing competence (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Encourage the heart addresses celebrating the successes of individuals and that of the organization as a whole (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). Leader's positive feed backs keep people to engage and focus themselves on goals of the organization. It is very important for a leader to show appreciation for people's contributions, and this has to lead to a culture of genuine celebration. Leaders recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and they celebrate values and victories by creating a spirit of community (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

#### **2.1.4. Measuring leadership through leadership practices inventory**

In 1983, Kouzes and Posner began a research with the intention to know what leaders did at their best when leading others in different situations. They interviewed managers from excellent companies. Over the following five years, Kouzes and Posner conducted over 500 surveys. At the same time, other research was done with a group of 80 managers which included interviews and a survey. This group consisted of middle and senior managers of organizations. Over the years, Kouzes and Posner have expanded their research and work to include community leaders, church leaders, government leaders, and school leaders. They were hoping to discover patterns of success (Goewey, 2012).

This research and the analysis of the personal best practices of leaders in a variety of fields lead to the development of the five practices of exemplary leaders and eventually

the book, 'The Leadership Challenge and The Leadership Practices Inventory, a personal-best survey'. It identified a set of essential practices that leaders should have to own success in organizations they are leading. This leadership questionnaire, "Leadership Practices Inventory", assesses leadership behaviors and is widely used in organizations (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Using qualitative and quantitative measures, Kouzes and Posner developed the five leadership practices measured by the LPI. The five practices grew out of Kouzes' and Posner's case study work, which incorporated the Personal-Best Leadership Experience questionnaire and includes thirty eight open-ended questions. Additionally, they conducted various interviews which contributed to the refinement of the LPI. After conducting various psychometric processes, the LPI was completed (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). The five practices of effective leaders outlined by Kouzes and Posner all focus on the development, maintenance, or improvement of an organization's culture (Goewey, 2012). The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is developed by Kouzes and Posner in 1993 as an instrument to measure or quantify these five exemplary leadership practices. Abu-Tineh, Khasauneh and Omary (2008) explained the LPI as a survey instrument that has been field tested and proven tool in identifying the behaviors that make a difference in leaders' effectiveness.

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in its improved final version is a 30-item survey utilizing a Likert rating scale to measure Leadership Practices of leaders either from the perspective of followers or the leader herself. The 30-item of LPI is broken-down into five dimensions (subscales) consisting of six items each. Each of The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership corresponds with six behaviors from the thirty-item Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Across continents, The Five Practices have survived the test of time. Although the context may have changed since more than thirty years ago, the content has remained constant. The fundamental behaviors, actions, and practices of leaders have remained essentially the same. The Five Practices include: Modeling the way (6 items), Inspiring a shared vision (6 items), Challenging the process (6 items), Enabling others to Act (6 items), and Encouraging the heart (6 items). Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which each statement characterized their school along a ten-point Likert scale from (1) "almost never", (2) "rarely", (3) "seldom", (4) "once in

a while ", (5) " occasionally" ,(6)" sometimes " , (7) " fairly often " , (8)" usually", (9) " very frequently " , or (10)" always" . Each item on the LPI was scored for each respondent with the appropriate number (1, 2, 3,... or 10). Then, an average score for each item was computed by averaging the item responses across all respondents as a group to examine the practice of school leadership (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

### **2.1.5. Leadership practice**

Leadership practices refer to basic roles of good and necessary leadership in most contexts, and they are what all school leaders need to master (Day *et al.*, 2011). Kouzes and Posner suggested that leadership is not a position, but a collection of practices and behaviors that serve leaders as guidance to accomplish their achievements or to get extraordinary things done (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). Leadership practices in schools are mainly derived from instructional leadership and transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2011; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). Instructional leadership emphasizes that school principals have to set instructional goals to follow up instructional programmes and to build a positive academic culture (Hallinger, 2003). Whereas, transformational leadership primarily emphasizes on building school vision and goals, providing intellectual stimulation, providing individual support, modeling specialized practices and setting high expectations (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005).

Ahmad *et al.*, (2017) argued that the main factor that leads to the achievement of the high performing schools is the leadership of the principals and viewed “leadership both a process and behavior in which a leader apply certain actions to influence others to work on a voluntary basis and in team towards achieving the vision of the organization” (p. 8). For them the most dominant leadership practices among principals of successful schools were: setting the direction, developing people, redesigning organization, managing instructional process or programme and high performing management (Ahmad *et al.*, 2017). Raihani (2008) in an attempt to develop a model of successful school for Indonesian schools suggested principals’ leadership practices include: defining school success, holding enduring beliefs and values, analyzing contexts, developing vision and strategies, building school capacity and establishing broader collaboration. Similarly, Steyn (2014) concluded in attempt of exploring successful principalship in South Africa

that a “principals personal traits, his leadership practice and his emphasis on continuous development shaped and transformed the culture of the school. Successful leadership practice focuses not only on what people do, but more importantly how and why it is done” (p. 358) .

Ryan (2013) reported the result of meta-analysis of 27 studies with the intention to identify the impact of different types of (transformational and instructional) leadership came out with four practices of principals. They were:

1. Establishing goals and expectations (transformational), includes the setting, communicating, and monitoring of learning goals and expectations, and the involvement of staff, and others in the process so there is clarity and consensus about goals;
2. Resourcing strategically (instructional), involves aligning resource selection and allocation to priority teaching goals. Includes provision of appropriate expertise through staff recruitment;
3. Planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum (instructional);
4. Promoting and participating in teacher learning and development (instructional); and
5. Ensuring an orderly and supportive environment (instructional), including protecting time for teaching and learning by reducing external pressures and interruptions and establishing an orderly and supportive school environment.

On the other hand, worldwide evidence across settings gives four groups of effective leadership practices that fit utmost context. The leadership practices include: (1) Setting directions, including articulating the school’s vision, fostering acceptance and recognition including and performing as a role model; (3) Refining and aligning the organization, including creating collaborative cultures in the school, redesigning and redefining roles and responsibilities and enhancing productive relationships with families and communities; and (4) Improving the teaching and learning programme, including planning and supervising instruction, providing teaching support, monitoring school activity and buffering staff from distractions to their work (Day *et al.*, 2011; Hallinger,2011).

Dunst *et al*, 2018 in their meta-analysis work of 112 studies from 31 countries identified 11 leadership practices. These identified practices were: Organizational Visioning, Motivational Communication, Modeling Desired Behavior, Encouraging Employee Input and Feedback, Soliciting Creative Solutions, Shared Decision-Making, Relationship-Building Practices, Confidence-Building Practices, Coaching Practices, Performance Expectations and Performance Rewards. Furthermore, in a synthesis of literature, Parker (2015) identified a long list of specific leadership practices. Accordingly, the specific practices included: A leader,

- Ensures a safe and orderly school environment,
- Establishes and maintains vision and goals focused on high levels of student achievement,
- Has high expectation for all,
- Establishes norm of continuous improvement,
- Plans, implements, and participates in professional development for faculty and staff,
- Monitors alignment of curriculum, instruction, and assessment,
- Monitors and facilitates teacher effectiveness,
- Provides instructional feedback to faculty and staff,
- Uses evidence-based decision making,
- Involves stakeholders in decision-making and empowers faculty and staff,
- Facilitates parent and community outreach and involvement,
- Monitors progress of students and shares results,
- Assesses program impact,
- Allocates human and fiscal resources,
- Has high level of self-efficacy,
- Implements first and second-order changes, and
- Serves as a role model.

Comparing the set of leadership practices given by Dunst *et al*, (2018) and Parker (2015) provides similarity of the practices. However, the former one presents more general practices than Parkers' leadership practices. The works of the aforementioned authors

indicate the attempt to come up with specific leadership practices for leadership effectiveness. However, it seems no consensus is reached despite the presence of common ingredients of leadership practices across the works of writers.

#### **2.1.6. School principals' leadership role**

Clifford, Behrstock-Sherratt, and Fetters, 2012; May, Huff, and Goldring, 2012 cited by Ryan (2013) argued that “the nature of the job of a school principal has changed over the past century to include a variety of responsibilities and duties that range from data-driven reform implementation to maximizing instructional time through bell scheduling”. According to Rayan (2013) the roles and responsibilities of the school principal have changed significantly in the past century, resulting in the contemporary principal having a wider sphere of influence than in the past. Principalship went through changes ranging from taking responsibility while teaching to full-time engagement because schools grew and responsibilities increased. As managers and principals were responsible for financial operations, building maintenance, student scheduling, personnel, public relations, student discipline, coordination of the instructional program, and other overall school matters. It was assumed if the principal carried out these managerial functions competently, the school would operate effectively.

Later on, as the effective schools movement began the principal was regarded as an instructional leader who was expected to implement the components of effective instructional leadership. These components include: Establishing school-wide goals, defining the purpose of schooling, providing resources for learning, supervising and evaluating teachers, coordinating staff development, and creating collegial relationships with and among teachers (Valentine and Prater, 2011 cited by Bryan, 2013). According to Snowden and Gorton (1998) cited by Martin (2009), the principal has the ultimate responsibility for shaping the culture of the school; however, he or she may fail to realize it because school culture is typically an area that goes unnoticed. Effective principals promote a positive school culture that creates a safe environment for both the staff and the students. While there is no simple formula or distinct pattern that can duplicate exactly what it means to be an effective leader, one can determine the kind of leader that



the principal is by observing the school's environmental setting (Davis, 1998) cited by Martin (2009).

Contemporary principal was characterized by context-driven leadership in which a single leader assumed multiple roles depending on context. As a result a principal may be a traditional manager in some contexts and an adaptive leader in others. The variety of conceptions of principal leadership may include traditional manager, supervisor of standards, adaptive leader, instructional leader, and leader among leaders. A school principal may perform managerial tasks such as creating a school-wide standardized testing schedule, supervisory tasks such as the observation and evaluation of school staff, and instructional leadership tasks such as assisting teachers with curriculum development. Thus, the wide scope of responsibility and the context-driven leadership practices made the school principals' role complex. The changes in principals' responsibilities and the nature of their work have even raised new questions about how to define principal effectiveness (Clifford et al., 2012 cited by Rayan, 2013).

Educational leaders have the responsibility of creating effective learning communities (Strike, 2007). There is a substantial body of evidence supporting the importance of leadership in creating and maintaining good schools. The role of the principal is a complex, multi-dimensional, contextual, and interactive. As the principal interacts, shapes, and influences the various factors related to school culture, including school organization, processes, and people, he or she influences school culture and student outcomes. As the school culture changes and affects school and student outcomes, there is a reciprocal effect on the principal and his or her leadership practices (Parker, 2015). The definition of what constitutes a good school has changed from a focus on environment, organization, and stakeholder satisfaction to an emphasis on student performance outcomes. Likewise, the role of principal has evolved from basic manager to instructional leader and change agent. Most recently, the principal is viewed as a culture builder in addition to instructional leader and change agent. In this connection, it can be seen the role of a principal emphasized on the importance of leadership on culture and its resulting impact on school effectiveness (Parker, 2015).

Research has provided significant results on the role of principals and characteristics of effective schools. They are organizations that avoid persistent, systemic ineffectiveness (Miles, 1965). Healthy schools have effective principals who are dynamic, supportive, and influential (Hoy and Tarter, 1997). The creation of healthy schools lies in the hands of the principals (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003). Principals have a responsibility of creating, changing and maintaining school culture. Leadership and culture as inseparable in those leaders first create cultures when they create groups and organizations. Whenever a group is formed, a culture is created. After it is created, the group agrees with the founder's ideas, and in turn, the founder instills his or her personal beliefs and values into the mission and goals of the group. Consequently, the culture is created, and the group members pass along these routines and traditions to new members as they join the group (Schein, 1992). The principal, as well as other school leaders, should form the culture of the school by being cultural builders (Barth, 2002). School culture building and goal setting are the crucial components of cultural leadership forces. Constructing these forces allow the principal to define and strengthen the values, beliefs, and cultural features that give the schools its identity (Sergiovanni, 1995 cited by Martin, 2002).

Deal and Peterson (1999) state that there are five roles that the principal must fulfill in order to shape a school's culture: asserting values through his or her behavior, dress, attention, and routines; shapes others by first being shaped by the school's heroes, rituals, ceremonies, and symbols; has an expectation that appropriate language will be used in order to maintain a good school image and to reinforce the values of the school; manages the necessary school's activities and monitors transitions and changes at the school. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) stated successful principals influence the school culture by using six strategies: emphasizing shared goals; reinforcing cultural change; promoting staff development; regularly communicating the cultural norms, values, and beliefs of the organization; sharing power and responsibility with others; and expressing cultural values through the use of symbols and rituals by celebrating the accomplishments of the staff members. Leaders involved in shaping the culture must have the vision and determination to be able to transform the existing elements of the school's culture into qualities that support, rather than undermine, the school's mission (Barth, 2002).

However, when school culture is not supportive of the school's mission, principals has to play a role of changing the school culture. Schein (1985) stressed that the unique and critical function of leadership is influencing the school's culture. Shaping the culture of the school is the most difficult aspects of principals (Barth, 2002). Hoy and Miskel (2005) affirm that school culture is something that is deeply rooted into the schools, and as a result, attempting to change it will most likely face resistance and be unsuccessful. Thus, it is vital that school leaders develop a sense of awareness and understanding of the existing culture before they attempt to change it (Schein, 1992).

Deal and Peterson (2002) believed, principals can begin the process of understanding the culture of the school by, first, reading the culture of the school's history and analyze the norms and values that are currently in place. This can be accomplished by talking to the staff at the school that have been there for years and years and enjoy reminiscing about the school's memories or by asking the staff to participate in a series of exercises at the faculty meetings. Once enough information is gathered to make an analysis about the school, then the next step is to examine what aspects of the culture are positive and should be kept, as well as what aspects of the culture are negative and should be changed. Finally, the principal should reinforce the positive features. This shows that school principals need to be cautious in recognizing the school culture and work closely with those that are key for changing the culture of the school.

Once the school culture has been created or changed, then the principal's role changes to maintaining this culture. Crows, Matthew, and McCleary (1996) in Martin (2002) state that the principal needs to address three groups of individuals in the school. The first, of which, are the veteran teachers. The principal should maintain some of the existing rituals, ceremonies, and other forms of celebration that were employed to create a positive culture in order to ensure that these values and beliefs are continued as the experienced teachers retire and new teachers join. The new teachers are the second group that the principal will need to address. He or she should make sure that the new teachers are familiar with the existing norms and beliefs. The last group that the principal will need to address includes the education office administrators, community leaders, government officials, politicians, and other individuals outside the school. This

ensures that they have a clear understanding of the mission and vision of the school, and as a result, will support it in an effort to achieve the school's goals.

Shaping the culture of the school is the primary responsibility of the principal. In this regard Deal and Peterson (1999) identified specific ways school leaders can successfully shape culture: they need to communicate core values in what they say and do; honor and recognize those who have worked to serve the students and purpose of the school; observe rituals and traditions to support the school's heart and soul; recognize heroes and heroines and the work these exemplars accomplish; eloquently speak of the deeper mission of the school; celebrate the accomplishments of the staff, the students, and the community; and preserve the focus on students by recounting stories of success and achievement.

In the Ethiopian context National professional standard for school principals was prepared by the federal Ministry of Education to guide the preparation, recruitment and placement of school principals. The standard for principals enumerates the role of school principals. The central role of the principal includes:

- providing professional leadership and management for a school.
- establishing a culture that promotes excellence, equality and high expectations of all pupils.
- providing vision, leadership and direction for the school and ensures that it is managed and organized to meet its aims and targets.
- evaluating the school's performance to identify the priorities for continuous improvement and raising standards
- ensuring equality of opportunity for all;
- developing school rules and regulation and practices
- ensuring that resources are efficiently and effectively used
- securing the commitment of the wider community to the school by developing,
- maintaining effective partnerships with different stakeholders.
- being responsible and accountable for the development of children and young people
- networking and collaborating with a wide range of stakeholders

- establishing and maintaining professional relationships and structures
- working with others to seek creative and innovative solutions that support quality outcomes for all.
- inspiring students, staff and members of the community to continuously enhance the learning of all.

The document also provides standard levels and competencies for school principals (MoE, 2013). It can be seen that the standard for school principals incorporates elements of culture such as providing professional leadership, establishing a culture that promotes excellence, providing vision, networking and collaborating, establishing and maintaining professional relationships, and inspiring students, staff and members of the community.

## **2.2. School Culture**

School culture is highly studied in the business context. It was later adapted to school setting from the business literature. The following subtopics deal with the concept of school culture, measuring school culture, dimensions of school culture and importance of school culture.

### **2.2.1. The concept of school culture**

According to Schein (1985) there is no consistent definition of organizational culture that is agreed upon and used by all researchers. Culture has its roots in the field of anthropology. It is also much discussed in sociology, psychology, organizational psychology, and business/organizational management defined in a multiple ways. Definitions vary according to the use of the cultural aspect or element being measured, and different writers may use the same concepts in different ways (Parker, 2015).

Williams and Glisson (2014) defined School culture as the behavioral norms and expectations of an organizational unit. These norms and expectations guide the way employees in that organizational unit approach their work, direct their priorities, and shape the way work is done. According to Sackmann (1991) cited by Martin (2009), school culture is defined as a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions shared by members of an organization. He stated that this definition may apply to the culture within any type

of organization. School culture was perceived as a set of beliefs, norms, values, and behaviors that characterized the school, as well as those aspects that gave the school its unique identity and atmosphere (Parker, 2015). Culture is also a form of shared basic assumptions that a group learns as it attempts to solve its problems of outside adaptation and internal assimilation. House, *et al.*, (1999) on the other hand provides what they claim comprehensive interpretation of culture. According to them, culture is shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members or collectives and are transmitted across generations.

As an organization evolves, a consistent pattern of behavior emerges. This pattern of behavior is based on the shared assumptions of the members of the organization. These patterns evolve over time and are handed down to new members of the group, becoming cultural norms (Schein, 1992 in Parker, 2015). The culture in an organization is transmitted to new members of an organizational unit through social processes such as modeling, reinforcement, and sanctions (Hatch, 2004). The purpose of passing over the pattern is to endure it as a correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to problems facing the organization. For the new members it is learning proper way to solve the problems (Williams and Glisson, 2014). Thus, school culture provides members of the organization an understanding of how to work through the basic problems of survival, in adaptation to the external environment and developing and keeping internal practices (Martin, 2002). Therefore, school culture can be a source of drive and dynamicity, innovation or hindrance for organizational progress (Hogan and Coote, 2014).

School culture is a complex entity that is constructed and re-shaped as members interact with each other, the students, and the community. It is a reciprocal system in which the culture is shaped by the members of the group, and the behaviors of the group are influenced by the culture. It is a pattern of underlying assumptions, stated values, and artifacts that lie at the conscious and subconscious levels, guiding the behaviors and actions of the members and the organization (Parker, 2015).

School culture constitutes behavior of employees in the organization and has important effect on behavior of managers and employees at all organizational levels. School culture

can enhance communications and coordination structure in the organization. It helps in preserving health of the organization through creation of work teams, harmony, and solidarity between the various parts which contributes to continuous quality improvement. Therefore, understanding the school culture as a major need is at the top priority of activities of the leaders in the organizations (Martin, 2002).

Schein (2004) reveals that organizational culture consists of two layers of concepts, namely, visible and invisible characteristics. The visible layer means external buildings, clothing, behavior modes, regulations, stories, myths, languages and rites. On the other hand the invisible layer is common values, norms, faith and assumptions of organization members. Organizational culture, in addition to the capability to integrate daily activities of employees to reach the planned goals, can also help organizations adapt well to the external environment for rapid and appropriate responses. After examining the concepts of school culture and leadership closely, Schein (2004) concludes that organizational culture and leadership are two sides of a same coin; neither can be really understood by itself.

School culture is studied by many scholars who have forwarded different theories. Two of the theories, interpretative and functional theory of culture were discussed by (Maslowski, 2001) to explain culture in organizations. Schein (1985) argued that the process of culture formation is identical with the process of group formation. Every group develops an identity – the shared patterns of thought, belief, feelings, and values – that result from shared experience and common learning within that group. He further states that culture in an organization attempts to solve the group's basic problems of surviving and adapting to the external environment on the one hand, and integrating its internal processes to ensure the capacity to continue to survive on the other hand. The culture of a school influences how people think, feel, and act (Peterson, 2002, cited by Martin, 2009).

Although the definition of culture is difficult to measure and causes some concerns, organizational culture offers a variety of benefits to the organizational leader and members (Schein, 2004). Organizational culture contributes to the organization's staff: It makes workers to work more effectively and harmoniously with the organizational leader, as well as providing regular procedures for laying out business strategies and

methods so that they can work effectively. Schein further stated organizational culture: increases commitment to the vision of the school, increases commitment to the school, develops trust toward school and the management, prevents destructive conflicts, shapes the behaviors and expectations of teachers and students at the school and increasing school success, increases the effectiveness and efficiency at school (such as academic success of students, performance of teachers (Schein, 2004).

Review of past research works by Stolp and Smith (1995) showed that school culture has profound impact on school outcome. The following are the areas where school culture helped improvement than changing structure. The first one is 'creating professional community'. Research confirmed that when teachers exercise their responsibility for student learning the student achievement showed improvement. Developing schools as healthy, professionally sustaining environments is more useful than changing school structure. In such a way teachers are encouraged to do their best job. Such a culture will help to increase teachers' sense of mastery and their influence on student learning. The second area of culture is 'motivating students'. Studies indicated the relationship between school culture and student motivation. The third one is 'student achievement. The focus on school culture particularly the implementation of a shared vision promoted in the dropping of failures in the exams.

Tanase (2015) also stated that organizational culture: is the element that drives the organization. It creates an operational environment in which every employee strives to achieve the goal that was set by the organization, creates dynamic team upon which every employee is held accountable while at the same time all members respect themselves and the organization as an entity, can make the employees feel like they take part of the process, and will help the organization to change as planned and also to sustain the new expected growth period that comes along with the change.

Thus school culture is an important aspect of school which the leaders assuming the position of leading a school need to pay attention. The principal in a school has a greater human relation than any other institutions which poses a difficulty to deal with many persons. This situation in its turn makes the principal to work with different cultural issues and has implication in his job. The principal should also be aware of the influence



from the school culture and how he goes about shaping the school culture to become successful.

### **2.2.2. Measuring school culture**

Culture is a complex construct and at the same time did not get agreed upon definition by scholars. Parker (2015) asserts that assessment of school culture is complex and presents two basic schools of thought regarding appropriate means of assessing school culture. One view is that culture is too complex to be assessed using written questionnaires or surveys. Assessors would not know what to ask or be able to judge the reliability or validity of the responses (Schein, 1999 cited by Parker, 2015). On the other hand, the second view states that quantitative tools such as questionnaires could be used in conjunction with structured interviews (Rousseau, 1990 cited by Parker, 2015).

Rousseau and Schein cited in Parker (2015) state that although school culture may be assessed through observation of behaviors, interactions, rituals, and by examining artifacts; shared values, beliefs, and expectations, which lie at a deeper level of consciousness, it is best examined through structured group interviews. The two writers advise school leaders and assessors to be aware of their own underlying assumptions which may bias their assessment of school culture. In an attempt to examine to measure school culture quantitatively, Maslowski (2006) reviewed quantitative assessments or inventories of culture designed to measure basic assumptions, values, norms, or cultural artifacts in school organizations. He used five criteria for selection of the inventories: instruments that (1) measured assumptions, values, norms, or artifacts; (2) measured different dimensions of culture; (3) diagnosed school culture; (4) measured school processes pertaining to school staff; and (5) had been validated.

By using the above criteria, six questionnaires were identified: School Culture Survey (Edwards *et al.*, Saphier and King, and Schweiker-Marra), School Work Culture Profile (Snyder), Professional Culture Questionnaire for Primary Schools (Staessens), School Values Inventory (Pang), School Cultural Elements Questionnaire (Cavanagh and Dellar), and a questionnaire for measuring school culture in primary schools (Houtveen). These inventories measured different aspects of school culture. After reviewing these inventories Maslowski concluded that questionnaires can be a valuable tool in diagnosing

school cultures and showed the questionnaires are primarily concerned with the identification of particular cultural traits in schools (Maslowski, 2006).

Agreeing with Maslowski's proposition, Parker (2015) provides criteria for using questionnaire as assessment instrument. He states that school leaders interested in assessing the culture or climate of their schools should use a set of criteria to guide their selection of the most appropriate tool for their schools. The criteria listed are a starting point. Additional criteria may be added, based on the needs of the schools, the reasons for assessing the school's culture, and how the results will be used. Basic criteria include: an instrument that (a) measures the cultural elements relevant to the school; (b) defines the concept of culture, that is consistent with how it is defined by school leadership; (c) is related to a school as an organization, rather than an instrument designed to be used in business or industry; (d) has been determined to have appropriate validity and reliability in terms of what it is measuring; (e) is user-friendly and easy to use for the participants; (f) will yield useful reporting information that can be used for school improvement or to address areas of concern; and (g) is cost effective.

Thus, we can conclude that school culture or school culture in particular can be studied by employing either qualitative or quantitative method given the researchers' need to take into consideration, the type of study chosen, the purpose and the context. In this connection Cavanagh and Dellar's work can be an important contribution. School Culture Elements Questionnaire (SCEQ) has been developed by Cavanagh and Dellar (1997) to be used to collect views about school culture from teachers of secondary schools in Western Australia. It was used to measure aspects of the inter-personal relationships amongst school staff which were expected to influence school's instructional programme. The SCEQ comprises two forms, the 'actual form that profiles teaching staffs' perceptions of the prevailing culture and the 'preferred form that allows the staff to express the desired future state of the school culture. Each form contains 42 items to measure the six element or components of school culture. The six components of SCEQ are: professional values, emphasis on learning, collegiality, collaboration, shared planning, and transformational leadership. Each component consists of seven items. In this questionnaire, respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which each statement

characterized their school culture along a five-point Likert scale from (1) "Never", (2) "Seldom", (3) "Sometimes", (4) "Often", or (5) "Always". Each item on the SCEQ was scored for each respondent with the appropriate number (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5). Then, an average score for each item was computed by averaging the item responses across all respondents as a group to examine the culture of the school.

### **2.2.3. Dimensions of school culture**

School culture is highly studied in business organizations. As a result much of the literature is from the business area. For instance writers Quinn and Cameron extensively researched on organizational culture. School culture or culture of educational organizations is a new idea that drew its concept as a learning organization from the business literature. There is much literature on business organizations organizational culture. However, the introduction of school culture to the education setting is a recent phenomenon. The underlying conception of culture in schools is that schools are conceived as learning communities. The culture of a learning community is manifested by the sharing of values and norms among teachers resulting in commonality of purpose and actions intended to improve the learning of students. It comprises of beliefs, attitudes, values and norms about the education of children and the social interaction within school (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1997).

Schein (2010) argues that organizations are result of people interacting for accomplishing a common purpose. There is a basic relationship between the individual and the organization. Such a relationship can be fundamental to build a type of organization. Schein categorizes organizations based on assumption of authority and intimacy. Accordingly, organizations were identified as coercive, utilitarian and normative organizations. In coercive organizations individuals are in essence eager for physical or economic motives and must, therefore, observe whatever rules are enforced by the authorities (as in prisons, military academies, mental hospitals). Utilitarian organizations are manned by individuals who provide "a fair day's work for a fair day's pay" and, therefore, accept whatever rules essential for the performance of the organization. Business organizations of all sorts can be categorized under this grouping. Finally, normative organizations are those that have their goals basically the same as the

individual's goals. The individuals contribute commitment and accept legitimate authority (as in churches, political parties, voluntary organizations, hospitals, and schools) (Schein, 2010).

Although organizations can be classified considering different factors, studies in organizations identified aspects or dimensions of organizational culture.

#### **2.2.3.1. Hofstede's model**

Hofstede (1980) has identified four core dimensions of culture. The first one is 'power distance' which refers to the extent to which people accept inequality in power among institutions, organizations and people. On the other hand the second dimension is 'uncertainty avoidance' that relates to the extent to which members of a society feel uncomfortable with unstructured situations, uncertainty, and ambiguity. 'Individualism vs. collectivism' which is the third dimension is the degree to which individuals are supposed to look after themselves or remain integrated in groups, usually centered on the family; and collectivism is a preference for a tightly knit social framework in which individuals look after one another and organizations protect their members' interests. Finally, 'masculinity vs. femininity' the fourth dimension is the degree to which people prefer achievement, heroism, assertiveness, work centrality (with resulting high stress), and material success as opposed to relationships, cooperation, group decision-making, and quality of life. Later on Hofstede added additional dimension, 'long-term vs. short-term orientation, which refers to the extent to which a culture programs its members to accept delayed gratification of their material, social, and emotional needs (Hofstede 2001).

#### **2.2.3.2. Cameron's and Quinn model**

Cameron and Quinn (2011) developed the organizational culture model based on Competing Values Framework. The framework explains how four parameters identified in the model (internal focus and integration vs. external focus and differentiation, and stability and control vs. flexibility and discretion) compete with one another. Based on these parameters the framework classifies organizational cultures into four distinct cultural types.

The first one is ‘clan culture’, which is rooted in collaboration. Members share commonalities and see themselves as part of one big family who are active and involved. Leadership takes the form of mentorship, and the organization is bound by commitments and traditions. The main values are rooted in teamwork, communication and consensus.

The second type is ‘adhocracy culture’ which is based on energy and creativity. Employees are encouraged to take risks, and leaders are seen as innovators or entrepreneurs. The organization is held together by experimentation, with an emphasis on individual ingenuity and freedom. The core values are based on change. The third type of culture is ‘market culture’ which is built upon the dynamics of competition and achieving concrete results. The focus is goal-oriented, with leaders who are tough and demanding. The organization is united by a common goal to succeed and beat all rivals. The main value drivers are market share and profitability.

‘Hierarchy culture,’ is the fourth one which is founded on structure and control. The work environment is formal, with strict institutional procedures in place for guidance. Leadership is based on organized coordination and monitoring, with a culture emphasizing efficiency and predictability. The values include consistency and uniformity. Cameron and Quinn discovered that flexible organizations are more successful than rigid ones because the best organizations are able to manage the competition between cultures while activating each of the four value-sets when needed (Cameron and Quinn, 2011).

Schools differ from business organizations and have their own peculiar features. Some scholars have attempted to identify dimensions of school culture in schools. Gruenert (1998) and Cavanagh and Dellar (1997) are works that managed to identify the dimensions of school culture based on extensive research.

### **2.2.3.3. Gruenert’s model**

Gruenert (1998) identified six dimensions of school culture reviewing different research works and testing on schools. The first dimension of school culture, collaborative leadership, describes the extent to which school leaders create and maintain collaborative relationships with the faculty. This is done by making teachers feel that their ideas are

valued and by participating them in decision-making process. In addition, collaborative leaders empower teachers to make their own decisions and encourage them to be innovators, as well as risk-takers. The second dimension of school culture, teacher collaboration, explains the degree to which teachers engage in meaningful conversations with one another in an effort to support the vision of the school. It includes teachers planning together, observing one another, as well as having post-observation conferences. In turn, this allows them to reflect on and build upon their current teaching practices and evaluate school programs.

The third element of school culture, professional development, indicates the extent to which teachers view continuous professional development and school improvement as being important. Teachers who exhibit this behavior actively participate in professional development training sessions and are members of professional organizations in an effort to stay up-to-date on current trends and practices in education. Unity of purpose, the fourth dimension of school culture, explains the degree to which teachers work together to achieve the school's mission. The mission is clearly communicated to the teachers, and the teachers are supportive of its purpose. As a result, their job performance is guided by these shared values. Collegial support is the fifth element of school culture. It describes the extent to which teachers help one another and work together in an effective manner to accomplish the daily tasks of the job. It is evident that the teachers in the school trust each other and value one another's opinions. The last component of school culture is learning partnership. It refers to the extent that the teachers, parents, and students work together to ensure that students are successful. The expectation is for all students to achieve. In order to accomplish this, students are held accountable for their own learning, while parents and teachers communicate with each other frequently about student performance (Gruenert, 1998).

#### **2.2.3.4. Schoen and Teddlie's model**

Schoen and Teddlie (2008) proposed a model for dimensions of school culture in their attempt to clarify the concepts of school culture and school climate. They formulated four dimensions of culture that provides activities that should be engaged if good performance is to be realized at schools.

1. **Professional Orientation:** refers to the activities and attitudes that characterize the degree of professionalism present in the faculty. In this dimension the professional issues that relate to the work of teachers are addressed. It emphasizes on the assumptions and expectations that teachers need to make about their learners. It also pays attention to the perceptions of principals and teachers as professionals, as well as how they relate and cooperate each other.
2. **Organizational Structure:** refers to the style of leadership, communication and processes that characterize the way the school conducts its business. This aspect emphasizes the leadership practices of principals are aimed at leading the school. It attempts to find how principals involve and encourage stakeholders in decision-making, providing direction by capitalizing and supporting the vision and ownership of school goals. In addition, it focuses on communication patterns and relationships that exist among members of the school community and to the external environment. It considers existing policies, guiding various activities at a school.
3. **Quality of the Learning Environment:** refers to the intellectual merit of activities in which students are typically engaged. This dimension gives attention to the way learners acquire, internalize and use the knowledge gained. It is mainly focused on how the teaching and learning process is conducted. It also consists of the curriculum options and the opportunities available to learners. The emphasis is to ensure that learners benefit from the learning activity.
4. **Student-Centered Focus:** refers to the collective efforts and programmes offered to support student achievement. This dimension focuses on the extent to which learners are supported to ensure that effective learning takes place. It assesses organizational structures and services (programmes, policies and the manner in which achievement and good work are recognized and celebrated) to enhance academic achievement. The manner in which achievement results utilized to assist learners to increase their academic work is also an essential aspect. It involves the analysis of the relevance of pedagogical methods used in classrooms to enhance the culture of learning.

### 2.2.3.5. Cavanagh and Dellar's model

Cavanagh and Dellar (1997) after an in depth study of secondary schools provide the following dimensions of school culture for schools.

1. 'Professional values' refers to the importance of the social institution of education and the need for school growth is grounded on pedagogical principles;
2. An emphasis on learning refers to producing a learning community in which there is a commitment to professional growth and improved outcomes for students;
3. Collegiality refers to empowering teachers to exercise professional judgments through the development of supportive interpersonal relationship;
4. Collaboration is interaction between teachers in which information is shared on school operational matters including the instructional program;
5. Shared planning is a collective process whereby a common vision of the school is actualized by logical planning; and
6. Transformational leadership is sharing power by leaders and facilitating a school development process that engages the human potential and commitment of teachers (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1998).

The inertia of these cultural elements is in a state of dynamic equilibrium. This equilibrium gives school overall stability, which ensures the maintenance of the culture under conditions, which may threaten the common values and norms towards student learning and professional interaction which characterize the culture. The six cultural elements are interdependent (Kuen, 2009).

Hofstede's model attempts to explain how people believe the culture in their organization is and prefer some ways of behaving, for instance as work centrality. The five dimensions of culture in this model show relationship among people in the organization. Cameron and Quinn presented the school culture dimensions as a competing framework. Their conception of the dimensions show that people in an organization value the culture of a typical business school culture in which most of the dimensions reflect competing the rivals. For example, market culture is characterized



achieving results and becoming profitable. Schools being different in their feature from other organizations possess a certain cultural dimensions other than the rest of the organizations. Gruenert's dimensions of school culture are directed towards collaboration, communication and continuous improvement. On the other hand Schoen and Teddlie provided a model for dimensions of school culture that focuses on achieving goals and professionalization. The last model presented in this section, is the one developed by Cavanagh and Dellar. Their conception of the dimensions of culture in schools attempts to integrate the goal of the organization, the members of the school and the leadership. From these different models of school culture dimensions it can be seen that schools are more of characterized by collaboration and continuous professional development.

### **2.3. Organizational Health**

Organizational health is an important aspect of organizations. The concept of organizational health, importance of organizational health, organizational health dimensions, characteristics of organizational health and measuring organizational health of schools are presented below from the available literature.

#### **2.3.1. The concept of organizational health**

It was considered that organizations having high financial performance were healthy. However, the idea of organizational health was expanded beyond performance (profit and productivity) to include employee well-being as an important construct affecting organizational health. There is a lot of evidence pointing to the existence of a mutual relationship between organizational health and individual health. There needs to be some equilibrium to be struck between organizational performance measures and individual and collective health (Singh and Jha, 2017).

Miles, a pioneer to introduce Organizational health, defines a healthy organization as one surviving in changing conditions, capable of challenging problems and one that can continuously develop its skills (Akbaba, 2001 cited in Toprak, Inandi and Colak 2015). In educational sector the organizational health of school is a useful structure used to depict the mutual individual relationships of teachers, principals, and students. It refers to

teachers' perceptions of their work environment; and is influenced by formal and informal relationships, personalities of participants and organizational leadership (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp 1991). Similarly, Hoy, Sabo and Barnes (1996) have stated that the school health describes the interpersonal dynamics of students, teachers, and principals in a school. Hoy and Miskel (2008) defined organizational health as the vitality and dynamics of professional interactions among students, teachers, and administrators.

Omoyemiju and Adediwura (2011) stated that organizational health is perceived as organization's ability to function effectively, to cope adequately, to change appropriately, and to grow from within. According to Miles (1965) healthy organization is one that not only survives in its environment, but continues to cope adequately over the long haul, and continuously develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities. Yuceler, Doganalp and Kaya (2013) stated that organizational health is expressed as the capabilities possessed by an organization to adapt to its environment successfully, create cooperation between its members and achieve its targets.

As it can be understood from different definitions, the organizational health of a school is a useful sign of interpersonal relations among people in schools (teachers to teachers, teachers to students, teachers to principals, students to principals and others). Schools need the support of their environment to protect their organizational structure. Moreover, healthy schools adapt themselves to the environment successfully and promote common values in their staff (Korkmaz, 2007).

Organizational health model considers organizations as systems. According to this theory a healthy organization is one which has managed to achieve and adapt well with its environment. Organizations that are healthy are more successful than their competitors because organizational health gives them an advantage than unhealthy ones. A healthy organization is one whose structure, culture and management processes contribute to high levels of organizational performance (McHugh, Humphreys, and McIvor, 2003) in terms of financial, social and environmental responsibilities (Hart and Cooper, 2001 cited in Singh and Jha, 2017). It also emphasizes on the need to simultaneously focus on employee satisfaction and an organization's performance. It is necessary to focus on

organizational health if an organization wants to survive and grow in the presence of uncertainty and complexity (McHugh, 2001).

The overall level of organizational health of school is viewed and assessed from components or dimensions of organizational health. Farahani, *et al* (2014) pointed out that organizational health is one of the most important factors that affect the effectiveness of the school. The level of healthiness or unhealthiness of school climate is an indicator for the need of change and innovation (Yuceler, Doganalp and Kaya, 2013). The concept of organizational health provides a simple framework for improving school organizations (Hoy and Hannum, 1997). It allows managers and members of the organization to have a general picture of the organization in terms of its health. In healthy organizations, staff and personnel are committed, duty bounded and beneficial and enjoy high performance and spirit. Thus it becomes a place where individuals rush to workplace with keen interest and are attracted to work at the work place. Health of organization plays a very useful role in effectiveness of the system. It benefits the organization in terms of physical, mental, security, meritocracy and valuation to knowledge and specialty. It also contributes to personality of members and boosting their capabilities and fulfilling duties delegated by the systems' ultra-system. In organizations which possess staff and personnel with organizational health personality, organizational justice is defined meaningfully and staff feels wholehearted (Motevallizadeh and Zakiani, 2011).

Being a healthy organization is of great importance for schools. This is because healthy schools operate more effectively, and people are satisfied with the school. A vision which everybody is happy with is realized. At the same time, as the organization grows, there is a harmony with its environment (Leovey, Nadkarni and Erdaelyi, 2003). According to Kummer (2001) cited in Farahani, (2014) the healthy relationships in schools improve the organizational rapport (both inside and outside). Healthy organizations show continuity by adapting to environmental conditions, and staff members maintain their development (Miles, 1965). In this process of development, individuals carry on learning and keep on being informed (Dive, 2004). Thus the organization succeeds in concentrating on exterior disruptive influences and keeping

the school organization directed towards achieving its proposed objectives (Hoy and Miskel, 1996).

Generally while maintaining the operation and existence of the organization in achieving its goals, organizational health makes reference to environmental congruence and permanence. While organizational health of schools is maintained, student learning and achievement increase, and schools become more effective (Guclu, Recepoglu and Kılınç, 2014; Korkmaz, 2005, Vassie and Lucas, 2001). Schools' principal effort is an essential element in forming good work environment. These include practices headed for improving individuals' abilities, involving staff in decisions and strengthening the staff. Consequently, it can be indicated that a sound planning, continuous professional development of teachers, more caring attitudes in relationships, and quick response to change are what make schools healthy organizations (Vassie and Lucas, 2001).

### **2.3.2. Organizational health dimensions**

Miles in his work of organizational health developed and introduced ten components of organizational health that are grouped under three categories (task needs of a social system; maintenance needs; and organization's needs for growth and change). These characteristics of organizational health are produced within the framework of the organization as an open social system (Akbaba, 1999; Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp, 1991; Yuceler, Doganalp and Kaya, 2013). The ten components of organizational health are: goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

The first three dimensions of organizational health (goal focus, communication adequacy, and optimal power equalization) reflect the task centered or task needs dimension of organizational health (Miles, 1965). The other three dimensions (resource utilization, cohesiveness, and morale) reflect the maintenance needs of the organization which deals with the internal state of the organization, specifically with the maintenance needs of its members. Finally, Miles (1965) stated that, the rest four dimensions of organization

health (the notions of innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy) deal with the organization's needs for growth and change.

Following Miles' model for organizational health another set of organizational health components were formulated. Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) stated seven dimensions to conceptualize and measure organizational health of schools. They grouped these seven dimensions of school health in to three levels: the institutional, managerial and technical level. The institutional level consists of the institutional integrity dimension. Other dimensions such as principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, and resource support are categorized under the managerial level. And finally, moral and academic emphasis dimensions are the indices of school health at the technical level. The seven dimensions of school health described above measure different aspects of school health; however, the overall assessment describes the school health status.

The first dimension, institutional integrity, refers to the school's ability to deal with outside forces in a way that maintains the integrity of its programs. Teachers are protected from undue community and parental demands. The school has the support of the community and there is no outside pressure or influence on school principals and teachers. The next four dimensions (principal influence, consideration, initiating structure and resource support) are indicators of administrative or managerial level that measure school principal's ability to influence his/ her boss, support teachers, provision of resources for teaching and learning in the school. Principal influence is the principal's ability to influence the actions of superiors. Being able to convince superiors, to get more attention, and to be discouraged by the hierarchy are important aspects of school leadership. Consideration refers to friendly, supportive, open, and collegial behavior of the principal. This behavior shows candid concern of the principal for the welfare of the teachers. The principal supports and maintains harmonious interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, initiating Structure refers to the principal's behavior that focuses on task and achievement. Work expectations, standards of performance, and procedures are clearly articulated by the principal. Resource support refers to the principal that makes available necessary classroom supplies, instructional and extra materials upon request.

Teachers' moral and academic emphasis dimensions are the indices of school health at the technical level. The technical level is concerned with the teaching and learning within the school and its purpose is to produce qualified citizens. Morale refers to a collective sense of friendliness, openness, enthusiasm, and trust among teaching staff. In healthy schools teachers with high moral like each other, like their jobs, and support each other. They are also proud of their school and feel a sense of accomplishment in their jobs. Members will have a sense of friendliness and strong affiliation with the school. Teachers are committed to both their students and their coworkers, whereas academic emphasis describes whether the school is driven by a quest for academic excellence. The principals and teachers set high yet achievable academic goals for students. The learning environment is well-ordered and serious. Students work hard and admire those who do well academically (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991).

According to Parsons, cited in Korkmaz (2007) in a healthy school technical, managerial and institutional levels are in harmony, the school is able to meet its basic needs, and the energy is directed to the school's mission. Other scholars stated that, a healthy school is a school which shows strong performance in terms of these seven dimensions (Tsui and Cheng, 1999).

### **2.3.3. Characteristics of healthy organizations**

Healthy organizations are those in which all three levels (technical level, managerial level, and institutional level) are working in harmony. In addition, they meet their needs while coping with external forces as they move forward toward achieving their goals. Healthy schools are those that are protected from unreasonable external pressure. The pressure may come from community and other bodies. The board (management body) of the schools will respond effectively to all efforts of that could be directed by interest groups to influence school policy. In this case the principal of a healthy school exercises active leadership, leadership that is both task oriented and relationships oriented. The principals' behavior is supportive to teachers. However, she shows direction and upholds high standards of performance. Moreover, the principal is able to influence her superiors and is able to exercise autonomous thought and act (Hoy and Miskel, 2008).

Teachers are important to shape the future generation by instructing the young. Motivated and professional teachers are crucial to school success. In healthy schools teachers are committed to teaching and learning. They set high but achievable expectations for students; they maintain high standards of performance. They contribute for the learning environment to be orderly and serious. Finally, in a healthy schools teachers like each other, trust each other, are enthusiastic about the work and are proud of their school. The adequacy of non-human resources is also an essential component in healthy schools. Accordingly, in healthy schools classroom supplies and instructional materials are accessible by teachers (Hoy and Miskel, 2008).

In healthy schools, there is a high level of harmony among staff and they are successful schools (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991). Students in healthy schools work hard on academic matters, are highly motivated, and respect other students who achieve academically. In addition, it is significantly associated with students' perceptions of being cared, have equity perceptions, and high engagement levels (Bottiani, Bradshaw and Mendelson, 2014). Healthy organizations have special characteristics such as being goal oriented, having communicative competence, authority transfer, effective usage of resources, commitment/unity, morality, innovation, independence, adaptation and problem solving (Miles, 1969). Health of organization could be regarded as an indicator for psycho-social status of school (Akbaba, 1997). A healthy organization is the one where all the organizational processes are performed efficiently (Xenidis and Theocharous, 2014).

A school with a healthy organizational climate is one that copes successfully with its environment as it mobilizes its resources and efforts to achieve its goals (Hoy and Miskel, 2005). In addition, in a healthy school, there is a harmony at the technical, administrative and institutional levels. Problems regarding instruction and learning are solved, activities are done to enhance commitment, confidence and motivation, and requests from the school's environment are evaluated in an autonomous and unique way. Consequently, schools concentrate on student achievement and learning, which are their actual tasks (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991).

Leung's (2001) findings showed that there is a significant and positive relationship

between the factors of external pressures on schools and that of school organizational health. He found that healthy schools receive less pressure from external factors while unhealthy schools tolerate more pressure. A healthy school has high academic emphasis, an orderly learning environment, teachers who enjoy and are empowered by their jobs, have an instructional leader, enough resources, and freedom from negative external influences on the operation of the school (Hoy and Hannum, 1997).

#### **2.3.4. Measuring organizational health of school**

In the previous section, the dimensions of organizational health are presented. In this section attempts to develop instrument by scholars and researchers will be reviewed. The health metaphor was initially used by Miles (1965) to examine the properties of schools. Based on Miles framework, Kimpston and Sonnabend (1975) cited in Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) developed an Organizational Health Description Questionnaire (OHDQ) instrument to measure school health. Kimpston and Sonnabend prepared 50 items (five items for each dimension). There were serious problems with this instrument including reliability and validity problems (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991). Hoy and Feldam (1987) also stated that the instrument was a very short form, with questionable psychometric properties, which measured only 6 of Miles' 10 factors of school health.

After a series of empirical tests and factor analyses, a reliable and valid instrument, the Organizational Health Inventory for secondary school (OHI-S), was developed by Hoy and Feldam (1987) to measure the organizational health of secondary school. The Organizational Health Inventory (OHI-S) is intended to measure the school health climate from technical, organizational and institutional perspectives. Hoy and Feldam (1987) stated that the technical level of the school is concerned with the teaching-learning process. In this level issues such as morale, cohesiveness, trust, enthusiasm, support, academic press, order, and achievement are given attention. The managerial level was described in terms of administrative function of the school principal. The administrative functions is about principal behavior on task and achievement-oriented behavior, collegial and supportive behavior, ability to influence superiors and ability to provide adequate resources for teachers. The school's ability to cope successfully with outside forces is examined from institutional level perspective. When organizational climate is



viewed as health metaphor, the analysis of the school climate is focused on the general well-being of the interpersonal relationships in the organization (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991).

The Organizational Health Inventory of secondary school (OHI-S) measures the health of secondary schools along seven dimensions. The seven dimensions of organizational health were: institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, morale, and academic emphasis (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991).

The organizational health inventory for secondary school (OHI-S) is a 44-item survey utilizing a Likert rating scale to measure organizational health. The 44-item of OHI-S breakdown into seven dimensions (subscales) of the OHI-S include institutional integrity (7 items), initiating structure (5 items), consideration (5 items), principal influence (5 items), resource support (5 items), morale (9 items) and academic emphasis (8 items) (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991). Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which each statement characterized their school along a four-point Likert scale from (1) "rarely occurs," (2) "sometimes occurs," (3) "often occurs," or (4) "very frequently occurs. Each item on the OHI-S was scored for each respondent with the appropriate number (1, 2, 3, or 4). Then, an average score for each item was computed by averaging the item responses across all respondents as a group to examine the level of school health. The institutional integrity dimension serves as to measure school health at the institutional level. Principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, and resource support of school health dimensions help to measure the school health of the managerial system. The rest dimensions of organizational health of school those of the morale of teachers and an academic emphasis are the indication of school health at the technical level. Each of these dimensions of organizational health is measured by a subtest of the OHI-S (Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp, 1991).

#### **2.4. The Relationship among Principal Leadership Practice, School Culture and School Health**

Schools are built by the society to develop children and youth with the appropriate knowledge, skills, culture, and values to aid them function acceptably in their society and to endure building the society passing to the coming generation. That is the central

purpose of schools in every society. Within the school compound, apart from philosophy of education and policy, the principles and beliefs of school administrators, teachers, and students are less visible forces that shape the culture of the school (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005; Sufean, 2009). Hoy and Feldman (1987) stated that schools must solve four major problems: the problem of attaining adequate resources and adapting to their environments, the problem of setting and realizing goals, the problem of sustaining cohesion within the school and the problem of creating and preserving a unique culture.

School improvement and school effectiveness research on schools and factors that enhance effectiveness consider different variables. For instance, in studies of low-performing schools and high-performing schools with a strong sense of community, the principal was attributed as having to make difference. Researchers attempt to identify the degree to which principals affect school outcomes and to determine whether or not the effects are direct or indirect. (Parker, 2015)

Leadership and culture are two concepts that are considered to be inseparable (Schein, 1985). According to Deal and Peterson (1999), having a supportive culture is essential to being an effective leader; however, being an effective leader is also essential to having a supportive culture. Yet, there is no simple formula or distinctive pattern that explains what being an effective leader means (Davis, 1998, in Martin, 2009). Nevertheless, there are specific characteristics or behaviors that effective leaders possess. Thus, having a clear understanding of how the leadership style or behavior of the principal relates to promoting a positive school culture is critical. Leadership affects school culture. A review of the literature suggests that there is a direct and positive relationship between a productive school culture and school outcomes (Parker, 2015).

Schools need positive culture. Leaders need to work in developing and maintaining school culture. Leadership and culture are considered to be inseparable concepts. Being an effective leader requires having a supportive culture; however, having a supportive culture also requires effective leadership (Martin, 2009). Every school has its own distinctive culture. According to McEwan (2002) despite the existence of many factors, school leaders' outlook and ability are among that shapes a school culture. To function as an effective instructional leader, a principal must be able to exhibit high professionalism

and promote a healthy culture. Hallinger and Leithwood (1998) noted that culture and climate constitute some of those aspects that form the attitudes and behaviors of teachers and students in the process of toward instruction. Culture is linked overtly and covertly to all the functions of a school.

During the process of organization formation, the founders create an organization, which reflects their values and beliefs. In this sense, the founders create and shape the cultural traits of their organizations. In contrast, the cultural context conditions our actions, beliefs, and widely held values. Just as the leadership process is not divorced from the broader situational context in which the leadership takes place, unless the culture is supportive of leaders, leadership based on common values is impossible. Thus, culture determines a large part of what leaders do and how they do it (Northouse, 2001). The extent to which organizational values are shared among employees (cultural consensus) is another important point to keep in mind when linking leadership and organizational culture. It has been suggested that the degree of buy-in to the leader's culture-related messages determines the homogeneity or heterogeneity of school culture (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999).

According to Bass (1985), transactional leaders work within their organizational cultures and maintain consistent rules, procedures, and norms. On the other hand, he noted that transformational leaders frequently change their school culture with a new vision and revision of its shared assumptions, values and norms. In a transformational culture, there is generally a sense of purpose and a feeling of family. Assumptions, values and norms do not impede individuals from pursuing their own goals and rewards. Superiors feel a personal obligation to help new members assimilate into the culture. Leaders and followers share mutual interests and a sense of shared destinies and interdependence (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

The relationship between school culture and leadership can also be extended to the performance of the members in the organization. Keup, Walker, Astin and Lindholm (2003) provide some insight into the effect of the culture of the organization and state that culture clearly affects the way the members of the organization perceive and work. A strong school culture does not just happen; it is cultivated by management, learned and

reinforced by employees and passed on to new employees (Hellriegel et.al. 2004; Kruger, 2003). This shows that the school culture has the potential to enhance organizational performance and individual satisfaction.

Cheng (2000) argues that building and handling culture is the most important functions leaders need to do. If the culture diverges from the anticipated pattern, leaders have to destroy the prevailing culture and create a new one (Deal and Peterson, 1999). Schein (2004) also points out that the ultimate act of leadership is to destroy culture when it is viewed as dysfunctional. Effective school leaders can sense and manage a culture that fulfills the desired expectations and values of the school and local community. School leaders need to understand and recognize the customs, symbols, and behaviors of individuals in the school and school history and attitude of the school community. Afterwards, school leaders should to share their vision, beliefs, and values with teachers and students so that they all are focused toward purposeful ends (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Deal and Peterson (1999) advocate that deep and shared leadership produces the strongest and tightest cultures.

School principal plays complex, multi-dimensional, contextual, and interactive role. As the principal interacts, shapes, and influences the various factors related to school culture, including school organization, processes, and people, she influences school culture and student outcomes (Parker, 2015). Thus, it is evident that leaders are the most important source affecting school culture (Schein, 1992). If leaders engage themselves in supporting creative efforts and facilitating the promotion of learning and create a culture they can enhance organizational health to a large extent (Yukl, 2001 cited by Korkmaz, 2007).

Korkmaz (2007) contends that the leadership style of the principal is seen as a critical source of organizational health. Studying specifically this subject, Fliegner measured the effectiveness and health of schools and found them unhealthy. This result was interpreted as due to the inefficiency of the leadership styles (Fliegner, 1984). School health may be conceptualized from two concerns. In the first place schools are social systems. They should be characterized by social interactions among the crucial players (principals, teachers, students and others in school). Secondly, a healthy school system

should be in performing its various school functions in an effective manner (Tsui and Cheng, 1999).

Transformational leadership has a positive effect on organizational health because it starts with personal development and helping others develop themselves and continues with guiding them. On the other hand, the staff is sure that they have the equipment and resources necessary for their needs (Howel and Avolio, 1993). In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leadership has a different effect. There is a negative relationship between transactional leadership and a school's organizational health. Transactional leaders may decrease organizational health to a great extent because they focus on rules and bureaucratic procedures and reward and punishment which may not create good atmosphere for people relationship (Bogler, 2001). The teachers working in a school where transactional leadership avoid making mistakes and focus on existing or prospective problems. In this way, the relationship among the staff weakens and commitment to the school's vision declines (Korkmaz, 2007).

Sisman (2011) explained that school principals' instructional leadership practices can be expected to have an effect on the organizational health of schools. This is because instructional leadership is pointed to the behaviors that school principals perform to improve student learning and instruction. Establishing quality instructional settings are linked to principals' model behaviors (Williams, 2009). School principals ensure the development of the school staff (GuClu, 2000), review the processes at school and evaluate instruction, take care of supervision and planning (Sergiovanni, 1984) and support activities that encourage teaching and learning (Cranston, 2002). All these practices increase the quality with regard to teaching and improve school health. Accordingly, it can be stated that there is a positive relationship between school principals' instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of schools.

Arokiasamy (2017) studied on the influence of transformational leadership and school culture on organizational health of secondary schools in Malaysia. He used quantitative method to show the relationship of the variables by taking some components from each construct variables. He found that transformational leadership and school culture affected organizational health of the secondary schools.

## 2.5. Conceptual Framework of the Study

The major objective of this study was to examine the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration. The conceptual framework formulated for this study is based on the reviewed related literature to show the link between the independent variable (leadership practice) and the dependent variables (organizational culture and organizational health).

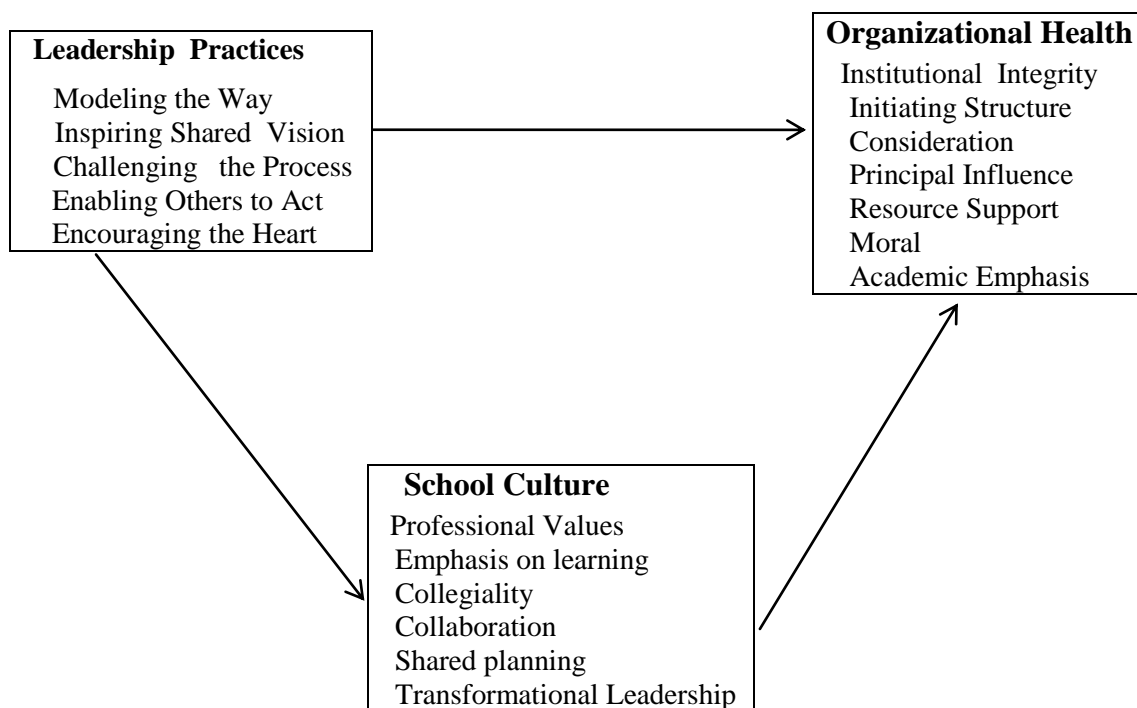


Figure 1: Conceptual framework: Relationship among Leadership Practice, school culture and organizational health

Researchers attempt to identify the degree to which principals affect school outcomes and to determine whether or not the effects are direct or indirect (Parker, 2015). Sisman (2011) and Korkmaz (2007) stated that leadership practices of school principal's affects organizational health of schools. According to Schein (1992), the organizational culture begins with leaders who impose their own values and assumptions on a group. Consequently, the school culture will affect the values, beliefs and assumptions of the leaders. Likewise, the values beliefs, and assumptions will be passed on to the new

members within the organization. One of the greatest challenges for leaders is how they may perceive the limitations of their own culture and to develop some adaptability.

Parker (2015) stated that:

*School culture could be considered the heart of the school. School culture affects and is affected by a variety of factors, including: leadership, curriculum and instructional practices, characteristics of the school, school environment, external forces, parents and community, and other factors. It is through the school culture that the principal does his or her work (p. 29).*

It can be seen that school leadership and school culture are closely related principals need to pay attention in their endeavor to lead their schools. They have to understand only management activities of day-to-day routines do not make them effective.

It was hypothesized principals' leadership practice to have a direct relationship with organizational health and school culture. In addition, principals' leadership practice is also assumed to have an indirect influence on organizational health through school culture. Thus school culture was expected to play a mediating role between the relationship of leadership practice and organizational health of schools.

## **2.6. Summary of the related literature**

In this section the summary of the related literature reviewed for this study is presented. Attempt has been made to reach the accessible literature sources such as books, journal articles, and internet materials as much as possible. The topics included, the concept of leadership, leadership theories, leadership practice, the concept of school culture, dimensions of school culture, the concept of organizational health, organizational health dimensions and conceptual framework.

Extensive review of literature on leadership reveals that the concept is still under persistent process of definition (DuBrin, 2001). Although previous research focuses on leadership models, the recent trend seems to focus on specific leadership practices that contribute to leadership effectiveness and organizational success. Kouzes and Posner suggested that leadership is not a position, but a collection of practices and behaviors. These practices serve as guidance for leaders to accomplish their achievements and even to get extraordinary things done (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). Day *et.al* (2011) also suggested that leadership practices as basic roles of good and necessary leadership in

utmost contexts. In their attempt to identify specific leadership practices of school principals Dunst *et.al* (2018), Parker (2015), and Day *et.al* (2011) forwarded almost similar leadership practices.

All researchers agreed on the importance of leadership to organizations and argue leaders need to understand the role of school culture for success (Toprak, Inandi and Colak, 2015; Ekuna, 2014). In addition, researchers concluded that leadership positively affected school culture and organization health (Korkmaz, 2007 and Parker, 2015). Although much research has been conducted on leadership and other variables, research on leadership practice, school culture and school culture is scarce. Local studies that treated simultaneously the three variables are rare.



### 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter is divided into the following sections: description of the study area, research paradigm, research design, population and sample size, sampling techniques, instrument of data collection, data collection procedures, methods of data analysis and ethical consideration followed in dealing with the participants of the study.

#### **3.1. Description of the Study Area**

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia is structured into nine regional states and two city administrations. This study was conducted in Addis Ababa City Administration. Addis Ababa is the largest city and the capital of Ethiopia. It also serves as a political, economic, cultural and historical center of the country. Furthermore, it is a place where the African Union and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and other continental and international organizations are based.

Addis Ababa is divided into ten sub-cities which are the second administrative units next to the city government. The sub-cities are Addis Ketema, Akaki-Kality, Arada, Bole, Gullelie, Kirkos, Kolfe-Keranio, Lideta, Nifas Silk-Lafto, and Yeka. According to Addis Ababa City Administration government bureau of finance and economic development (AACGBoFED, 2013), the total population of the city was estimated to be 3,048,631. There are a total of 13 public secondary schools running grade 9-12 in the city. In addition, 52 public schools run grade 9-10. There are also private and community schools providing education service to the city. \_

#### **3.2. Research Design and method**

Morgan (2007) stated that a paradigm is system of beliefs and practices that influence how researchers select both the questions they study and methods that they use to study them and a model about how research is done. According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), the word 'paradigm' used to mean a philosophical way of thinking and in educational research it describes a researcher's 'worldview'. The worldview is the perspective, or thinking, or set of shared belief that informs the meaning or interpretation of research data. It constitutes the abstract beliefs and principles that shape how a researcher sees the world, and interprets and acts within that world. It also dictates the researcher what

should be studied, how it should be studied, and how the results of the study should be interpreted. Thus, a paradigm defines a researcher's philosophical orientation and has a significant implication for every decision the researcher makes in the research process. Accordingly, the researcher should clearly state the paradigm in which she or he is locating her or his research.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) cited in Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) a paradigm comprises four elements, namely, epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology. Researchers need to have a firm understanding of these elements because they comprise the basic assumptions, beliefs, norms and values that the chosen paradigm holds. Guba and Lincoln (1988) argued that a paradigm choice also entails consideration of issues like the research question(s), participants' selection, data collection instruments and collection procedures, as well as data analysis that are aligned with the researchers' worldview.

This research employed pragmatism as its paradigm. This paradigm draws on various ideas using "what works," utilizing diverse approaches, and valuing both objective and subjective knowledge. The bottom line is that research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions (Denscombe, 2008).

This paradigm was originated from among philosophers who argued that it was not possible to access the 'truth' about the real world merely by a single scientific method. For them, a mono-paradigmatic orientation of research was not good enough. Rather, these philosophers argued that what was needed was a worldview which would provide methods of research that are seen to be most appropriate for studying the phenomenon at hand. So, these theorists looked for approach to research that could be more practical and pluralistic that could allow a combination of methods. According to them, a variety of methods in conjunction could shed light on the actual behaviour of participants, the beliefs that stand behind those behaviors and the consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviors (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003, and Patton, 1990).

This gave rise to a paradigm that advocates the use of mixed methods as a logical way to understand human behavior – hence Pragmatic paradigm. This paradigm advocates a relational epistemology (i.e. relationships in research are best determined by what the

researcher deems appropriate to that particular study), a non-singular reality ontology (that there is no single reality and all individuals have their own and unique interpretations of reality), a mixed method (a combination of quantitative and qualitative research), and a value-laden axiology (conducting research that benefits people). These researchers believe that qualitative and quantitative approaches can come together to build on their ‘complementary strengths and weaknesses’ (e.g., Morgan, 2007).

Pragmatist paradigm was developed in an effort to put an end to what were referred to as ‘Paradigm Wars’ between the two diametrically opposed world views : the Positivist (and postpositivist) on one side and the Interpretivists on the other (Gage, 1989). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003); Patton (1990), and Martens (2015) cited by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) stated that research located within pragmatist paradigm demonstrates the following characteristics:

- An emphasis of ‘workability’ in research; The use of ‘what works’ so as to allow the researcher to address the questions being investigated without worrying as to whether the questions are wholly quantitative or qualitative in nature.
- Adoption of a worldview that allows for a research design and methodologies that are best suited to the purpose of the study.
- Utilizing lines of action that are best suited to studying the phenomenon being investigated.
- A rejection of the need to locate your study either in a Positivist (postpositivist) paradigm or in an Interpretivist (constructivist) paradigm.
- Seeking to utilize the best approaches to gaining knowledge using every methodology that helps the knowledge discovery.
- Choice of research methods depending on the purpose of the research.
- A search for useful points of connection within the research project that facilitate understanding of the situation.

After choosing a paradigm the researcher is faced with a choice of design. It is discussed the choice of paradigm dictates what design and methods to follow. Because by definition the Pragmatic paradigm advocates the use of both qualitative and quantitative research

according to need, research conducted within this paradigm draws on procedures taken from both these fields (Kivunja, and Kuyini, 2017).

Morgan (2007) argues that rather than relying on the metaphysical paradigm's a priori "limits on communication," pragmatism emphasizes creating "shared meanings and joint action" (p. 67). This emphasis points to the underlying belief in complementarity, that is, qualitative and quantitative approaches can be combined in order to "compliment" the advantages and disadvantages present within each (Morgan, 2007). Pragmatism offers several ways to bridge dichotomies that exist in mixed methods approaches to social science. Pragmatism breaks down the hierarchies between positivist and constructivist ways of knowing in order to look at what is meaningful from both (Biesta, 2010). Addressing the connections between theory and data, pragmatism uses "abduction," which "moves back and forth between induction and deduction—first converting observations into theories and then assessing those theories through action" (Morgan, 2007, p. 71).

Creswell (2009) stated that research design is plan and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. In the same manner Kothari (2004) stated the research design as the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. According to Creswell (2014) there are three approaches (qualitative, quantitative and mixed) to research. The selection of research approach is based on the nature of the research problem, the researchers' personal experiences and the audiences of the study. According to Creswell (2014) the quantitative and qualitative approaches should not be viewed as polar opposites; instead they present ends of a continuum. The distinction between quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches is framed in terms of using numbers (quantitative), in terms of words (qualitative) and that incorporate elements of quantitative and qualitative (mixed approach).

Mixed research design combining both forms of data provides an advantage. It is not simply collecting two distinct parts of research. Rather it employs 'merging, integrating, linking, or embedding' the quantitative and qualitative data. The justification for a mixed

methods design lays in that the combination of both forms of data provides a better understanding of a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative data by itself. It also benefits the researcher enabling her to build on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative research statistically analyzes and can produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends. Qualitative research, on the other hand, offers different perspectives on the study topic and provides a complex picture of the situation (Creswell, 2012).

According to Creswell (2012) in a mixed research design a researcher collects both quantitative data (i.e., quantifiable data) and qualitative data (i.e., text or images). Mixed design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or in a multiphase series of studies. Since the two types of researches are mixed, the researcher needs to decide on the emphasis he would give to each form of data. This is concerned with which form of data to collect first (sequential) and how to “mix” the data (integrating or connecting).

Creswell (2012) stated that

*More data is needed to extend, elaborate on, or explain the first database. You engage in such a study when you want to follow up a quantitative study with a qualitative one to obtain more detailed, specific information than can be gained from the results of statistical tests. ....It is also used when a policymaker wants both the “numbers” and the “stories” about an issue. These different sources of information provide both a condensed understanding of a problem as well as the detail (p. 535).*

This enables the researcher to investigate a problem and find answer using different approaches by providing different sets of data.

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2012) stressed on the researcher’s role in employing mixed research design. They stated:

*Researchers do not confine their thinking to specific approaches. They creatively combine the elements of methods in any way that makes the best sense for the study they want to do. Their own limits are their own imagination and the necessity of presenting their findings convincingly. The research question to be answered really determines the method. With this idea in mind and with a clear idea about the research question you want to investigate, it may be appropriate for you to consider using a mixed methods approach to study your phenomenon of choice (p. 483).*

Mixed research has become popular as the newest development in research and in approaches to “mixing” quantitative and qualitative research in a single study or a series of studies. The basic assumption for using both quantitative and qualitative methods, in combination, is that it provides a better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself and builds on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2014). The mixed method approach may give equal emphasis for both quantitative and qualitative researches (simultaneous collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data). This type of research which balances the two data sets in a single research is termed as ‘Triangulation mixed method design’ (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2012) or ‘convergent parallel design’ (Creswell, 2014).

This study employed mixed design with equal emphasis to both the quantitative and qualitative research. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed with equal weight. Thus, ‘Convergent parallel design’ was used in this study. Data was collected simultaneously and analyzed independently and then results were supplemented one another. It was chosen for this study because quantitative research alone was not enough to address the research questions. The research raised questions to identify the relationship between and among variables (the relationship between leadership practice and school culture; leadership practice and organizational health of schools; school culture and organizational health of schools). The status and relationship of the variables was treated by quantitative data. Whereas the question that sought answer for views of the respondents and to identify determinant factors that hindered or enhanced the three variables were treated using qualitative data. Furthermore, the quantitative data and analysis only gives the magnitude of the relationship but does not explain the opinion and experience of the respondents which lends itself to qualitative analysis. More data was needed to elaborate on the quantitative data. Hence, the qualitative investigation helped to obtain more detailed and specific information that cannot be gained from the results of statistical analysis. The use of mixed methods will give opportunity to understand comprehensively the problem under study.

### **3.3. Sources of Data**

#### **3.3.1. Primary sources**

The primary data was collected from secondary school principals and teachers to examine principal leadership practice, school culture and school health and their relationship as well.

#### **3.3.2. Secondary sources**

Secondary sources of data were also employed in this study. Accordingly, relevant books, journals, unpublished and published written materials and relevant documents were reviewed.

### **3.4. Population, Sample Size and Sampling Technique**

According to Creswell (2012) the target population is a group of individuals or organizations with some common defining characteristics that should be investigated. It is also the population to which the outcomes of the survey refer. Sample for a study is drawn from the population. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) argued that there are factors to be considered to determine the sample size of respondents. These factors include: the nature of population (homogenous or heterogeneous), the number of population (large or small), and the research style (survey, experimental and the like), the confidence level and the sampling error (particularly to determining sample size for a probability sample).

The target population of this study was government secondary schools (that run grades 9-12), teachers and school principals in these schools found in Addis Ababa City Administration. There were 13 schools in this category in 2019. Principals and teachers were the respondents for this study. The total number of teachers working in these schools was 1644. All the thirteen secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration, schools were selected by comprehensive sampling. They were selected because they were manageable size and can be accessed being located in the city with reasonable distance. For the purpose of this study the sample size of teachers was determined by using statistical formula provided by Yamane (1973) which takes into

consideration confidence level 95 percent and confidence interval 5 percent. The formula used for teacher respondents sample size determination was,

$$n = N / 1 + (N + e^2)$$

where n= sample size of teachers, N= teacher population, e = level of precision.

The sample size calculation with this formula yields the number of teachers for the study to be 316. The larger the sample size is advocated by different scholars as advantageous in many respects. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) argue that sample size among other factors is determined by the style of the research. The writers suggest a survey style usually requires a large sample particularly if inferential statistics were to be calculated. In any research the larger the sample the better, because it gives greater reliability and enables more sophisticated statistics to be used.

Thus, being convinced with this and taking the available time and finance the researcher decided the sample size of teachers for the quantitative research to be 450. The number of male and female teachers and teachers in each school were determined in proportion to the population. Thus, taking 450 teachers as the total sample teacher respondents, 340 male and 110 female teachers were included in the study. In addition, 4 principals and 16 teachers (who did not participate the quantitative data collection) were selected for the qualitative part. Table 1 shows the target population and sample teachers and principals in the schools.

The Ethiopian education system, until 2018, followed eight years primary education, (divided into two first cycle, grade 1- 4 and second cycle grade 5-8); four years secondary education (divided into general secondary, grade 9-10 and preparatory level, grades 11-12) education structure. In 2018 the education system went through a review that resulted in a new document ‘Road Map for the Ethiopian education sector 2012 – 2018’. According to this document, secondary schools are expected to run grades 9-12. Hence, the secondary schools that were classified as general secondary and preparatory schools were organized as ‘secondary schools’ consisting grade 9-12. It was also decided by the Ministry of Education Schools either running grades 9-10 or 11-12 separately need to



include the other grades (those running grades 9 and 10 will open 11 and 12) in the coming years so that all the schools will have grades 9-12.

There were thirteen secondary schools (formerly identified as preparatory and secondary schools that had grade 9-12) in 2011 E.C. (2018 /19) academic year in Addis Ababa city. All the thirteen schools were included in the study because of their manageable size. There were 1644 teachers in these secondary schools (1244 male and 400 female). Out of these, 112 male and 29 female, 141 teachers in total served less than three years in their respective schools. As these teachers stayed relatively for short time in the schools, it is expected that they may not have adequate information and may be still adjusting themselves to the school environment. With this assumption these teachers were excluded from the sample and teachers with three years and above teaching experience in their current school were taken as respondents. From the population of teachers for the study, 340 male and 110 females totally 450 teachers were selected as sample respondents by simple random sampling.

Table 1: Population and sample size of teachers for the study

School Code	Teachers population			Sample			Percent			Principals		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
001	85	21	106	25	6	31	29.4	28.6	29.2	1		1
002	29	25	54	9	8	17	31.0	32.0	31.5			
003	81	16	97	24	5	29	29.6	31.3	29.9			
004	100	21	121	30	6	36	30.0	28.6	29.8			
005	113	38	151	34	11	45	30.0	28.9	29.8			
006	84	38	122	25	11	36	29.8	28.9	29.5	1		1
007	120	41	161	28	11	39	23.3	26.8	24.2	1		1
008	85	25	110	34	9	43	40.0	36.0	39.0			
009	110	33	143	33	10	43	30.0	30.3	30.0			
010	84	18	102	25	5	30	29.8	27.8	29.4			
011	61	36	97	18	11	29	29.5	30.6	29.9			
012	101	31	132	30	9	39	29.7	29.0	29.5	1		1
013	79	28	107	25	8	33	31.6	28.5	30.8			
	1132	371	1503	340	110	450	30.0	29.6	29.9	4	-	4

Table 1 depicted the total population and sample size of teachers for this study. The number of teacher respondents in each school was determined by considering the total number of teachers in the sample schools. Accordingly, teachers were selected from each sample school in proportion to the total number of teachers working in respective school. Teacher respondents from each school were selected by simple random method. This is because, reliable conclusions can only be drawn if the sample is selected by means of a probability sample or random sample, where every element in the population has a nonzero probability of being selected (Bethlehem, 2009).

To select principal participants, comprehensive sampling was employed. According to Wiersma and Jurs (2009), comprehensive sampling is used when every unit is included in the sample. This type of sampling is applied when the number of units is small. In this case, the principals' sample includes four principals in the selected schools for interview. Therefore, four principals in four schools were included in the study. Vice principals or other personnel exercising leadership role were not included as respondents because the principals are the ones with the highest legal authority designated to lead schools.

Schools that served at least five years since their establishment were included in the study. Similarly, teachers who have been working at least for three years were included in the sample. There is no specified time length as to one forms understanding about the environment of the organization. It may also depend on the interaction level of individuals in their organization. However, it is believed some years of work experience in the schools enable the teachers to have adequate information about their school.

In similar studies (E.g. Shimelis and Martin) used teachers and principals with some professional experience as respondents in their studies. To this end, Shimelis (2017) in his study "Principal Leadership Practices, Teacher Motivation, and Student Achievement in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City Administration Government" stated that teacher respondents were chosen from among teachers those with a minimum of 'three years' experience in their present schools. The assumption for focusing teachers with longer stay in their school was that they have rich information about their principals' leadership and have well established perceptions and feelings about their own motivation.

Martin (2009), on the other hand, in his study entitled “Transformational leadership and school culture in elementary, middle, and high schools in the state of Georgia, US” also selected five teachers from each school (state-certified classroom teachers) who served at least one or more years of experience at their present schools.

### **3.5. Data Collection Instruments**

Data gathering instrument for the quantitative research was questionnaire whereas interview and document analysis were used for the qualitative one. Questionnaire was used for teacher respondents. Three sets of questionnaires were administered namely: Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI), School Culture Elements Questionnaire (SCEQ) and Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary School (OHI-S). The questionnaires were self-administrated ones that were filled by respondents. The instrument had four parts. Part I, dealt with demographic information of respondents such as sex, age, marital status, education level, salary and work experience. Part II (LPI) was about Principals’ Leadership Practice, part III (SCEQ) was on School Culture and finally part IV (OHI-S) was on the Organizational Health of Secondary Schools.

These instruments were selected for this study because they were found to be highly reliable in other studies. All the questionnaires were extensively used in other studies both in developed and developing countries in studying the variables in secondary schools. However, pilot study was carried out to assess the reliability of the instruments in the Ethiopian context. In addition, content validity was checked by instructors with qualification of PhD in Educational leadership from Haramaya and Addis Ababa University.

While the quantitative data was collected employing survey questionnaires, the qualitative data was collected by document analysis and interviewing principals and teachers from sampled secondary schools. The interview questions were prepared based on the literature review.

For the qualitative research semi-structured interview guide was developed for principal and teacher informants. They were developed to gain rich information on the variables under study. The interview items were checked by university instructors, who are PhD holders in Educational Leadership and Policy studies in Addis Ababa and Haramaya

Universities. Based on the comments of the evaluators the items were modified. Teachers who were willing to participate in the interview were contacted in person and through the phone due to Corona virus pandemic. Accordingly, four teachers were interviewed in a face to face session and the rest through the phone. The interview with each participant stayed forty to sixty minutes. The school principals were all interviewed in person. The interview sessions with the school principals ranged fifty to sixty minutes. In addition, relevant documents were analyzed to obtain further data. The documents included Education and training policy of Ethiopia, school improvement program for schools and plans of the schools. These documents were chosen to assess what emphasis was given to the issues under investigation. Accordingly, policy statements and data related to practices in schools were analyzed.

### **3.5.1. The scale for Leadership practices of principals**

Leadership practices of principals in secondary schools were measured in this study employing ‘Leadership practice inventory’ of Kouzes and Posner (1993). LPI was developed by constructing a set of statements describing leadership practices. It has two versions; Self and Observer. When LPI observer is used the items will be responded from the point of the employees. The LPI (both Self and Observer) consisted 30 statements to measure five practices of leaders (Modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart). These five practices were explained each by six statements in the questionnaire for measuring the leadership practices of school principals. Respondents were asked to use a 10-point Likert scale ranging from (1) Almost never engages in the behavior to (10) Almost always to indicate how often their leaders practice the action described by the statement (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Kouzes and Posner used the five practices of transformational leadership to develop the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). This instrument empirically measured the leadership practices of leaders as they exercise their role in organizations. The LPI has a two-fold purpose: to measure leader self-perceptions of own leadership and to measure how their staff perceives them. It then serves as a guide to understand the extent leaders

are practicing effective leadership, to change and improve leadership practices. Multiple studies on organizational leadership have used the LPI instrument. Sawie (2013) extensively reviewed 39 studies that were conducted between 2000 and 2014 employing LPI as data collection instrument. His review of LPI studies from past literature included business organizations, educational organizations, healthcare organizations, and government organizations. Kouzes and Posner (2010) stated that more than 250 doctoral dissertations and master's theses have used the LPI in their research. It can be seen that LPI is widely used in research for assessing leadership practice of leaders.

### **3.5.2. The scale for School Cultural of School**

School culture was measured by using the 'School Cultural Elements Questionnaire'. The School Cultural Elements Questionnaire (SCEQ) was developed by Cavanagh and Dellar in 1997. The SCEQ, consisting of 42 practices (Actual Form) and 42 value (Preferred Form) statements in six scales. The scales are: Teacher efficacy, emphasis on learning, collegiality, collaboration, shared planning and transformational leadership. All of them contain seven items each. The SCEQ consists of school practices, measured partly at the individual and partly at school level. The format used is a five-point Likert scale (Maslowski, 2006). According to Cavanagh and Dellar (1997), the six factors are closely interrelated and together form the culture of the school.

### **3.5.3. The scale for organizational health of school**

The Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary school (OHI-S) developed by Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) was used in this study to assess the perception of school teachers on organizational health of their own schools. The organizational health inventory for secondary school (OHI-S) is a 44-item survey utilizing a Likert rating scale to measure organizational health. It is broken down into seven dimensions (subscales): Institutional integrity (7 items), initiating structure (5 items), consideration (5 items), principal influence (5 items), resource support (5 items), morale (9 items) and academic emphasis (8 items). The respondents were expected to rate organizational health along a 4-point scale from (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, and (4) very frequently occurs.

### **3.5.4. Interview guide and document analysis**

Interview guide and document analysis were used for the qualitative part of this research. Interview guide for teachers and principals were prepared to collect qualitative data from the respondents. Accordingly, teachers who did not participate in the quantitative research by filling questionnaires were selected for interview to get their perception in relation to variables raised in the study. School principals were also interviewed to get their views. In addition, documents pertinent to the study were selected and analyzed.

## **3.6. Validity and reliability of instruments**

### **3.6.1. Validity and reliability of the questionnaires**

Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated that the LPI has a reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) that ranges from 0.75 to 0.87 and many researchers have used the LPI with similar reliability. On the other hand Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Al-Omari (2008) in their study of leadership practices of Jordanian basic and high school principals reported that the internal consistency rating for the five subscales of LPI-Observer was: challenging the process (0.81); inspiring a shared vision (0.83); enabling others to act (0.80); modeling the way (0.77); and encouraging the heart (0.89). Shimelis (2017) in a study on principal leadership practice, teacher motivation and student achievement in Addis Ababa secondary schools reported the Cronbach's alpha for the LPI-observer to be .89. Neiman and Kotze (2006) in their study entitled Leadership practice and school culture of South African school found the reliability of LPI to be 0.9 showing high precision.

Reliability coefficients for the six scales of the SCEQ Actual form ranges from 0.70 to 0.81 (Maslowski, 2006). In DeVaney et.al (2012) study the reliability estimates for the total sample ranged from .83 to .90 for the 20-item revised SCEQ.

In some studies the reliability of OHI-S instrument was high. For instance, Alqarni (2016) in his study of the link between the organizational health and students' academic achievement in Jeddah secondary schools showed that the reliabilities for the seven subsets ranged from 0.84 to 0.92. The alpha coefficient for the entire scale was found to be 0.96, which is a very high level of reliability for this scale. Similarly, Korkmaz (2007) in his study of the effects of leadership styles on organizational health in Ankara high

schools in Turkey found that the reliability coefficients concerning the six dimensions of the organizational health inventory varied between .82 and .92. Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) reported the reliability scores of each dimension of the instrument was high with the alpha coefficient; institutional integrity (.91), principal influence (.87), consideration (.90), initiating structure (.89), resource support (.95), morale (.92), and academic emphasis (.93).

Although the instruments (questionnaires) were reported to be reliable for data collection in the previous studies, it was essential to check the reliability and validity of the instruments in Ethiopian context before employing for the actual data collection. Accordingly, pilot study on the three questionnaires for this study was conducted. Sixty teachers randomly selected from two secondary schools which were not included in sample of the main study were taken as respondents for this purpose. Piloting the questionnaires provides information about deficiencies and suggestions for improvement (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2012). The reliability of the instruments was checked by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. As a result the reliability test for the questionnaires it can be seen that the questionnaires were reliable to be used for the actual study. The pilot test result was presented in table 2.

Table 2: Reliability of the scales employed in the study form the pilot study

Scale	Number of items	Reliability (Cronbach's)
LPI	30	.91
SCEQ	42	.78
OHI-S	44	.88

N = 60

The results of the pilot study for the instruments of the study showed the instruments could be used for the actual study. The cutoff point of the reliability of a questionnaire is above 0.7 (McMillan and Schumacher, 2010). The reliability coefficient for the three questionnaires, depicted in table 2, was above 0.7 showing high reliability.

Validity of the research instrument also needs to be secured for the study. Feedback obtained from the pilot study is one way to determine content validity (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2012). Bethlehem (2009) describes research validity as the extent to which an

instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. According to this author, it is important that the researcher and the respondent interpret the question exactly in the same way. Thus, to maintain the validity of the instruments, the researcher gave the questionnaires and discussed with educational experts, from Haramaya and Addis Ababa University (instructors who specialized in Educational Leadership) in the department of Educational planning and management, assistant professors and above in their rank to comment on the items of the questionnaires.

As a result no critical comments were given by the experts. They ascertained that the questionnaires were in a position to draw the required information from the respondents. A few comments on some words were suggested by some commentators. Moreover, to maintain the validity of the tools comments of respondents from pilot study were also considered. The respondents of the pilot study also helped for improvement on the wordings of two questions. The researcher gave briefing in each school before distributing the questionnaire to the respondents.

### **3.6.2. Validity and reliability of interview guides**

Interview guides were used to collect data from teachers and principals in the sample schools. Different mechanisms were used to ensure the validity and reliability of the qualitative instruments. The interview guides were checked by the instructors from Haramaya and Addis Ababa Universities. The comments by the reviewers led to improvement of interview questions. The interview questions for the two groups helped to views form different perspectives. The questions were prepared based on the reviewed literature and the research questions to uncover what teacher and principal participants understand and say about the problem under study. In addition, the researcher attempted to create similar situation during the interview of the participants. This was done by employing identical procedure interviewing one participant to the other by using a check list of the activities. However, the researcher used provoking questions when there was a need to get additional responses from respondents.

The views the two groups of respondents, teachers and principals, gave opportunity to the researcher to generate ideas. Further caution was taken by the researcher to capture the exact words of the informants. To this end all the interview sessions were recorded with



the full consent of the participants. Then it was transcribed carefully by taking much time. Later on, member checking was conducted to ensure for accuracy and plausibility to the data drawn from them. In doing so the tentative transcribed texts were given to two of the principals and five teachers in the sample secondary schools who participated in the interview and asked for comments if the transcriptions reflected their views what they intended to say and for any distortion and misrepresentation. They commented no further action on the texts. Since this research raised issues of leadership, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools, descriptions about these variables in the sample secondary schools was given from the perspectives of both principal and teacher participants. Adequate description was given on each data to contextualize the study so that users of the study will be able to see if their situation matches with the research context.

### **3.7. Document analysis**

In addition to interview guide relevant documents were selected and analyzed to add data to understand the problem under study. To this end three documents i.e. Education and training policy of Ethiopia, school improvement program of schools and school plans of secondary schools were included in the study for triangulating the data. Accordingly, these documents were each analyzed in relation to the variables raised in this study. The documents were selected because they were the main documents used by the schools for their function and operation.

### **3.8. Procedures of Data Collection**

In this research data was collected from teachers in secondary schools. In research the participants are crucial to the outcome of the research. Thus the researcher needs to establish and build working relationship with them. They are considered as “the ultimate gate keepers” (Hatch, 2002). The researcher needs to explain about himself to the participants and his responsibility. In addition, the researcher has to tell the purpose of the study, describe the type of the study to be conducted and the research questions to be raised.

The first step in data collection was to get permissions from authors to use LPI, SCEQ and OHI-S. The researcher was granted permissions to use the three instruments in his study. (See, Appendix III, IV and V). The second step was to get approval from the advisers and college of Education, Haramaya University to collect data for the research. The third step was to get permission from Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau to conduct the study in the city and contact selected secondary schools. All these permissions were secured after the research proposal was approved by Postgraduate programs directorate of Haramaya University.

At the school level, the researcher set schedule with the school principals to get the secondary school teaching staff at a general meeting to administer the questionnaires. The principals agreed to give time during the meetings and asked teachers for cooperation. The researcher set his program with the scheduled staff meetings of the schools. The researcher was able to get sufficient number of respondents because the teachers were gathered for meeting. The researcher chose teachers by lottery method to retain the respondents and those who were a part of the data collection process left. Then, the researcher gave explanation on the purpose and overall nature of the study for the selected respondents and distributed the questionnaires. The respondents were given three to five days to fill the questionnaires. Finally, the questionnaires were collected and made ready for data analysis.

Since the data collection involved interview with school principals and the researcher arranged time that was suitable for the participants. The respondents were selected with full consent and on voluntary basis. The researcher met some of the informant in their school compound during their free time and tea breaks. Some of the interview was conducted through the phone due to Corona virus pandemic. The researcher took at most care not to make undue influence on participants. All participants were cooperative and provided information willingly. The researcher explained his background as a teacher in secondary school and university. The administration of survey questionnaire was conducted parallel to the interview.

For the purpose of anonymity the schools and respondents were represented by code numbers.

Hence, code was given for schools (1-4) depicting the schools in the qualitative study ( $S_1$  to  $S_4$ ). Similarly, the principals were identified as ( $P_1$  to  $P_4$ ),  $P_1$  depicting principal of the first school and so on. Furthermore, teachers participating in the interview were identified as  $T_1$  showing teacher one,  $T_2$  depicting teacher two. Teachers in each school were represented by combining teacher and school code, for instance ( $T_2 S_4$ ) represents teacher two in school four.

### **3.9. Methods of Data Analysis**

After data collection, the survey responses were entered on a personal computer using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20.0 software. The items in SCEQ (1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 18, 21, 23, 25, 28, 35, 40, and 41) were reverse coded while entering data. The quantitative data was checked for completeness and made the data ready for analysis with the intention of identifying valid responses and removing the invalid responses. It was checked for missing values, respondent out of range response and errors in the course of entering data. Pallant (2005) suggests ways for identifying data set for errors and correcting. First the researcher has to pay attention in identifying values that fall outside the possible range and all of the individual items. Then the researcher needs to find where in the data file the error occurred that means identifying which case was involved. Finally, the error in the data file should be corrected before going to analysis.

Analysis of data is then preceded by test of normality. Test of normality is critical for research employing statistical procedure. Test of normality should be conducted to ensure valid, accurate and reliable conclusions about reality. In statistics it is conventional to assume that the observations are approximately normal. The entire statistical framework should be grounded on this assumption and if this assumption is violated it affects the inference to be made. For this reason it is essential to check or test this assumption before statistical analysis of a quantitative data.

Statistical procedures including correlation, regression, t tests, and analysis of variance, namely parametric tests, are based on the assumption that the data follows a normal distribution or a Gaussian distribution that is, it is assumed that the populations from

which the samples are taken are normally distributed. Normality and other assumptions should be taken seriously, for when these assumptions do not hold, it is impossible to draw accurate and reliable conclusions about reality (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012).

Test of normality can be done by using different tests, statistical or graphical. The statistical test include Shapiro–Wilk test, the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the Lilliefors test, the Cramer–von Mises test, the Anderson–Darling test, the D’Agostino–Pearson test, the Jarque–Bera test and chi-squared test. Among these, the most popular ones are Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) which can be readily accessed by the SPSS software (Yap and Sim, 2011). The graphical methods of assessing normality include: Histogram, stem-and-Leaf plot, Box plots, Quantile-Quantile plots and Probability-Probability plots. These graphical representations of quantitative data enable visual inspection on the distribution of the data (Park, 2006).

In large samples graphical methods can be employed instead of statistical tests to check normality of a statistical data distribution. When the sample is large, it is a good idea to look at the shape of the distribution instead of using formal inference tests. In relation with skewness and kurtosis the standard errors for both skewness and kurtosis decrease with larger sample size. A variable with statistically significant skewness often does not deviate enough from normality to make a substantive difference in the analysis. In other words, with large samples, the significance level of skewness is not as such important. In a large sample, the impact of departure from zero kurtosis also diminishes. For example, underestimates of variance associated with positive kurtosis (distributions with short, thick tails) disappear with samples of 100 or more cases; with negative kurtosis, underestimation of variance disappears with samples of 200 or more. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013)

With large enough sample sizes ( $> 30$  or  $40$ ), the violation of the normality assumption should not cause major problems this implies that we can use parametric procedures even when the data are not approximately normally distributed. If we have samples consisting of hundreds of observations, we can ignore the distribution of the data. According to the central limit theorem, (a) if the sample data are approximately normal then the sampling distribution too will be normal; (b) in large samples ( $> 30$  or  $40$ ), the sampling

distribution tends to be normal, regardless of the shape of the data; and (c) means of random samples from any distribution will themselves have normal distribution. Although true normality is considered to be a myth, we can look for normality visually by using normal plots (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012).

The above arguments allow ignoring the numerical test of data with large sample size. The present study drew 450 teacher respondents as a sample from a population for data collection from secondary schools of Addis Ababa city which represents large sample size. The graphical presentation for this study (See Appendix VII) with the help of histogram, boxplot and Q-Q plot showed the data was approximately normally distributed.

In this study, descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequencies, mean and standard derivation was used to obtain information about the participants' demographic characteristics. Multivariate analysis of variance and analysis of variance were used to analyze the relationship between demographic variables and leadership practice, school culture and organizational health. To analyze data pertaining to the extent of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health (descriptive statistics) frequencies, mean and standard derivation were calculated.

Structural equation modeling was used to examine the relationship between and among the variables in this study by employing AMOS software. This method helped to examine the relationship among the variables and sub groups of the variables of the quantitative results.

Structural equation modeling is a linear model concerned with accounting for the relations between variables and is related to narrower and more familiar statistical models such as analysis of variance, multiple regression analysis and principal factor analysis. Any of these analyses could be accomplished, and would yield identical results as SEM. Structural equation modeling can also be described as a generalization, integration, and extension of these familiar models (Hoyle, 2012).

Structural equation modeling has unique features. These features include it: 1) takes a confirmatory approach to data analysis by specifying the relationships among variables a

priori. By comparison, other multivariate techniques are descriptive by nature (e.g. exploratory factor analysis) so that hypothesis testing is rather difficult to do; 2) provides explicit estimates of error variance parameters. Other multivariate techniques are not capable of either assessing or correcting for measurement error. For example, a regression analysis ignores the potential error in all the independent (explanatory) variables included in a model and this raises the possibility of incorrect conclusions due to misleading regression estimates; 3) procedures incorporate both unobserved (i.e. latent) and observed variables. Other multivariate techniques are based on observed measurements only; and 4) is capable of modeling multivariate relations, and estimating direct and indirect effects of variables under study (Hoyle, 2012).

Sample size and model fit are important issues in SEM. Kline (2005) argued no consensus has been reached among researchers with regard to sample in involving SEM so far. However, different suggestions were given by writers. Schumacker and Lomax (2016) reviewing various works stated that a typical sample size in studies where SEM was used found to be about 200 cases. They also reported that number corresponds to the approximate median sample size in surveys of published articles with SEM. In other studies it was indicated that the sample size was 100 to 150 subjects while conducting a research employing SEM. Although some suggestions were found in the literature one rule-of-thumb is that a sample size below 100 was regarded as small; between 100 and 200, medium; and over 200 is often considered large (Kline, 2005).

Another critical issue in SEM is model fit. Model fit determines the degree to which the sample variance–covariance data fit the structural equation model. There are different model-fit criteria or indices. They include: chi-square, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the root-mean-square residual index (RMR), normed fit index (NFI), relative fit index (RFI), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) and comparative fit index (CFI) (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2006). Different writers provided model-fit criteria and their interpretation. For instance, (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013) stated that CFI and RMSEA were the most reported fit indices. The larger the CFI is the better the fit. Its value is between 0 and 1. Table 3 showed the model-fit criteria and acceptable fit

interpretation as presented by Schumacker and Lomax (2010). This study used these criteria for assessing model fit.

Table 3: Model-fit criteria and acceptable fit interpretation

Model-Fit Criterion	Acceptable Level	Interpretation
Chi-square	Tabled $\chi^2$ value	Compares obtained $\chi^2$ value with tabled value for given $df$
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 or .95 reflect a good fit
Adjusted GFI (AGFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value adjusted for $df$ , with .90 or .95 a good model fit
Root-mean-square error of Approximation (RMSEA)	.05 to .08	Value of .05 to .08 Indicate close fit
Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 or .95 reflects a good model fit
Normed fit index (NFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 or .95 reflects a good model fit

(Source: Schumacker and Lomax, 2010, p. 76)

Like the issue of sample size, the model-fit criteria have agitated much debate and discussion among scholars on their subjective interpretation and appropriateness under specific modeling conditions. Scholars could not agree on how model-fit and other characteristics that SEM research should report. Some suggest overall, more than one model-fit index should be reported. Others claim if a majority of the fit indices on the list indicate an acceptable model, then the theoretical model is supported by the data (Schumacker and Lomax, 2010).

In addition, to analyze qualitative data from semi-structured interview and documents, thematic analysis and document analysis were used. Teacher and principals were interviewed from sample secondary schools. The responses from these respondents were transcribed and repeatedly read to identify emerging themes. The teams were analyzed to get meanings from the perspective of the respondents. Data from selected relevant documents were also analyzed to add meaning to the study.

### **3.10. Ethical Considerations**

While conducting this study, the researcher first received letter of cooperation from the department of Educational planning and management and Post graduate directorate of Haramaya University. Then the Addis Ababa Education Bureau and sample schools were conducted to get permission for data collection. Participants were informed about the research in general and its objectives and asked their consent a head of data collection. It was assured the confidentiality of participants will be secured and data collection instruments as well as the study report do not bear participants' names or names of their respective schools. Also, the survey instrument did not require anybody to provide information that would make anybody reading the report to identify the data sources. In other words, anonymity of both participants and data was strictly held. Furthermore, the data collected was analyzed as aggregates to the level of schools. In addition, the researcher followed as much as possible research principles not to be biased in any of the research process.



## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter dealt with the data as obtained by employing the methodology outlined in the previous chapter. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary school of Addis Ababa City. Therefore, this study examined the perceptions of teachers to discover any significant relation that existed among the aforementioned variables. Teachers and principals views were included. Convergent parallel mixed method design was used in this study. Thus, this chapter dealt with results and discussion of the quantitative and qualitative parts of the research. Quantitative data from three survey questionnaires namely LPI, SECQ and OHI-S were presented, analyzed, interpreted, and discussed in this section. Furthermore, quantitative data from interview of principals and teachers was treated in the same way.

### **4.1. Results from the Quantitative Data**

Under this section, the results from the quantitative data were presented and analyzed. The results on demographic variables, principals' leadership practices, types of school culture and organizational health levels and associations among the three major variables, and the significant differences were presented and analyzed.

#### **4.1.1. Demographic information of the respondents**

This section contained demographic information obtained from teachers in Addis Ababa secondary schools as Schools, Sex, Age, Marital Status, Education level and Service Year (total and in the current school). These variables were included to examine the characteristics of the respondents from the thirteen sample schools who filled in the questionnaire. The responses to these demographic variables by teachers in the sample schools were presented, analyzed and interpreted as follows.

Table 4: Sex, age and marital status of respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	340	75.6
	Female	110	24.4
	Total	450	100.0
Age (year)	20 - 29	96	21.3
	30 - 39	263	58.4
	40 - 49	83	18.4
	Over 50	8	1.8
	Total	450	100.0
Marital status	Single	143	31.8
	Married	300	66.7
	Separated	7	1.6
	Total	450	100.0

As it is depicted in table 4, the respondents of this research were 450. All respondents appropriately filled and returned the questionnaires. The majority of the respondents were male which comprised 75.6 percent. The number of female respondents was only one fourth of the total respondents. The number of female teachers in secondary schools is very low showing their under representation. The total number of female teachers in the secondary schools of Addis Ababa city was 400, which accounted for 24.3 percent.

Female teachers in general secondary schools (grade 9-10) for the academic year 2017/18 were 22.12 percent whereas in preparatory schools (grades 11-12) female teachers for the mentioned academic year were only 12.35 percent. The data showed a decrease in the number of female teachers for the past five years (Addis Ababa City Government Education Bureau, AACGEB, 2018). The gender gap in secondary school teacher profile is huge in the secondary schools and in the education sector at large favoring for male teachers. In addition, the researcher could not find a single female principal in the secondary schools under study. There were few female vice principals in some schools. This shows a trend worsening the under representation of females in secondary education. Thus, the Federal government and the Ministry of Education need to exert

effort to narrow the gender imbalance in leadership positions in the different levels of education.

Table 4 also showed the age of respondents for this study. Accordingly, the majority of respondents (78.7 percent) who participated in the survey questionnaire were 30 and above. A little bit more than half of the teacher respondents were between 30-39 years. Overall, it can be seen that the respondents were mature enough to provide the necessary data for the research.

The marital status of the respondents was depicted in the table. The majority of the respondents for this study that accounted to 66.7 percent were married. About thirty one percent of the respondents were single. Less than 2 percent were separated showing very low figure. Thus, it can be said that the majority of respondents were stable and may provide the necessary data for this study.

Table 5: Education level and service year of respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Education level	MA/ MSc	246	54.7
	BA/BSc	204	45.3
	Total	450	100.0
Service year	3- 5	37	8.2
	6 – 9	115	25.6
	10 -15	182	40.4
	16-20	55	12.2
	More than 20	61	3.6
	Total	450	100.0

Teacher respondents of the study replied to the item for education level in the demographic information section of the survey questionnaire. Table 5 depicted that the respondents were all degree holders most of them found having Master of Arts or Master of Science degree in their respective fields and met the requirement for their assignments. It can be seen that the respondents are qualified enough for their position and were able to understand items of the questionnaire and provide reliable response to the questions of the survey that would contribute to the research.

Table 5 also showed the service years of the respondents in their teaching experience as teachers in secondary schools. Teachers who served less than three years were excluded from the study assuming that they may not have adequate information. Teachers who stayed and worked for long are expected to be familiar and understand the phenomena in their environment. Accordingly, teachers who taught three years and more were selected as respondents of the study. The majority of them (91.8 per cent) were those who served more than five years in secondary schools. Therefore, it is believed that they are well acquainted with secondary school environment and can provide reliable information on the variables raised in this study.

#### **4.1.2. Leadership practice of principals in secondary schools of Addis Ababa city**

Leadership practice of secondary school principals under study were measured using the LPI as perceived by teacher respondents. The respondents rated their principals against the items of the inventory. Different research used different ways to categorize the results from descriptive statistics. For instance, Shimelis (2017) categorized the leadership practice and teachers' motivation mean scores by taking values less than the mean as low, the values between the mean and two third of the values above the mean as medium or moderate and above that as high.

In this study, to analyze the obtained data from the LPI-observer and categorize the school principals' scores as high, moderate and low, mean scores of overall and each school of the LPI score was calculated. For the purpose of this study, school principals' mean scores less than half of the mean score or below 5.5 out of 10 was considered as low score. Whereas mean scores that rest between half of the total score and two thirds of the total score (or greater than or equal to 5.5 but less than 6.66) were categorized as moderate, and mean scores greater than or equal to two thirds (or above 6.66) were grouped as high score. This categorization was also used for school culture and organizational health variables descriptive statistics results i.e. mean values.

Table 6: Overall principals' leadership practice and the subscales

Leadership practice	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error Mean
Model the Way	5.87	1.52	.071
Inspire Shared Vision	5.68	1.45	.068
Challenge the Process	5.59	1.52	.071
Enable Others to Act	6.03	1.64	.077
Encouraging the Heart	5.79	1.61	.076
Leadership Practice	5.79	1.45	.068

N = 450

The teacher respondents were requested to rate their principals on the leadership practices inventory. Table 6 showed the mean and standard deviation of the overall leadership practice and each of the five leadership dimensions. Accordingly, the mean value of leadership practice of school principals in secondary schools of Addis Ababa was 5.79 with standard deviation of 1.45. This value depicted that principals were practicing leadership practice at a moderate level. The leadership practice of secondary schools of Addis Ababa principals' leadership practice was a little bit above the expected mean.

Regarding the principals' leadership with respect to the five dimensions 'Enable others to act' was mostly practiced with the mean value of 6.03 followed by 'Model the way' with mean 5.87. 'Inspire share vision' (M = 5.68) and 'Challenge the process' (M = 5.59) were the least practiced practices respectively.

Generally, school principals in the school under study were performing the five leadership practices with the mean value ranging from 5.59 to 6.03. This indicates that they were performing the leadership practices at moderate level. This implies the principals were not adequately becoming models for teachers and the school community, did not vigorously shared a vision that inspires teachers and workers, did not encourage innovation and challenged their teachers in the course of leading the school. Thus the principals of the secondary schools under study were not highly effective in their leadership practices in making their schools competitive, making every student successful and contributing to the society. Kouzes and Posner suggest leaders performing the five leadership practices at high frequency were effective.

Table 7: Principals' leadership practice with respect to the five dimensions in each school

School	Model Mean	Inspire Mean	Challenge Mean	Enable Mean	Encourage Mean	Overall Mean
1	6.98	6.88	6.96	7.53	7.24	7.12
2	6.71	6.52	6.75	6.96	6.75	6.74
3	5.98	5.83	5.70	5.86	5.78	5.83
4	5.66	5.52	5.56	5.79	5.75	5.66
5	5.49	5.32	5.25	5.57	5.37	5.40
6	6.00	5.69	5.52	6.15	5.88	5.85
7	5.43	5.34	5.39	5.78	5.05	5.40
8	5.79	5.74	5.41	5.85	5.51	5.66
9	6.44	6.28	5.90	6.54	6.33	6.30
10	5.99	5.42	5.59	6.07	5.85	5.78
11	5.81	5.52	5.50	5.72	5.78	5.67
12	5.33	5.15	5.02	5.44	5.36	5.26
13	5.35	5.10	5.03	5.86	5.53	5.37

Table 7 shows the mean value of principals' leadership practice in each sample school. Accordingly, teacher respondents rated that all principals in the secondary schools practiced leadership practice above average the majority showing moderate level performance. School 01 principal was rated the highest as practicing leadership practice (M = 7.12) followed by school 02 (M = 6.74) and school 09 (M = 6.03) respectively. The majority of the principals were rated between (M = 5.37 – 5.83). On the other hand, principals of schools 012 and 013 were rated by teachers as practicing leadership practice the lowest compared to other secondary schools in Addis Ababa city with (M = 5.26 and M = 5.37) respectively. This indicates that the majority of the school principals in the sample schools were practicing leadership practice at moderate level.

The study participants were further asked to rate their school principals as to how they practice leadership in terms of the five leadership practices (Modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the processes, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart) as identified by Kouzes and Posner. Accordingly, schools 01, 02 and 09 scored high mean value in all dimensions of leadership practices respectively relative to other schools. Principal of school 01 was rated (M = 7.53 and M = 7.24) only for two

dimensions, ‘Enabling others to act’ and ‘Encouraging the heart’ which is high mean value.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002) leaders who practice ‘Enabling others to act’, build on the strength of each other, climate of trust and interdependence, foster Collaboration, increasing self-determination and develop competence. While they practice ‘Encouraging the heart’ they practice activities like: recognize contributions, appreciate individual excellence, celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community. Thus, the principal of school 01 was giving more attention to such activities and performing the other practices in less frequency than these ones.

The values for (Modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the processes, for school 01 were (M = 6.98, M = 6.88 and M = 6.96) respectively. Principal of school 02 was rated 6.52 – 6.96 in the five dimensions of leadership practices. Schools 012 and 013 were found their principals’ practicing the leadership dimensions the least (mean value 5.33 for Modeling the way, 5.15 for inspiring a shared vision, 5.02 for challenging the processes, 5.44 for enabling others to act, 5.36 encouraging the heart) and (5.35 for Modeling the way, 5.10 for inspiring a shared vision, 5.03 for challenging the processes) respectively. It can be seen from the table that these schools’ principals were practicing the five dimensions of leadership practice moderately though they scored mean values less than the other schools.

All principals in the secondary schools, except schools 03 and 011, were found to be practicing ‘enabling others to act’ higher than the other dimensions. In school 03, ‘enabling others to act’ was practiced next to ‘Modeling the way’ whereas in school 011 it was practiced next to ‘Modeling the way’ and ‘encouraging the heart’. On the other hand the mean values for ‘challenging the process’ was the least in half of the schools. Schools 03, 04, 05, 06, 07, 012 and 013 scored ‘challenging the process’ less than the other leadership practice dimensions. This shows that the principals were not emphasizing on looking outward for innovative ways, taking risks, generating small wins and learning from experience.

Table 8: Statistical significance of principals' leadership practice and the subscales

Components	t	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	95 percent Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Lower	Upper
Model the way	12.15	.000	.87	.73	1.01
Inspire Shared Vision	9.93	.000	.68	.54	.81
Challenge the Process	8.34	.000	.59	.45	.73
Enable Others to Act	13.36	.000	1.03	.88	1.18
Encouraging the Heart	10.50	.000	.79	.64	.94
Leadership Practice	11.60	.000	.79	.66	.93

*df* = 449

Table 8 shows the statistical significance observed in leadership practices and the subscales as well. There was statistically significant difference between the expected ( $M=5.5$ ) and observed mean in the overall leadership practice (5.79) at ( $p = 0.001$ ) level. The mean difference between the expected and observed mean for the subscales of leadership practice also shows statistically significant difference in implementing the practices. The greatest mean difference was between the expected and observed mean of 'enabling others to act' and the least one 'challenge the process'.

#### **4.1.3. School culture of secondary schools in Addis Ababa city**

The school culture in the sampled secondary schools was rated by teacher participants. Teachers rated their principals on the SCEQ. To analyze the obtained data from the SCEQ and categorize the school culture scores as high, moderate and low, mean scores of overall and each school on the SCEQ was calculated. For the purpose of this study, school principals' mean scores less than half of the mean score or below 3 out of 5 were considered as low score. Whereas mean scores that rest between half of the total score and two thirds of the total score (or greater than or equal to 3 but less than 3.33) were categorized as moderate, and mean scores greater than or equal to two thirds (or 3.33) were grouped as high score.



Table 9: School culture in secondary schools of Addis Ababa city

Components	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Professional Values	3.15	.53	.02
Emphasis on Learning	3.49	.61	.02
Collegiality	3.31	.53	.02
Collaboration	3.06	.46	.02
Shared Planning	2.99	.58	.02
Transformational Leadership	3.13	.50	.02
School Culture	3.19	.34	.01

N = 450

Table 9 shows the overall school culture of secondary schools in Addis Ababa and with respect to dimensions of school culture of the schools as rated by teachers. Accordingly, the overall the culture of the schools was rated ( $M= 3.19$ ,  $SD = .34$ ). This shows that culture in the schools was prevalent but not influencing much their activities in the required manner. In organizations where culture is high, performance is goal oriented and the beliefs and values if the members highly contribute to success. The overall score of school culture was at a moderate level. Collaboration and shared planning were the least observed cultures by teachers with ( $M= 3.06$ ,  $SD = .46$ ,  $M= 2.99$ ,  $SD = .58$ ) respectively. Teachers affirmed the presence of ‘emphasis on learning’ culture in the schools. An emphasis on learning refers to producing a learning community in which there is a commitment to professional growth and improved outcomes for students (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1998).

Although the types of school cultures identified by Cavanagh and Dellar as essential for schools effectiveness were prevalent in secondary schools of Addis Ababa, they were only at moderate level. In addition, it can be seen from the table that the most prevalent school culture in the schools was ‘Emphasis on learning’ ( $M = 3.49$ ,  $SD = 0.61$ ) followed by ‘Collegiality’ ( $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 0.53$ ). The least observed school culture was ‘Shared planning’ with ( $M = 2.99$ ,  $SD = 0.58$ ). This means a collective process whereby a common vision of the school is actualized by logical planning is not properly implemented which brings the school community and makes them to have shared responsibility (Cavanagh and Dellar, 1998). Generally speaking the school culture of

secondary schools in Addis Ababa did not indicate strong culture in the schools. Since the dimensions of school cultures were not strongly practiced and taken by the school community as norm it can be said that the schools did not fully exhibited the culture of effective schools.

Table 10: School culture with respect to its dimensions in each school

School	Professional Values Mean	Emphasis on learning Mean	Collegiality Mean	Collaboration Mean	Shared planning Mean	Transformational leadership Mean	Culture Overall Mean
1	3.43	3.78	3.55	3.24	3.23	3.47	3.45
2	3.11	4.05	3.63	3.15	2.95	3.15	3.34
3	3.21	3.57	3.30	3.06	2.93	3.00	3.18
4	3.14	3.35	3.07	3.03	2.80	3.06	3.08
5	3.11	3.04	3.14	3.09	3.09	3.05	3.09
6	2.97	3.62	3.15	2.98	2.86	3.15	3.12
7	3.09	3.25	3.25	2.94	3.03	3.02	3.10
8	3.28	3.46	3.48	3.08	3.11	3.09	3.25
9	3.16	3.58	3.29	3.05	2.88	3.14	3.18
10	3.23	3.60	3.58	3.17	3.19	3.12	3.31
11	3.07	3.26	3.15	3.02	3.02	3.17	3.11
12	3.05	3.61	3.27	3.06	2.89	3.12	3.17
13	3.15	3.71	3.45	2.94	2.94	3.26	3.24
Total	3.15	3.49	3.31	3.06	2.99	3.13	3.19

Table 10 shows data aspects of school culture of the schools that were experienced in secondary schools of Addis Ababa as perceived by teacher respondents. With respect to ‘professional value’ dimension school 01, 08 and 010 witnessed better school culture than other secondary schools as perceived by teachers with (M = 3.43 and M = 3.28) respectively. On the other hand, schools 012 and 06 stood last with (M = 3.05, M = 2.97 and M = 3.23). In ‘professional learning’ dimension, school 02 and 01 scored the highest with M = 4.05 and M = 3.78 respectively.

School 01 was rated as having all aspects of culture than the other schools with mean value 3.43 for professional values being the highest and 3.24, 3.23 and 3.47 for collaboration, shared planning, and transformational leadership respectively (Except collegiality ).

On a closer scrutiny of the responses by the study participants across the school culture dimensions in the secondary schools of Addis Ababa city, it can be observed that the mean for ‘Emphasis on learning’ is higher than the other dimensions in eleven of the schools. On the other hand, the culture of ‘shared planning’ in all schools was rated the lowest in schools 5, 7, 8 and 10. Furthermore, seven schools were rated between 2.80 and 2.95 in shared planning dimension showing values below the mean average. Therefore it can be seen that in secondary schools in Addis Ababa city the culture of ‘emphasis on learning’ was more stronger than other dimensions of culture expressed in the Cavanagh and Dellar’ model. As it can be seen from the table the majority of the mean score the dimensions of culture was around the mean (except in shared planning dimension in half of the schools the mean score was below the mean). This shows that organizational culture in the secondary schools was found at a moderate level.

Table 11: Statistical difference in school culture in secondary schools of Addis Ababa city

Components	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	95 percent Confidence interval of the difference	
				Lower	Upper
Professional Values	6.18	.000	.15	.10	.20
Emphasis on Learning	17.25	.000	.49	.44	.55
Collegiality	12.56	.000	.31	.26	.36
Collaboration	2.86	.004	.06	.01	.10
Shared Planning	-.08	.936	-.01	-.05	.05
Transformational Leadership	5.75	.000	.13	.09	.18
School Culture	11.94	.000	.19	.16	.22

*df* = 449

Table 11 shows the statistical significance of school culture and the subscales. There was statistically significant difference between the expected ( $M= 3.00$ ) and observed mean in the overall leadership practice (3.19) at ( $p < 0.001$ ). The mean difference between the expected and observed mean for the subscales of school culture also shows statistically significant difference in the existence of the types of the school cultures. The greatest mean difference observed was between the expected and observed mean of ‘emphasis on learning’ and the least one was of ‘collaboration’. ‘Shared planning’ did not show

statistically significance value and the difference in its expected and observed mean was (-.01) indicating the absence of this type of culture in the schools under study.

#### 4.1.4. Organizational health of secondary schools in Addis Ababa city

The dimensions of organizational health included ‘institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, moral and academic emphasis. Tsui and Cheng (1999) stated that a healthy school is a school which shows strong performance in terms of these seven dimensions. The organizational health of the schools under study was presented here under.

Table 12: Organizational health level of secondary schools

Components	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Institutional Integrity	2.44	.51	.02
Principal Influence	2.49	.59	.02
Consideration	2.58	.63	.03
Initiating Structure	2.67	.63	.02
Resource Support	2.52	.62	.02
Moral	2.48	.51	.02
Academic Emphasis	2.51	.55	.02
Organizational Health	2.53	.48	.02

N = 450

Table 12 depicted the level of organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa city. Teacher respondents in the secondary schools of Addis Ababa were asked to rate the health of their respective schools in line with the items rating scale ranging from ‘1’ ‘Rarely’, ‘2’ ‘Sometimes’, ‘3’ ‘Often’ to ‘4’ ‘Very frequently’.

To analyze the obtained data from the OHI-S and categorize the organizational health scores as high, moderate and low, mean scores of overall and each school on the OHI-S was calculated. For the purpose of this study, school principals’ mean scores less than half of the mean score or below 2.5 out of 4 were considered as low score. Whereas mean scores that rest between half of the total score and two thirds of the total score (or greater than or equal to 2.5 but less than 2.66) were categorized as moderate, and mean scores greater than or equal to two thirds (or 2.66) were grouped as high score.

As shown in Table 12, the overall mean for organizational health of the schools was ( $M = 2.53$ ). Hence, it can be seen that the overall level of organizational health of secondary schools of Addis Ababa was moderate. The highest mean was 2.67 for initiating structure which shows the principal focused on task and achievement. Whereas the least mean was 2.44 for institutional integrity. The overall moderate level of each organizational health mean value shows that the schools were not in a status that enables them to achieve their mission. Initiating structure was rated the highest in relation to the other dimensions of organizational health status in the schools. This show the principals were more of ‘task oriented’ which may affect the motivation of teachers. Besides, the low score for ‘institutional integrity’ indicates that the schools experienced external pressure which might affect their programs. In general, the average overall health of secondary schools’ organizational health highly affects the effectiveness of the schools.

Table 13: Level of overall organizational health and its dimensions in each school

School	Institutional integrity Mean	Principal influence Mean	Consideration Mean	Initiating Mean	Resource Mean	Moral Mean	Academic emphasis Mean	Health Overall Mean
1	2.40	2.68	3.04	3.09	2.76	2.64	2.62	2.75
2	2.42	2.29	2.77	2.78	2.83	2.52	2.52	2.59
3	2.52	2.48	2.51	2.66	2.57	2.39	2.47	2.51
4	2.53	2.50	2.58	2.47	2.55	2.50	2.59	2.54
5	2.39	2.51	2.44	2.51	2.36	2.25	2.26	2.39
6	2.55	2.46	2.52	2.63	2.57	2.62	2.64	2.57
7	2.32	2.40	2.44	2.46	2.39	2.39	2.51	2.41
8	2.30	2.50	2.52	2.73	2.57	2.38	2.50	2.50
9	2.48	2.57	2.80	2.81	2.60	2.58	2.59	2.63
10	2.46	2.57	2.60	2.82	2.58	2.44	2.60	2.58
11	2.47	2.46	2.52	2.60	2.52	2.54	2.59	2.53
12	2.58	2.34	2.40	2.66	2.35	2.50	2.37	2.46
13	2.36	2.56	2.53	2.61	2.38	2.45	2.48	2.48
Total	2.44	2.49	2.58	2.67	2.52	2.48	2.51	2.53

Table 13 shows the level of organizational health in each school with respect to organizational health dimensions. School 01 scored the highest mean in relation to the other secondary schools. The results show that the mean for principal influence, consideration, initiation and moral was 2.68, 3.04, 3.09 and 2.64 respectively and the highest scores than the other schools. Consideration and initiation dimensions show

moderate score in the organizational health category of schools. The mean scores for resource and academic emphasis for the same school was the second than other schools with 2.76 and 2.62. However, the mean value for institutional integrity for this school was 2.40 which was less than eight schools. School 09 was the second in its organizational health status ( $M = 2.63$ ), the scores for the dimensions for school 09 ranged 2.48 for institutional integration to 2.81 for initiating structure, showing high mean score for these dimensions than the other schools.

On the other hand, schools 012, 02 and 06 scored the highest means in Integrity (2.58), Resource support (2.83) and Academic emphasis (2.64) respectively although their health status is moderate. With regard to the mean value for the schools across the dimensions in all schools ‘Initiating’ was rated as the highest organizational health dimension in all the schools. This means the principals of the schools focus on task and achievement. On the other hand ‘institutional integrity’ was rated the lowest organizational health dimension in all schools (except in school 08). This means the schools were not in position to deal with outside forces in a way that maintains their reliability of their programs. Additionally, teachers might be under undue community and parental demands and the school lacks the support of the community and there is outside pressure or influence on school principals and teachers.

Table 14: Statistical difference in organizational health level among secondary schools

Components	t	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean difference	95 percent Confidence interval of the difference	
				Lower	Upper
Institutional Integrity	18.29	.000	.44	.39	.49
Principal Influence	17.58	.000	.49	.44	.55
Consideration	19.39	.000	.58	.52	.64
Initiating Structure	22.50	.000	.67	.61	.73
Resource Support	17.80	.000	.52	.46	.58
Moral	19.62	.000	.48	.43	.52
Academic Emphasis	19.83	.000	.51	.46	.56
Organizational Health	23.04	.000	.53	.48	.57

$df = 449$

Table 14 shows the statistical significance observed in organizational health and its subscales. There was statistically significant difference between the expected ( $M= 2.0$ )

and observed mean (2.53) in the overall leadership practice at  $p = 0.001$  level. The mean difference between the expected and observed mean for the subscales of organizational health also shows statistically significant difference in the health status. The greatest mean difference was between the expected and observed mean of ‘initiating structure’ and the least one was in ‘institutional integrity’.

Table 15: ANOVA showing difference in the three major variables with respect to the secondary schools under study

		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Leadership Practice	Between Groups	112.48	12	9.37	4.87	.000
	Within Groups	840.78	437	1.92		
	Total	953.27	449			
Organizational Health	Between Groups	3.87	12	.32	1.36	.181
	Within Groups	103.61	437	.23		
	Total	107.49	449			
School Culture	Between Groups	4.82	12	.40	3.57	.000
	Within Groups	49.15	437	.11		
	Total	53.97	449			

The assumption for ANOVA for each variable (leadership practice, school culture and organizational health) was checked. As a result, the assumption for this test was justified. This is because the distribution of the data approximated to that of the normal distribution (see Appendix VII).

Table 15 shows the analysis of variance (ANOVA) that was conducted to determine if there is any significant difference in LP, SC and OH among the secondary schools taken as a sample. ANOVA testing revealed significant difference in leadership practice among the secondary schools ( $F(12, 437) = 4.872, p < .001$ ) and significant difference in school culture among the schools ( $F(12, 437) = 3.572, p < .001$ ). No statistically significant difference was found to exist in organizational health among the secondary schools since the significance value for this variable was insignificant.

#### **4.1.5. Significance difference in leadership practice, school culture and organizational health with respect to demographic variables**

Before using MANOVA, tenability of its assumptions should be checked to ascertain the results were dependable. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) the assumptions of normality, linearity and multi-collinearity need to be assessed to conduct MANOVA tests. As a result the aforementioned assumptions were tested in the present study.

To this end, except where the violations are due to outliers, MANOVA is robust to modest violations of normality. In the present study, multivariate outliers were tested by using Mahalanobis distance. This is the distance of a particular case from the centroid (the point created by the means of all the variables) of the remaining cases. The common procedure is to compare the maximum value of obtained Mahalanobis distance to a critical chi square value at 0.001. In the present study, for the three variables (Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health), the critical value is 16.27 and the maximum obtained Mahalanobis distance is 24.156. Thus, because the obtained value (24.156) was greater than the critical value (16.27), the implication would be that there was a multivariate outlier and that the data were not normally distributed. Nonetheless, closer examination of the data revealed that only one participant had a score that exceeded the critical value. This was the 41<sup>st</sup> participant with a Mahalanobis distance of 24.156. Because there is only one participant with Mahalanobis distance greater than the critical value (the rest, that is, 449 participants had Mahalanobis distances of less than or equal to 15.93 which is less than the critical value, 16.27), and because MANOVA is robust to modest violation of normality (this is particularly so when, it was thought that only one outlier might not debilitate the normality of the distribution. Thus, the 41<sup>st</sup> participant was allowed to remain in the analysis.

The next assumption that was tested was linearity. As MANOVA is part of the general linear model, tenability of the linearity assumption should be tested. This test involved various procedures in the SPSS. The output figure is shown in (Appendix XI). It indicates that (as depicted by the fit line linking pairs of variables) the relationships among the three variables are approximately linear.



Multi-collinearity is the situation in which the dependent variables are highly correlated. MANOVA works best when the dependent variables are moderately correlated. In order to test the assumption of multi-collinearity, statistics called tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) should be examined. Tolerance of less than .25 and VIF of greater than 4.00 indicate the existence of multi-collinearity (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In the present study, the value of tolerance ranged from .643 to .87 while that of VIF ranged from 1.14 to 1.55. Thus, using these values, it is evident that the assumption of multi-collinearity is justified for the variables.

Statistically significant results were followed by One-way ANOVA. The univariate normality assumption for ANOVA for each dependent variable was also justified. This is because the distribution of the data approximated to that of the normal distribution (see Appendix VII).

Table 16: Results of Multivariate tests from MANOVA for demographic variables and leadership practice, school culture and organizational health

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	F	Sig.	Partial eta squared
Age	Leadership Practice	1.93	.124	.013
	School Culture	4.04	.007	.027
	Organizational Health	1.71	.164	.012
Service years	Leadership Practice	.442	.778	.004
	School Culture	3.92	.004	.035
	Organizational Health	1.64	.162	.015
Sex	Leadership Practice	.139	.710	.000
	School Culture	.157	.692	.000
	Organizational Health	.340	.560	.001
Education Level	Leadership Practice	2.627	.106	.006
	School Culture	.638	.425	.002
	Organizational Health	2.581	.109	.006

Table 16 showed if there was significance difference in leadership practice, school culture and organizational health with respect to demographic variables. Multivariate analysis of variance was used to examine the significance difference. Statistically significant difference was not found in leadership practice and organizational health with respect to demographic variables. However, the test found statistically significant

differences in school culture with respect to age and service years. Accordingly, school culture was found to be statistically significantly different with only two of demographic variables of teacher respondents, age and service years at  $p < .05$ . In order to identify which age and service year groups differed from one another MANOVA was followed by one-way ANOVA.

Table 17: Means, standard deviations, and One-Way ANOVA statistics for age, service years and school culture

Variable	N	Mean	SD	F-ratio	df
Service Years by school Culture				3.25*	4,445
3- 5 years	37	3.27	.29		
6 - 9 years	115	3.16	.34		
10 -15 years	182	3.16	.34		
16-20 years	55	3.15	.34		
More than 20 years	61	3.32	.37		
Age by school Culture				4.11**	3, 446
20 - 29 years	96	3.16	.37		
30 - 39 years	263	3.18	.33		
40 - 49 years	83	3.29	.35		
Over 50 years	8	2.94	.32		

Note. N= 450. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

Regarding difference in school culture with respect to services years, Post-hoc comparisons was further conducted using the Tukey HSD test. Table 17 showed the test to identify which groups differed indicated that the mean score for the more than 20 service years' group ( $M = 3.32$ ,  $SD = .37$ ) was significantly different from the 6-9 group ( $M = 3.16$ ,  $SD = .34$ ) and the 10-15 Service Years group ( $M = 3.17$ ,  $SD = .34$ ).

In a similar manner, regarding difference in school culture with respect to Age, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the 20–29 years' age group ( $M = 3.16$ ,  $SD = .37$ ) was significantly different from the 40-49 group ( $M = 3.29$ ,  $SD = .35$ ). In the same manner, Tukey HSD test revealed that the age group of 40-49 years ( $M = 3.29$ ,  $SD = .35$ ) obtained significantly higher mean scores in school culture than the over 50 years' group ( $M = 2.94$ ,  $SD = .32$ ).

#### 4.1.6. Interrelationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools in Addis Ababa city

In this section, SEM was used to show the relationship of the variables and the sub-scales. Structural equation modeling is a statistical approach to testing hypotheses about the relationships among variables. The variables may be observed or latent variables (Schumacker and Lomax, 2010; Hoyle, 2012).

The following sections presented the structural equation model and path diagram of the variables and subscales of this study. The major constructs of this study were run through AMOS software to produce the structural model. The result of the initial run showed the indices for model-fit below the required level. Due to this bootstrapping was carried out. Bootstrapping is a computer-based method of resampling. In parametric bootstrapping the computer randomly samples from a theoretical probability density function specified by the researcher. This process adjusts the sample (Kline, 2011). As a result of bootstrapping the indices for model-fit were improved.

Table 18: Model fit statistics for Structural equation model of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health

No.	Fit indices	Values
1	CFI	.95
2	TLI	.94
3	IFI	.95
4	REMSEA	.07
5	GFI	.90
6	NFI	.93

Table 18 showed the values for the model fit of Structural equation model of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health. As it can be seen from the table most of the indices (such as CFI 0.95, REMSEA 0.07 and GFI 0.90) were in the acceptable range. The modified structural model with path coefficients for the variables leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools was shown in Figure 2. The model for the subscales was also depicted in Figure 3.

Table 19: Standardized regression weights

	Relationship		Estimate	S.E.
LP	---->	SC	.35 ***	.01
SC	---->	OH	.13*	.07
LP	---->	OH	.57***	.01

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*  $p < .05$

### Hypothesis 1

H<sub>01</sub> ‘There is no significant relationship between principals’ leadership practice and school culture of secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’.

Table 19 showed the relationship between the three variables of this study. Accordingly, the relationship between leadership practice and school culture was statistically significant at ( $p < 0.001$ ). No evidence supports to accept the null hypothesis. Thus, the first null hypothesis that states ‘There is no significant relationship between principals’ leadership practice and school culture of secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’ was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

### Hypothesis 2

H<sub>02</sub> ‘There is no significant relationship between principals’ leadership practice and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’.

As illustrated in Table 19, the relationship between leadership practice and organizational health was statistically significant at ( $p < 0.001$ ). Thus, no evidence supports to accept the null hypothesis. Therefore, the second null hypothesis that states, ‘There is no significant relationship between principals’ leadership practices and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’ was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

### Hypothesis 3

H<sub>03</sub> ‘There is no significant relationship between school culture and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’.

As depicted in Table 19, the relationship between school culture and organizational health was statistically significant at ( $p < 0.05$ ). No evidence supports to accept the null

hypothesis. Therefore, the third null hypothesis that states, ‘There is no significant relationship between school culture and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’ was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

Using their subscales as indicators, the latent variable in SEM of the bigger constructs of the study, that is, Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health, was examined. Table 19 also depicted the standardized regression weights between variables of the study. Accordingly, Leadership practice was found to influence organizational health ( $\beta = .57, p < .001$ ) and school culture ( $\beta = .35, p < .001$ ) positively and significantly. Likewise, school culture influenced organizational health of school significantly ( $\beta = .13, p < .05$ ).

The AMOS software provided the structural equation model of the three variables i.e. leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools.

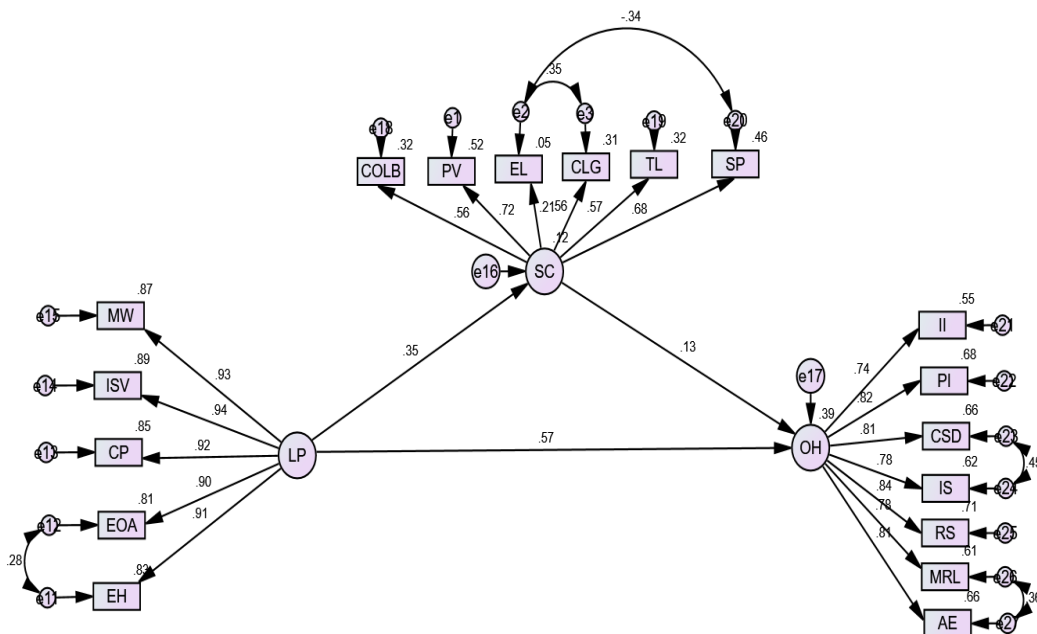


Figure 2: Structural equation model of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health

Figure 2 depicted the structural model output obtained using AMOS software. It showed

the relationship among the main variables of the study. The proposed diagram in the conceptual framework of this study initially hypothesized relationship between leadership practice, school culture and organizational health. The output from AMOS supported the proposed relationships in the conceptual framework. The model showed the direct and indirect or mediated relationship among the three variables. As a result, leadership practice had a direct influence on both organizational health and school culture. On the other, hand leadership practice had influence on organizational health through school culture. This mediated effect was in addition to the direct influence of leadership practice on organizational health. Thus the model showed the direct, indirect and total effect among the variables. The mediation effect is presented in the next section.

#### **4.1.7. The mediational role of school culture between the relationship of leadership practice and organizational health**

The effect of school culture in mediating the relation between leadership practice and organizational health was examined. The result of this study showed that there was indirect effect of leadership practice on organizational health via school culture. Accordingly, it was found that school culture mediated the relationship between leadership practice and organizational health of school.

#### **Hypothesis 4**

H<sub>04</sub> ‘School culture does not significantly mediate the relationship between leadership practice and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration’.

The indirect effect of leadership practice on organizational health via school culture was found to be positive and statistically significant ( $\beta = .045$ , 95 percent CI: (.007, 0.093),  $p < .05$ ). That is, due to the indirect (mediated) effect of leadership practice on organizational health, i.e. when leadership practice goes up by 1 standard deviation, organizational health goes up by 0.045 standard deviations (Appendix IX). This result showed school culture significantly mediated the relationship between leadership practice and organizational health. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis that states “School culture does not significantly mediate the relationship between leadership practice and organizational health” was rejected and the null hypothesis accepted.

The mediation effect of school culture was in addition to any direct (unmediated) effect that leadership practice may have on organizational health. As illustrated in Table 19, the direct effect of leadership practice on organizational health was .57. Thus, the standardized total (direct and indirect) effect of leadership practice on organizational health was .61. That is, due to both direct (unmediated) and indirect (mediated) effects of leadership practice on organizational health. This shows that when leadership practice goes up by 1 standard deviation, organizational health goes up by 0.61 standard deviations. This result shows that school principals may increase the organizational health of their schools by giving attention for both specific leadership practices and school culture and at the same time improve their performance since organizational health plays a vital role in the performance of organizations.

#### **4.1.8. The contribution of the variables (leadership practice, school culture and organizational health) in their interrelationship to one another**

The relationship between the three variables showed leadership practice predicted both organizational health and school culture and school culture predicted organizational health. The subsequent sections presented the models the relationship between the variables.

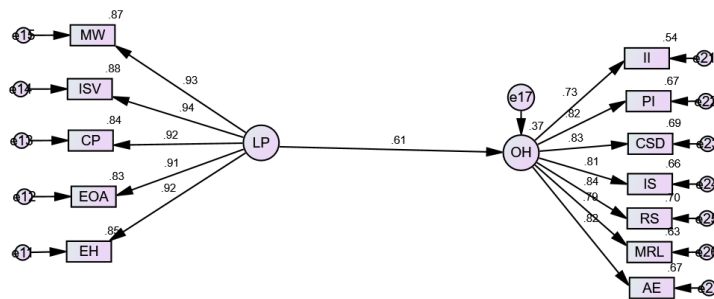


Figure 3: Prediction of Leadership Practice to Organizational Health

Figure 3 showed that leadership practice predicted organizational health ( $R^2 = 37$  percent). This showed 37 percent of the variance explained in school is caused by principal leadership practice in secondary schools. This result important implication in the leadership practice of the school principals because it helps them to make decisions in the course of improving the organizational health of their schools. Organizational health is considered as vital for the success of organizations.

Leadership practice also predicted school culture. The following model showed the relationship between the two variables.



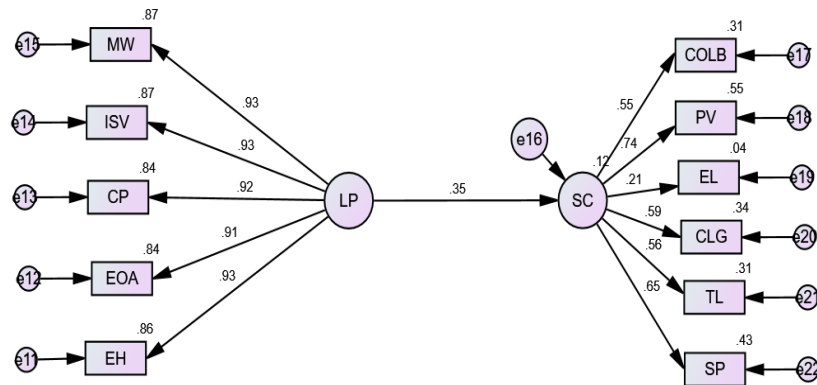


Figure 4: Prediction of leadership practice to school culture

Figure 4 showed leadership practice predicted school culture. It was found that 11.9 percent of the variance in school culture was explained by leadership practice of school principals. The rest of the variance was explained by other unexplained variables. This shows school principals through their leadership practices have a role in shaping the school culture. This result has implication in the choice of activities of the school principals in their effort to shape and build the culture of their schools.

Leadership Practice was found to exert a relatively stronger positive effect on organizational health than on school culture. This stronger predictive value of leadership practice is evident in its greater amount of variance explained by leadership practice in organizational health ( $R^2 = 37$  percent) than the variance that it explained in school culture ( $R^2 = 11.9$  percent).

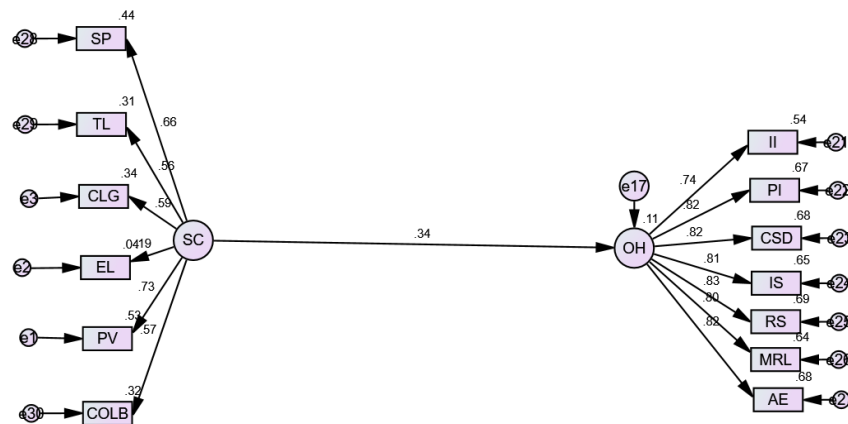


Figure 5: Prediction of school culture to organizational Health

School culture predicted organizational health of schools. Figure 5 showed this relationship. It was found that the amount of variance explained in organizational health by school culture to be ( $R^2 = 11$  percent). This was in addition to the prediction of leadership practice on organizational health. In Figure 4, it was explained that 37 percent of the variance explained in organizational health was due to principal leadership practice in secondary schools. This result showed the effect in the leadership practice of the school principals and school culture on organizational health of schools. It clearly indicates that both leadership practice and school culture had substantial effect on organizational health of schools. Therefore, it can be seen that school principals would be effective in improving their schools organizational health by focusing on relevant leadership practice and working in building strong school culture.

#### 4.1.9. Interrelationship among subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health

This study focused on the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools. As it has been elaborated in the literature part, each of these three variables has subscales. Leadership practice is composed of five

sub scales: Modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act and encouraging the heart. School culture, on the other hand, has six subscales these are: Professional values, emphasis on learning, collegiality, collaboration, shared planning and transformational leadership. Organizational health also has seven subscales: Institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, teacher's moral and academic emphasis. To examine the relationship among the subscales zero order correlation coefficients were considered. Accordingly, the Pearson Product coefficients among the variables that formed the main constructs were calculated and presented in Table 20.

Table 20: Interrelationships (correlations) among subscales of the major variables

	MW	ISV	CP	EOA	EH	PV	EL	CLG	COLB	SP	TL
PV	.26**	.26**	.20**	.26**	.25**	1					
EL	.24**	.21**	.22**	.31**	.26**	.10*	1				
CLG	.12**	.07	.10*	.13**	.11*	.45**	.38**	1			
COLB	.16**	.17**	.12*	.16**	.14**	.39**	.05	.27**	1		
SP	.18**	.16**	.15**	.15**	.12**	.49**	-.08	.43**	.42**	1	
TL	.29**	.28**	.27**	.32**	.31**	.41**	.19**	.26**	.36**	.33**	1
II	.34**	.33**	.35**	.29**	.31**	.02	.03	-.07	.16**	.03	.13**
PI	.40**	.45**	.44**	.36**	.39**	.12*	.04	.04	.10*	.16**	.19**
CSD	.56**	.60**	.55**	.55**	.56**	.31**	.18**	.13**	.26**	.23**	.38**
IS	.51**	.53**	.50**	.48**	.50**	.27**	.19**	.20**	.26**	.21**	.33**
RS	.49**	.54**	.51**	.46**	.47**	.16**	.12**	.06	.21**	.14**	.21**
MRL	.40**	.44**	.40**	.34**	.40**	.14**	.11*	.07	.20**	.10*	.25**
AE	.43**	.47**	.46**	.39**	.42**	.19**	.16**	.13**	.18**	.16**	.24**

\*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

(Note: CLG = Collegiality, COLB = Collaboration, CSD = consideration, MRL = moral)

The rest are provided in the abbreviations and acronyms list.

### Hypothesis 5

Ho<sub>5</sub>: 'There are no significant inter-correlations among the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration.'

Table 20 showed the interrelationships among the subscales of the main variables for this study. Accordingly, the majority of the interrelationships were found to be significant. Statistically significant relationships were observed between subscales of leadership practice (MW, ISV, CP, EOA and EH) and subscales of school culture (PV, EL, CLG, COLB, SP and TL) ranging from  $r = 0.10$ ,  $p = X$  to  $r = 0.32$ ,  $p = X$ . The highest correlation observed was between EOA and TL ( $r = 0.32$ ), EH and TL ( $r = 0.31$ ), EOA and EL ( $r = 0.31$ ), MW and TL ( $r = 0.29$ ). Based on Evans (1996) suggestion for the value of 'r' is categorized as ( $.00 - .19 =$  very weak,  $.20 - .39 =$  weak,  $.40 - .59 =$  moderate,  $.60 - .79 =$  strong,  $.80 - 1.0 =$  very strong). Accordingly, the relationship among the subscales showed weak and positive relationship between the subscales of leadership practice and school culture.

On the other hand the relationship between the subscales of leadership practice and organizational health were between ( $r = 0.29$ ) and ( $r = 0.60$ ). The strongest relationship observed were between ISV and CSD ( $r = 0.60$ ), MW and CSD ( $r = 0.60$ ) and EH and CSD ( $r = 0.60$ ). The correlation between (subscales leadership practice and organizational health) showed moderate, positive relationship. However, the relationship between subscales of school culture and organizational health was found at a varying degree with correlation ranging from ( $r = 0.02$ ) between PV and II to ( $r = 0.38$ ) between TL and CSD. The majority of the correlations between the variables were found to be weak and positive. From the above data, it can be seen that the relationship between subscales of school leadership practice and organizational health was higher than the others.

The result from Table 20 showed that there were significant inter-correlations among the majority of the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health. There was much evidence that supports this result. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis that states "There are no significant inter-correlations among the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health", was rejected and the null hypothesis accepted. The relationships among the subscales were further explained in Table 21 to Table 24.

However, the following correlations were found to be non-significant: Collegiality vs. Inspiring a Shared Vision, Institutional Integrity vs. Professional Values, Institutional

Integrity vs. Emphasis on Learning, Institutional Integrity vs. Collegiality, Institutional Integrity vs. Shared Planning, Principal Influence vs. Emphasis on Learning, Principal Influence vs. Collegiality, Resource Support vs. Collegiality and Moral vs. Collegiality. The majority of the non-significant relationships were observed between the subscales of school culture and organizational health of schools.

The specific strengths of the Leadership Practice, School Culture and organizational health were also examined using paths linking their respective subscales.

Figure 3 shows the structural equation model for the sub-scales from AMOS.

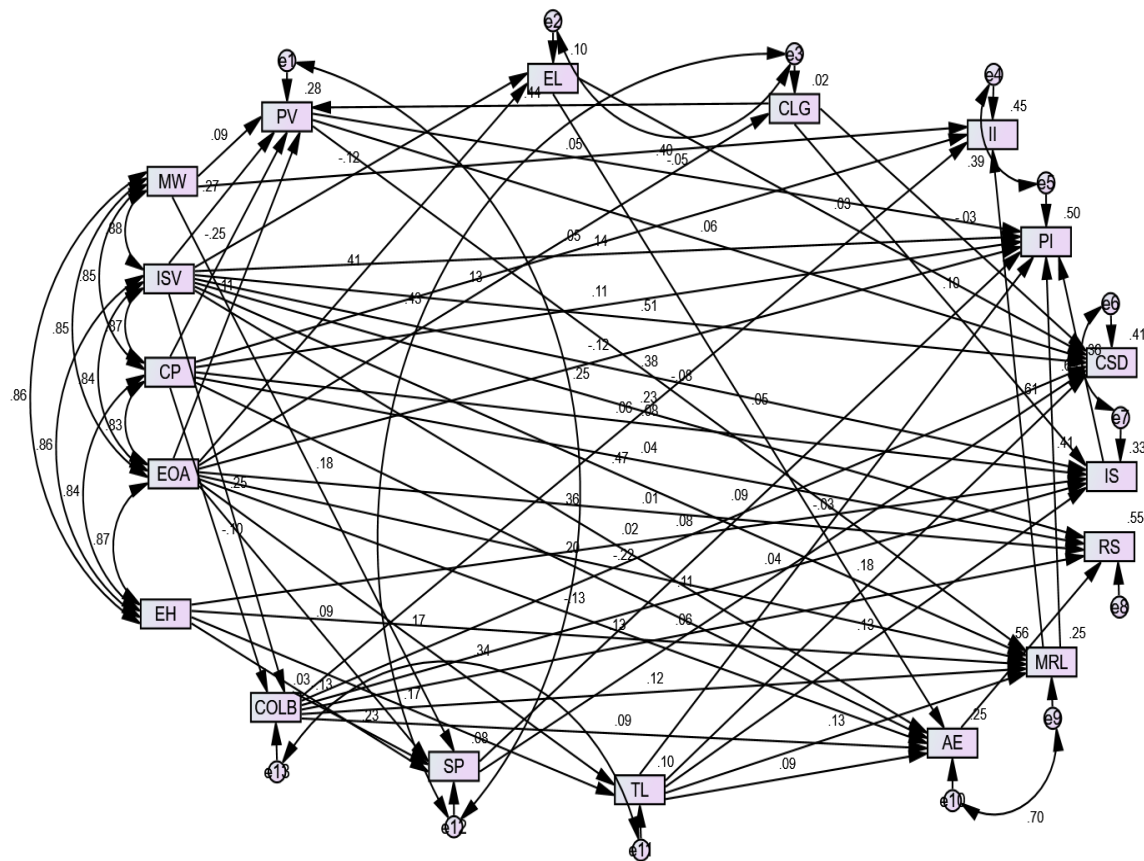


Figure 6: Path model of subscales of Leadership Practice, School Culture and organizational health

Figure 6 shows the model linking the subscales of the major constructs, Leadership Practice, School Culture and organizational health. This model is a modified model showing the interrelationship between the subscales. The initial model did not satisfy the required values of model fit indices. Accordingly, bootstrapping was conducted to modify

the model. The modified model satisfied some of the indices (NFI=.91, IFI=.92, CFI=.92). However, adequacy of model fit cannot be claimed because other commonly used fit indices such as REMSEA did not meet the criterion, which is below 0.08.

Despite the inadequacy of model fit the model was included in this study because it adds explanatory power to the relationship among the variables. The following tables showed results from the model linking between the subscales.

Table 21: Summary of structural coefficients of the path model linking subscales of leadership practice and organizational health

Path From	→	To	Standardized Structural Coefficient ( $\beta$ )
Inspiring Shared Vision		Consideration	.51***
Inspiring Shared Vision		Initiating Structure	.38***
Inspiring Shared Vision		Resource Support	.23**
Inspiring Shared Vision		Morale	.47***
Inspiring Shared Vision		Academic Emphasis	.35***
Enabling Others to Act		Morale	.28*
Enabling Others to Act		Principal Influence	-.13*
Challenging the Process		Academic Emphasis	.20***

N = 450, \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 21 shows the summary of structural coefficients of the path model that link subscales of leadership practice and organizational health. Accordingly, only three subscales of leadership practice influenced the subscales of organizational health. The ( $\beta$  value) for ‘inspiring shared vision’ vs. ‘consideration’ was the highest .51 at  $p < .001$  followed by ‘inspiring shared vision’ vs. ‘morale’ .47,  $p < .001$ . Enabling Others to Act has a negative relationship with principal influence,  $\beta = -.13$ ,  $p < .05$ . This indicates when teachers’ capacity is built and were empowered the need for principals close supervision and support will be minimal. On the other hand, inspiring the shared vision had direct effect on most of the subscales of organizational health.

From the result, it can be seen that there was a direct influence of subscales of leadership on subscales of organizational health. This implies school principals may employ the subscales of leadership practice particularly ‘inspiring the shared vision’ and ‘enabling others to act’ to get the effects of most subscales of organizational health.

Table 22: Summary of structural coefficients of the path model linking subscales of school culture and organizational health

Path From	→	To	Standardized Structural Coefficient ( $\beta$ )
Professional Value		Moral	.14**
Collaboration		Consideration	.08*
Collaboration		Initiating Structure	.11*
Collaboration		Resource Support	.07*
Collaboration		Moral	.12*
Collaboration		Academic emphasis	.09*
Collegiality		Initiating Structure	.10*
Shared Planning		Principal Influence	.09**
Transformational Leadership		Consideration	.18***
Transformational Leadership		Initiating Structure	.13*
Transformational Leadership		Moral	.13**

N = 450, \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 22 shows summary of structural coefficients of the path model linking subscales of school culture and organizational health. The subscales of school culture and organizational health of schools related each other with small beta value. Two of the subscales of school culture, 'Collaboration' and 'transformational leadership', influenced most of the subscales of organizational health. 'Professional Value' and 'Collegiality' also influenced 'moral' and 'principal Influence' respectively. The results from the table indicate that principals may facilitate the development of school culture by giving emphasis to the subscales of school culture to improve organizational.

Table 23: Summary of structural coefficients of the path model linking subscales of leadership practice and school culture

Path From	→	To	Standardized Structural Coefficient ( $\beta$ )
Modeling the Way		Shared planning	.18*
Inspiring Shared Vision		Professional values	.27*
Inspiring Shared Vision		Collaboration	.25*
Enabling Others to Act		Emphasis on learning	.41***
Enabling Others to Act		Collegiality	.13*

N = 450, \*\*\*p < .001, \*p < .05

Table 23 showed the Summary of Structural Coefficients of the Path Model Linking subscales of leadership practice and school culture. ‘Enabling others to act’ was statistically significantly related to ‘emphasis on learning’ with a highest ( $\beta$  value, .41,  $p < .001$ ). Only three of the subscales of leadership practice influenced most of the subscales of school culture. The result from this table may imply that principals may employ the mentioned subscales of leadership practice to improve the school culture of their school.

Indirect effect was observed between the subscales of leadership practice and organizational health through school culture. The subscales of school culture were found to mediate the relationship between subscales of leadership practice and organizational health. The mediational analysis among the subscales was presented in the table that follows. The results of the path analysis also depicted the direct (unmediated) relationship among the variables.



Table 24: Summary of results of mediational analysis for the subscales

Relationship	Indirect Effect (95percent CI)	Direct Effect (95 percent CI)
ISV • (via AE ) • RS	.23*** (.13, .33)	.23*** (.08, .37)
CP • (via AE) • RS	.10* (.02, .20)	.04 (-.13, .2)
EOA • (via SP) • PI	-.08* (-.16, -.01)	-.13* (-.25, -.01)
EOA • (via TL) • PI	-.08* (-.16, -.01)	-.13* (-.25, .01)
EOA • (via MRL) • PI	-.08* (-.16, -.01)	-.13* (-.25, .01)
EOA • (via TL) • AE	.04* (.00, .08)	-.13 (-.29, .04)
EOA • (via EL) • AE	.04* (.00, .08)	-.13 (-.29, .04)
EH • (via TL ) • IS	.02* (.00, .07)	.02 (-.11, .14)
EH • (via TL ) • MRL	.02* (.00, .07)	.13 (-.01, .28)
EH • (via TL&AE ) • MRL	.02* (.00, .07)	.13 (-.01, .28)
COLB • (via AE) • RS	.05* (-.01, .10)	.01* (.00, .13)
COLB • (via MRL) • II	.07** (.02, .13)	.06 (-.02, .14)

N = 450, \*\*\*p < .001, \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05

Table 24 shows results of mediational analysis for the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health. The squared multiple correlations also showed the variance to be explained between dependent and independent variables. In addition, the standardized effects were analyzed to show if variable have direct or indirect influence on other variables. The majority of the subscales of leadership practice have an influence on most of the organizational health subscales through other subscale variables i.e. subscales of culture. The arrows show sequence thus indicating the first variables are preconditions for other variables coming next to the arrow. Statistically significant result for both indirect and direct effect shows both effects were observed. The non-significant

direct effect implies that the variable may affect the other variable indirectly than directly.

From the table it can be seen that the indirect effect of ISV ( $\beta = .23$ ,  $p < .001$ ) on RS was found to be positive and statistically significant. Thus, AE is able to transfer ISV to RS positively. Similarly, the relationship between EH and IS mediated by TL shows an indirect effect. The indirect effect of EH ( $\beta = .02$ ,  $p < .05$ ) on IS was found to be positive and statistically significant. Thus, TL is able to transfer EH to IS positively. Enabling others to act has indirect effect on PI and AE whereas ISV and CP have indirect effect on RS. On the other hand, EH indirectly influenced both IS and MRL. The indirect relationship between ISV and RS was the strongest and significant at  $p < .001$ . The indirect relationship between COLB and II was at  $p < .01$ ; whereas the rest of the indirect relationships were at  $p < .05$ . The relationship between ISV and RS either directly or indirectly was found to be of the same magnitude.

These results may have implication in the choice of school principals to produce specific effects through leadership practices in their schools with the intention of improving school culture and organizational health of their schools. The principals may specifically focus on those practices that have substantial results.

## **4.2. Results from the qualitative data**

The qualitative part the research used interview with school principals and teachers and document analysis as a main data gathering tool. The sample schools for the qualitative part of this research were selected from four secondary schools in which the quantitative data was collected. The schools were selected randomly. The principals and teachers who participated in the interview were selected from four schools using comprehensive and simple random sampling respectively. Those teachers who participated to complete questionnaires and who served less than three years in their current school were excluded. The interview with teachers continued until a point of data saturation was reached. When the information obtained from them was repeated and no more different response was given by the teacher informants the interview was terminated. In this process a total of sixteen teachers and four principals were interviewed.

## 4.2.1. Profile of principals and teachers

### 4.2.1.1. Profile of principal participants involved in interview

Interview sessions were conducted with four principal respondents from secondary schools. Table 25 summarizes the results of the demographic characteristics of the principals.

Table 25: Demographic characteristics of secondary school principals for interview

School	Sex	Age	Education Level	Total service year	Service year in current school	Marital status
1	M	36	MA	14	7	Single
2	M	38	MA	16	3	Married
3	M	48	MA	20	7	Married
4	M	40	MA	16	6	Married

Table 25 shows the demographic characteristics of principals who participated in interview for this study. Accordingly, all principal respondents were males with 36 to 48 years old. All of them were initially trained as teachers and worked for some years. Following that they were trained in school leadership with MA degree. All respondents served 3 to 7 years in their current schools as principals three of them were married.

The principals were adults with considerable life experience and high level education pertinent to their profession. Majority of them married which showed that they were stable. In addition, their total work experience, 14 years and more, would be an indication that they were experienced in their career. Moreover, three and more years' service in their current school showed they have good knowledge of their school. Therefore, due to this profile the principal respondents were believed to be in a position to provide valuable information about their schools with regard to the variables under study.

### 4.2.1.2. Profile of Teacher participants in interview

Semi-structured interview sessions were conducted with teacher respondents selected from four secondary schools in Addis Ababa. The following table summarizes the results of the demographic characteristics of the teacher respondents.

Table 26: Demographic characteristics of teachers in secondary schools

School	Sex	Age	Education level	Service year	In this school	Marital status
1	F	55	BA	37	8	Married
	M	51	MSc	28	6	Married
	M	33	MA	10	7	Married
	M	44	MSc	15	6	Married
2	M	56	MA	33	12	Married
	M	42	BA	16	6	Single
	M	50	BA	24	22	Married
	F	41	BA	15	6	Married
3	M	44	BA	19	6	Married
	M	37	BA	11	4	Married
	M	35	BA	14	8	Married
	F	39	BA	15	6	Single
4	M	54	BA	35	9	Married
	M	46	MA	21	10	Married
	F	44	BA	19	8	Married
	M	45	BA	27	4	Married

Table 26 shows the demographic characteristics of teachers who participated in the interview for collecting qualitative data for this study. Accordingly, teachers from sixteen teachers from four schools, four from each participated in the interview. The participants were 11 male and 5 female teachers. Their age ranged from 33 to 55 years old with total service years between 10 and 37. They served in their current school at least four years. The majority of them (87.5 percent) served more than six years. They were all married. They also received at least BA degree in different fields.

Therefore, it can be seen that the participants had high profile in terms of their education background and experience. They were matured and stable. Furthermore, their stay in the school enabled them to have rich information about their principal and their school.

#### 4.2.2. Themes from qualitative data

The qualitative data from the principals and teachers was collected and recorded through semi-structured interview from principal and teacher respondents. The interviews were

transcribed and read through many times to identify categories of responses, themes and patterns. Then the text was coded to identify the emerging themes. The themes were identified after a rigorous process.

The categories and themes that emerged from the qualitative data were presented here under. The categories identified were: School leadership practice, focus on instruction, teacher job focus and principal role. Twelve themes emerged from the analysis. The themes were grouped as follows as it appeared in each category.

1. Principals' personal characteristics, sharing vision, encouraging teachers and dealing with challenges.
2. Managing teaching and learning,
3. Encouraging learning, teachers' satisfaction in their profession and teachers' peer learning.
4. Principal behavior, school condition, principal influence, and principal and teacher expectation from students.

In presenting the themes the direct words of the informants were presented as they reflected their views. The data analysis from the interview is presented as follows.

#### **4.2.2.1. School leadership practice**

School leadership practice is one of the categories from the interview of principals and teachers of secondary schools. This category gave rise to four themes namely: Principals personal characteristics, sharing vision, encouraging teachers and dealing with challenges. These themes were presented and analyzed with supporting evidence obtained from the participants.

##### **1. Principals' personal characteristics**

School principals' self-perception and teachers' observer perception matched to some extent. Interview data obtained from both participants emphasized on personal characteristics of principals as exemplary to teachers. The following quote was from one of the principals.

*I think my way of leading can be taken as exemplary by others. I lead by participating others (vice principals and teachers as well as administrative workers). I do not want to command others. Rather I do things by working with*

*them. Often I start some job and make them to follow. For example Addis Ababa education bureau require teachers to wear white gown while on duty. In implementing this I did not order anyone. What I did was I wore my gown on one Monday. Then teachers followed. In another situation we planned to clear our campus. I took a mob and started to clean then everyone engaged. I participated in preparing worksheet for students. Thus, everyone knows my leadership philosophy; it is participating others and ensuring communication (P<sub>2</sub>).*

Similarly another principal participant said:

*I follow participatory leadership. ... I consult teachers and administration workers. I work with different committees. Thus, when an issue arises different ideas are invited from different parties and entertained. My leadership philosophy is participation, equality and being task focused (P<sub>1</sub>).*

Another principal participant (P<sub>3</sub>) responded that he preferred to start some work himself and become a model and make others to follow him.

Teachers shared the principals' response regarding the participatory nature of principals in the secondary schools. The following confirms this assertion. One teacher participant perceived his principal as the one that followed the school plan and participated teachers in different issues (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Another teacher added that the principal was participatory because he took ideas from different individuals. He often discussed with members of the school community and attempted to reach consensus if not took the majority's position (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). Similar view was also reflected by another teacher participant. He said his principal was seen often working with members of the school and discussed with those who were supposed to be a part of a certain issue and he liked most this approach (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher participant in another school described his principal as participatory and situational. He said, "The principal mostly makes decision with teachers. Sometimes he takes measures on his own. At times he was observed as autocrat. He did not listen to some teachers, may be their behavior was not desirable, like repeatedly coming late, not organized and frequently complained by students" (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub>).

The above responses show that school principals were participative and their leadership philosophy was clear. In addition, the views principal on their own leadership was confirmed by teachers which show that principals have implemented school affairs with common understanding.

A principal in one of the secondary schools was perceived as cooperative that works as a teacher and administration worker apart from his principalship role (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher in the same school viewed his principal as who is found in most events in the school. He added that the principal may be found working with teachers in preparing materials for students, duplicating examination papers or during social events (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). In another school a teacher perceived the principal as duty minded and as the one who frequently supervises the teachers work (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Similarly, the principal was perceived as participatory. “He [the principal] treats teachers equally. He participates in many of the school activities. He listens to people and takes others’ ideas. He is seldom angry when he is too busy. But by large he is open and easy to approach” (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Teachers in secondary schools also viewed their principal and modeled him as punctual, committed, motivated, good listener, sociable, cooperative and not focused on their own personal respect (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>3</sub>).

One of the teacher participants described his principal:

*Our principal is sociable and easy to approach. He encourages teachers and workers to work responsibly. He is punctual and duty minded. He is ready to listen to everyone. He solves teachers’ and students’ problems. We talk with him about issues in the school even at lunch time or anywhere out of his office in the campus. These personal qualities make him exemplary to others. He frequently expresses about standards to be followed. He is open take comments and suggestions. He participates vice principals, department heads and teachers in dealing with school matters (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>).*

One of the principals responded that he was a good listener. He always preferred consulting teachers and administrative workers on how to go about a certain issue or task. He also worked with lower level workers, like cleaners and guards (P<sub>3</sub>). Another principal argued that he worked with teachers the most possible agreement. He said, “I say ‘Let’s do it this way or that way (P<sub>4</sub>).

A teacher participant gave similar response. He said that his principal was supportive and helpful during his contact with him in different occasions and also saw him working with other teachers similarly and other teachers had the same experience (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher in one of the schools said, “My principal is very polite and willing to listen to people. He listens to people anytime anywhere. If someone contacts him with some

difficulty he will solve your problem or accept your idea. In addition he treats you with smiling face” (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher from the same school shared similar view. She said the principal was a person with positive attitude to people and had a very good relationship with teachers” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

Another teacher argued that this principal gave attention and oriented teachers before they went to class. He added the principal told teachers to handle the class with care and in a disciplined and ethical manner and explained the challenges they might face. This respondent believed, in this way he set the stage for smooth work (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

A teacher perceived his principal as having good relationship with teachers and working towards developing their competence. She said, “*Our principal has good relationship with all teachers and students. His office is open to anyone. He is willing to talk to people even during lunchtime. He respects teachers and administration workers*” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>).

Another teacher said that his principal had good relationship with teachers. When teachers face personal problems he visits them in school or at home and takes necessary measures. He works with vice principals to get their class covered (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>).

One of the principals explained the cooperative relationship he had with his teachers.

*We care for our teachers. We treat them friendly and brotherly. If teachers go to class with bad mood or in angry emotion, they may not do what they are supposed to do or students may suffer. Therefore, I follow a relationship based on friendship and common understanding. However, if teachers do not observe the rules and regulations we take corrective measures on a step by step basis. We attempt to create situation that makes teachers happy and enjoy their work in classes. Still we cannot treat them equally. We may be situational (P<sub>4</sub>).*

Data from the informants showed that principals were exemplary to their teachers and the school community in their personal characteristics. They were perceived as participatory, fair, respectful, friendly and easy to approach.

It is encouraging the school principals were equipped with such qualities that were essential to lead schools. Since schools are peculiar in their feature involving more people to people interaction leaders who understand such environment are ideal for the position. In addition the professionalization in schools demands collegial leadership. However, the



participants did not indicate other professional characteristics that should be possessed by school principals.

One can conclude from this result that school principals participated teachers and were equipped with human skills that fit to school environment. It is evidenced that they were perceived by their teachers as having these qualities. Principals need to be examples in technical skills pertinent to schools such as instructional, supervision and professional development activities.

## **2. Sharing vision**

The effectiveness of school principals is directly influenced by the school vision and the manner in which they work to realize the vision (Bush 2007). Commitment to shared vision provided the road-map necessary for organization [school] to be effective. They go on emphasizing that school success and vision for learning are linked. They also stress that there is strong between the role of principals in framing and sharing, not imposing the school vision. The school vision should be communicated in terms of mission, goals expectations; which are building blocks of the vision. It should also be stated in terms of learning outcomes for students (Murphy and Torre, 2015).

Regarding sharing vision, principal respondents argued that in their respective secondary schools they attempted to make their staff internalize the vision of the school in some occasions and by making the vision to be displayed in school compound for the school community. They added the process of vision sharing in the secondary schools was conducted during school planning, staff meetings and performance evaluation programs. Discussion was conducted on the school vision. They also disclosed that they repeatedly emphasize the school community should work hard to achieve the school vision and the vision was posted in the school building and at the main gate of the school with the intention school members would read and remember each time they were in the school compound, thereby internalize it (P<sub>4</sub>, P<sub>1</sub> and P<sub>2</sub>).

From the principals response it can be seen that the process of vision sharing for school community and the less frequently reinforcement of the vision among school members made it not to be internalized and remembered. This was the experience in all of the

secondary schools. In these schools the process of school development starts with clarifying the vision of the school. The school vision was explained to teachers, administrative workers, parents, community representatives and students at the beginning of each academic year.

Almost all teacher participants underscored school vision was discussed at the beginning of the academic year, before starting to develop school plan, during department meetings and during performance evaluation. Thus, teachers confirmed the principals' responses. However, most teachers and some principals indicated they do not believe the school vision was well shared among the school community members and inspired all to work together to achieve it. One teacher remembered the way his school vision was shared. "The school vision was explained at the beginning and the middle of the year in some sentences. That is it. No one bothers about the vision after that" (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher added that there was no other time that they talked about the vision of the school. He also said that he was not sure people in the school gave any attention for the vision rather they focus on finishing their assigned tasks (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). A principal also noticed that there was no any survey or other means used to check whether people in the school understood and internalized the school vision (P<sub>3</sub>).

One can conclude from this result that school vision was not adequately shared to the school community. This shows principals regarded vision sharing as routine activity making little effort to get it internalized by the school community so that people would be inspired by the future image of the school from shared inspiration. The school leadership should have taken the lead to share and communicate the vision of the school.

### **3. Encouraging teachers**

Encouraging employees is an important factor in organizations. According to Kouzes and Posner (2012) personalizing encouragement pays off. When leaders are encouraging, others follow their example, and organizations develop a reputation that all workers will have good attitude to work.

Secondary school principals argued that they employed verbal and financial rewards to encourage teachers in recognition to their high performance in their school. They

appreciated teachers in person as well as in public for their good deeds. They also coordinated a formal process of selecting and rewarding the best performing teachers at a department and school level. However, it seems the selection of teachers was restricted to one teacher from a department. The procedure of selection was similar across schools.

A principal from one of the schools said:

*I acknowledge the work of teachers and administrative workers that deserve recognition at any occasion. There is also a formal way of recognizing high performances and contributions in our school. Teachers who passed through a series of evaluations from each department will be selected as best performers. The winners will be given monetary incentives and certificates at the end of the academic year (P<sub>2</sub>).*

Similarly, a principal in another school explained the same procedures. However, he said they discussed with teachers in person when things go wrong. “We give opportunities for teachers until things got back to truck. If teachers do not show improvement we will take administrative measures in accordance with the rule and regulations (P<sub>4</sub>).

Principals lead the procedure of providing incentive to teachers in the school. A principal’s words indicated the financial rewards for research in addition to best teachers of the year in one of the schools.

*Teachers who performed best in the academic year will be recognized in a ceremony biannually. There will be prizes for those who stood 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> in their recognition of their achievement. Others receive certificates. In addition teachers are encouraged to conduct research. Teachers with acceptable research works will be given 10,000 to 5,000 ETB. The recognition by the school is equal to the amount given by the sub-city education bureau. This shows that the attention the school has given to motivate and encourage teachers. The process of selecting best performer teachers is transparent and a formal procedure. If teachers have compliant, they can appeal at any stage of the process. The school administration facilitates the participation of teachers in the process. Teachers’ representatives observe the process. Sometimes teachers complain on the committee that selects teachers to be rewarded. There were instances the committee changed its decisions (P<sub>3</sub>).*

Somewhat different experience was observed in one of the secondary schools. Although the school shares similar process with other schools, they care for those teachers who may be left unnoticed and take care of the issue not to cause conflict or fight among teachers. The following word of a principal shows this situation. The principal said:

*Our school administration motivates teachers who performed better. We have a ceremony in the middle of the year. We give prize for one best teacher from each department.....It may disappoint other teachers. Those who deserve to be acknowledged may not get the chance for a number of reasons. Sometime it may be because they did not receive a piece of information. ....We do not usually appreciate teachers in large meetings. This is because there might be other teachers who have done better and are much loved by students for their commitment. We believe if we do not recognize such teachers it may create grievance. On the other hand if we find teachers with misconduct we criticize in general staff meetings. However, we do not discourage teachers for simple misconduct. We discuss the case at department level and school administration and make decisions (P<sub>4</sub>).*

A principal of another school informed that his school followed similar procedure to encourage teachers. He argued that there might be teachers who contributed for the success of the school but remained unseen and their work unnoticed. He said he also gave attention for such people to be recognized. The principal respondent added such incidents discourage those teachers and other teachers also who may be suspicious of the rewarding system.

Most teacher participants in secondary schools shared the response given by their principals. A teacher in one of the schools said that teachers were selected in series of evaluation by a committee selecting the best performing teachers. She added data was gathered from department heads, teachers, parents, students and the teachers' portfolio and reports and after evaluation teachers were rewarded 500 to 5000 ETB according to their rank (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). However, some respondents disclosed there were complaints by teachers. They said that they heard same teachers were repeatedly rewarded and principals attempted to influence the process (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

From the result it can be concluded that there was a rewarding system to encourage teachers in their work. The school administration participated teachers in the selection of the best performing teachers. However, the participants also indicated that the rewarding system was a source of conflict and grievance among teachers. It seems the principals have limited control on the process of motivating teachers with financial rewards unable to reward widely and anytime they feel rewarding is appropriate.

#### 4. Dealing with challenges

Schools as organizations need to deal with challenges that they encounter in running the teaching learning process. Principals play a key role in this regard. The following responses were from principals that showed how they dealt with challenges they faced in their schools.

A principal from one of the secondary schools said the following:

*When challenges are encountered, we conduct discussions on how to tackle them. We try to generate solutions to solve the problems. We try different alternatives. Sometimes we seek the support of our superiors. We do not as such deliberately challenge to change our existing performance or methods. The activities we perform are always preplanned and monitored. Of course, there are different new approaches that come from the sub-city education office. Sometimes problems arise that cannot be treated with the already established procedures. In such occasions I and my administration will take risk to alleviate problems and run the teaching learning process with no or the least undesired effect. For example maintenance, purchasing and other administrative issues may need some decisions to run school operation smoothly (P<sub>1</sub>).*

Principal participants from other schools argued that they give solution by using collective responsibility like committees to give solution when challenges were faced. They mentioned that they usually faced administrative problems like maintenance of machines and financial procedures in procurement of supplies.

Teacher participants had their own perception on how principals dealt with challenges. Teachers from the schools said mostly principals solved challenges through discussion (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher added, “When challenges are faced there will be discussion at the department or committee level. If it is not solved we refer it to the principals primarily to the vice principal” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). However, another teacher does not agree with this response. He said when challenges were encountered, the principal did not find ways to tackle the challenge or took any risk, he rather waits and I often heard him the rules did not allow him to go further and mostly referred to superiors (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

From the results it can be concluded that secondary school principals dealt with challenges mostly by discussing with management team members and teachers. Challenges dealt by principals were administrative in nature (like procuring,

maintenance). Principals and teachers did not indicate challenges related with teaching and learning. In addition they did not challenge teachers to make changes in their work.

#### **4.2.2.2. Focus on instruction**

A single theme emerged under this category. As a result managing teaching and learning was analyzed with supporting evidence from the informants.

### **1. Managing Teaching and learning**

Principals are figures in the teaching learning of any school. They are responsible for the overall management and leadership of the school. Principal participants for this study argued that the teaching learning in their respective schools was run in a coordinated way.

A principal leading one of the secondary schools argued that:

*Our school runs all education programs, [grades 9-12, social science and natural science streams] guided by a yearly plan. All departments and units yearly plan aligned with school strategic plan. We prepare our school plan a head of time, four months before the beginning of the academic year. Each department and unit will have its own plan. Teachers prepare their yearly teaching and learning plan. We will check if needed resource is supplied and monitor each process during implementation. The plan preparation, implementation and evaluation are participatory. The schools' curriculum committee leads the teaching learning process. The committee conducts weekly regular meeting to monitor and follow up the instruction process. It also evaluates the curriculum at school level. In addition it coordinates assessment and evaluation procedures (P<sub>3</sub>).*

A principal in one of the schools said that his staff was large in which some of them do not know each other. He added mostly teachers conducted their classes following the time table and when they finish their classes they might enjoy their time at staff room or browsing the internet. However, he also argued that they do not stay in the school compound after class (P<sub>1</sub>). Another principal said,

*Teachers leave the school as soon as they finish their classes or some additional engagements. They are not engaged much in other in-school activities. They work in other schools or attend university education. They are very much supervised here in the school. They do not miss classes. Most teachers work in the private schools. This affects the teachers' effectiveness. Firstly, they may be loaded too much as they are employed in more than one work place. Secondly, they have little time to prepare. Teachers usually think private school students*

*are better than government school students. Thus they give less attention to government school students. On the other hand some teachers attend university education in fields other than education. Such teachers intend to leave their profession upon completing their studies. Thus, this highly affects the teaching in our schools (P<sub>4</sub>).*

The other principals also replied that teachers were not obliged to remain in schools after they finish their classes and some other engagements like meetings. Thus they were able to get spare time in the work days (P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>3</sub>, and P<sub>1</sub>).

Teachers also shared similar views about teachers' engagement in the school as well as outside the school. A teacher in one of the schools said, "Teachers are engaged outside the school in different activities after finishing their class in the school. They may be engaged in: home tutoring, private school teaching, running ones shop, brokering (house, car, and machine) or taxi driving. This is due to costly life expense in the city" (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>1</sub>).

Another teacher' words showed the situation clearer. He argued:

*Teacher absenteeism in our school is frequent if not as such a big problem. A teacher who is absent is supposed to teach the class he missed after the school hour i.e. after 9:00 pm in schooldays or in the weekends. What is clearly observed is most students do not come to extra class for a number of reasons. The first one is they are not willing to attend classes after other students left the school. Secondly, there is also lack of transportation for most students. Thirdly, in the weekends parents may not allow their children to go to school in addition some students work to get their bread. In general covering missed classes is not effectively conducted (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).*

Another teacher also shared the same view. He stressed that teachers hurried to leave school campuses by quickly finishing school works like teaching classes, department meetings, and talking to students. He added if they had additional work they usually postpone it (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub>).

The secondary schools sampled for this study had a culture of strict student control. Principals and teachers were supposed to participate in managing students. One of the principals argued that his school gave attention on managing student behavior. He said:

*We focus on shaping our students' behavior. Every teacher has a responsibility to control students once in a week that means teachers are assigned on duty by turn the whole day in one of the school days. They follow up students in the school compound. In addition the vice principals will give support. Thus if students are out of their class room they are controlled either by teachers or*

*vice principals. They are supposed to be engaged in their work. Thus we try to make them engaged and focus on their lessons. We conduct monthly meeting on students' situation. The whole purpose of managing students in our school is to make them focus on their tasks and goals and make teachers free to contribute more. This has helped to sustain order in the school and things are going good. However, few teachers complain that this should not be a part of their responsibility (P<sub>4</sub>).*

Similarly, in rest of the secondary schools, teachers participated in controlling students. They checked late comer students at the school gate in the mornings, managed flag ceremony, managed students who were out of their classes and looked in to any student cases during learning hours (P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>3</sub>, P<sub>4</sub>).

Teacher participants confirmed their principals' responses with regard to student management in the secondary schools. Accordingly, teachers responded that they participated in managing students in the schools. They added they supervised students in the school campus and worked to maintain student discipline. They were responsible to handle every student case. Furthermore they were responsible to report weekly to the vice principal. The respondents also argued that there were weekly and monthly meetings on student behavior and discipline (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

The response from other principal participants also showed similar responses. The teaching learning process in the secondary schools was conducted in similar way with slight difference in their emphasis to some activities. For example, one school gave attention to student discipline (P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>4</sub>).

One of the principals said that there was a reporting system in his school. When classes were missed or not adequately covered, students, department heads and vice principal for teaching learning report to the principal. He added that the vice principal was responsible to take measures ensure classes were compensated (P<sub>2</sub>). One of the teachers said missed classes were rarely compensated because students have different engagements and do not want to come to school in their free time (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Other teachers also indicated students were assigned to follow teachers without their knowledge of being followed. The students served as followers in reporting in the school. Teachers do not know those who contact the school administration. The teacher also added that teachers were not comfortable with such a follow up behind them (TS). One principal said, "I receive



feedback for the school community through suggestion book and suggestion box. There is also monthly regular meeting of both the academic and administrative staff. The school administration receives feedback from teachers and students in person. We assess if there are gaps” (P<sub>3</sub>).

Teachers are central to teaching learning. The schools run their program throughout the year. A teacher in one of the secondary schools described the teaching in her school. She said, the principal coordinated vice principals and department heads to run the instruction. She added there was a committee known as curriculum committee that supervised the instruction process. Department heads were responsible for this committee. Department heads in turn supervised the teaching learning. When classes were missed teachers who missed the classes were responsible to compensate the classes in their free time (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, and T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>).

Meetings were a part of teachers’ activity in the teaching learning process. There were different meetings in schools. The major one is a general staff meeting which may be carried out four or five times a year. All staff members are required to attend such meetings. These meetings raise general issues that are common to all members of the school. On the other hand, meetings of work units like departments and committees are carried out with more frequency involving specific agenda to the group. Participants from the schools indicated that mostly audiences of meetings in their respective schools actively participated. They focused to some extent on educational issues. A principal of one of the schools argued that teachers actively participated in staff and departmental meetings. He said the chairperson set agenda for discussion then teachers may add what they think should be discussed. According to him there was debate in meetings the points of discussion included educational issues like student result, student behavior and school improvement (P<sub>1</sub>).

A teacher in one of the schools said, “We have scheduled meetings in our school. Department heads call teachers every week. Department heads meet every two weeks chaired by the vice principal for teaching-learning. Then the principal calls the entire staff every month. We discuss primarily the achievements achieved; problems encountered solutions given and finally the way forward (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher argued that usually

the chair of the meeting announced the point of discussions and asked if there were additional agendas. The teacher also informed that teachers were free to raise agendas that were supported by the audience. He added the issues to be discussed included student result, tutorial classes, and challenges encountered in the teaching learning (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Some teachers said that there was adequate debate in the meetings (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). However, teachers from other schools contend that meetings were dominated by few speakers. A teacher replied that his principal much of the floor and made meetings less interesting (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher also experienced similar situation. He said few people participated in meetings seemed obligation (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). It can be seen that meetings were well organized and open to teachers for discussion. Sometimes meetings were not interesting due to dominating speakers and low participation.

From the results it can be concluded that both teachers and principal participants shared the same ideas regarding the teaching learning in their respective schools. From the findings it can be concluded that the process was similarly perceived by both teachers and principals. The task of managing the teaching and learning was delegated to the curriculum committee. There was a follow up of teach both by department heads and vice principals. It seems there was attention on conducting classes. However, missed classes were not properly covered.

The sampled secondary schools managed their students with strict control. Some schools were extremely strict due the schools location exposed to drug usage around the school compound. Teachers actively participated in managing students with patrolling and closely supervising in the compound, regularly reporting and participating on meetings that discuss on the issue. It seems this was a part of their responsibility, although some teachers refused to accept this responsibility. The findings show principles that make students exercise to be led by rules and regulations and self-management was seen very low.

Meetings were well organized and open to teachers for discussion but sometimes uninteresting due to dominating speakers and low participation. Findings indicate that teachers in the secondary school were not fully engaged the whole work hours in their respective schools. They had a habit of rushing to leave the school compound just after

conducting their classes and other tasks. Teacher absenteeism was prevalent, although it was not much felt problem in the schools. Teachers were supposed to teach missed classes due to their absenteeism. However, findings showed that missed classes were not adequately compensated.

#### **4.2.2.3. Teacher job focus**

Three themes emerged under this category: Encouraging learning, teachers' satisfaction in their profession and teachers' peer learning.

##### **1. Encouraging learning**

The principals of the secondary schools argued that their schools implemented a system of motivating students to encourage them for better academic achievement. One of the principals said:

*Students who achieve high results are acknowledged by the school. Those who stand 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> in each section are given presents every semester. Female students are also given prizes in recognition to their achievement. Furthermore, those who achieve high grades in national examinations (Grade 12 school leaving examination) will be given prizes (money and other materials like bag, book) in public in the presence of school community, parents and representatives of education offices. In addition their photo and the grades they earned will be displayed on a notice board and at visible places in the school for a year (P<sub>1</sub>).*

A series of interview with the rest of the principals in the sampled secondary schools revealed that the student rewarding was the same except difference in the amount of money rewarded to students who achieved high grades in national examinations. Teachers' response on motivating students confirmed the principals' responses. They commented schools rewarded only few students and twice a year. They believed students should be followed up and rewarded for their good performance and change of behavior within a short time range.

It is possible to conclude from the result that school had a culture of rewarding their students. It is also encouraging appreciating students in recognition of their achievements in the presence of their parents and the school community. Because it creates an opportunity to supplement the schools effort by all stakeholders that greatly contribute to

students' effort. However, the rewards were only biannual which comes as a result of summative results of students. Reward which takes into consideration the ongoing achievement of students may help students focus on learning.

## **2. Teachers' satisfaction in their profession**

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Javed, Balouch, Hassan, 2014). Currently, ensuring employees' job satisfaction is emphasized as one of the most important duties that should be handled by those who lead organizations (Aydin, Sarier and Uysal, 2013).

Principal participants all agree that teachers were not satisfied with their profession. They give different reasons for this phenomenon. They attempted to treat their teachers and tolerate the situation. This was evidenced in their responses. One of the principals said, that "Teachers are not satisfied of their profession. They usually complain the low amount of salary they receive and the high cost of living. In addition they compare their income with their counterparts in other organizations. The majority of teachers rent privately owned houses in which they pay more than half of their salary" (P<sub>1</sub>).

Another principal believed that teachers remained in the profession because they did not have any other alternative. He added however, there were some teachers who loved their profession and were committed (P<sub>2</sub>). Another school principal added teachers complained some students behaved in a different way and a considerable number of them lacked interest to learn. In relation to high living expense this principal observed mixed feeling among teachers. This was due to government provision of low cost public houses to some teachers. He argued that teachers commented on the housing program by saying in Ethiopian expression "lij and injera lij" in Amharic which means 'a child with biological parents and the other with step parents. This participant also shared his perception that despite teachers were not satisfied with their profession they loved their school. Teacher who applied to leave this school or transfer to other school were handful (P<sub>3</sub>). The other principal also share the same perception. He said, "Although teachers disliked being a teacher, they are happy with our school. The school compound is clean and well

organized. We are all friends. Thus, they leave everything behind and focus on their work” (P<sub>4</sub>).

Teacher participants for this study, on their part believed teachers in secondary schools were not satisfied with their profession. They mainly attributed the situation with low income (unable to live in the city with the salary they receive) and low status given by the society for teachers. Teachers’ response confirmed the principals’ response (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). A teacher argued that teachers who were satisfied in their profession were very few in number. He said it was because their salary was very low to cover the living expense and the low status given by the society. He said ironically “Survival precedes profession” (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). Another informant agreed with this response and added that in particular young teachers were very dissatisfied (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>).

Teachers’ dissatisfaction with their profession seems to be perceived by the majority of the participants. A teacher in one of the secondary schools said, “It was long ago that the profession lost its taste. Teachers are not satisfied” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher argued, “You cannot get a teacher with a good sense of his profession. Ah...h...h..., let alone being satisfied, they do not want to be identified as teachers (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher supported the above response. He said teachers complained they received the same degree from same university but were entitled to too different payment with difficult job. He also added the students they taught did not have interest to learn (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). In addition, “Only a portion of the teacher population was fortunate enough to get low cost government house (800 ETB per month) whereas others subjected to high pay as high as, 3500 per month, with low quality and far from center that increases transport cost and the time to get to schools on time (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher added the salary for experienced and seasoned teachers was the same sometimes lower than newly employed teachers. He added my student might get better salary than me if he would have joined just recently. He also indicated no value was given to serving and being within the profession (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). However, another teacher’s response indicated the teachers’ extreme dissatisfaction. The respondent teacher said, “We teachers have a myriad of problems. We are struggling to sustain our life. ‘Survival precedes profession’. You need to live first to think about an abstract higher thinking issue like profession and career growth (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>).

Although a great majority of the teacher respondents attempted to justify the lack of teachers' pride in their profession, some teachers responded that few teachers loved their profession amidst a vast dissatisfaction. One teacher said some teachers were proud of being teacher because they felt they were helping their students. In addition, they said they liked their school environment and the social interaction with their colleagues in the school and outside (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>3</sub>).

From the result it can be concluded that the majority of secondary school teachers were not satisfied in their profession. The reasons for this phenomenon included: low payment, low student interest to learn and limited provision of government houses as the private house rent was so expensive. On the other hand small numbers of teachers have positive attitude of being teachers because they were happy with the social interaction in their schools and they feel they were helping students.

### **3. Teacher peer learning**

Peer collaboration has the potential of transforming teaching practices in ways that will bring about higher rates of student achievement. Teachers and administrators continuously should seek and share information and act on what they have learned. All of their efforts concentrated on improving their practice so that students can achieve the best possible results (Riveros, Newton and Burgess, 2012). A teacher's own performance is affected by the quality of her peers. In particular, changes in the quality of a teacher's colleagues (all other teachers in the same school who teach students in the same grade) are associated with changes in her students' test score gains (Jackson and Bruegmann, 2009). There are different programs for teachers to learn each other at school level which are useful to grow professionally and solve problems that arise at the work place.

Principals of secondary schools argued that there were programs for teachers to learn from each other. The programs were not attached to performance evaluation. They were designed for work place learning exercises that would enhance teachers' capacity in their effort to teach students better. However, teachers' interest to learn from their colleagues remained low. This was because teachers have low attitude on the programs to learn from each other.

One of the principals said his school runs in-school supervision and continuous professional development programs to make teachers learn each other. He added however, the culture of learning from peer was not much effective (P<sub>1</sub>). Another principal said these programs were not strong (P<sub>2</sub>). In another school, in addition to peer learning programs there was experience sharing forums to bring teachers together; however, teachers were less interested and believed the programs will not have substantial impact in their practice (P<sub>3</sub>). “Although teachers have good social interaction, they are unlikely to collaborate in learning each other. They do not comment each other on professional issues particularly in peer class observations. They think peers add no more to them”. (P<sub>4</sub>).

All teachers shared the same responses as the principals. The following responses from teacher participants showed the shared perceptions and added specific information on the issue. A teacher from one of the schools said there were plans for peer learning for teachers. “We discuss on different educational issues. There is also group work of five members. However, it is not properly carried out. I can say it is nominal, conducted only for the sake of formality” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). Another teacher said, “We have peer observation in classes. A teacher observes his colleague and is supposed to comment, learn and conduct professional dialogue and reach consensus. Its purpose is gaining experience. However, it is not effective; it is merely a response to work requirement” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher argued that teachers do not expect much from their peers. The program was not related to performance appraisal. Teachers were reluctant to comment other teachers (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

From the result it can be concluded that secondary schools had professional learning programs for teachers to learn each other. These programs included: discussions on educational issues, group work and peer observation. However, the programs did not receive due attention from teachers. The programs were conducted for the sake of reporting. Experience sharing and learning form colleague was not valued in the secondary schools.

#### **4.2.2.4. Principal role**

Under this category four themes emerged: principal behavior, school condition, principal

influence and principal and teacher expectation from students. Principal behavior theme described the principals' interaction with teachers with specific focus either on the job or on the teachers. School condition is about the pressure the school may face from external forces. On the other hand principal influence referred to the principals' relationship with teachers and his superiors. Principals set high expectation from teachers. Similarly teachers have high expectation from their students.

### **1. Principal behavior**

Principals are expected to have positive and healthy relationship with whom they lead in the school. One of the themes under the major theme of organizational health of schools was principal behavior. Both principals and teachers argued that they had good human relationship with each other. This indicated there was consideration on the part of the principals. In addition, both participants said the principals set work schedule and explained the standards to be met.

One of the principals said he had good relationship with most of the teachers and all administration workers. He also added he shared social events with teachers in the school and outside the school like at teachers' home. He confidently expresses that he enjoyed his relationship with his teachers (P<sub>3</sub>). Another principal said he was very friendly with his staff. He had respect for all teachers and told he treated them equally. He perceived them as supporting him to the best of their ability. As a result he said he was always ready to cooperate in any of their request including personal issues (P<sub>2</sub>). The other principals also argued that they maintained good human relationship with their staff. However, they mentioned there were few teachers who were dissatisfied and were not willing to have healthy relationship with principals (P<sub>1</sub>P<sub>4</sub>). All principals responded they coordinated their work through vice principals and department heads. They added they frequently explained the expectation from teachers, set schedule for every activity and monitored closely.

Teacher participants also explained their perception on the behavior of their principals. Almost all teachers argued that their principals were respectful, easy to approach, sociable, open and cooperative. They also added teachers mostly communicated with



department heads and less frequently with vice principals. They argued their principals talked mostly about standards and expectations during staff meeting. They added they were able to communicate with their principals in the school anytime they needed to do so.

From the result it can be concluded that principals were considerate enough to their teachers showing good human relationship with the staff. It was an ideal relationship for school environment that demands collegiality at large. However, the relationship with regard to their work seems much delegated to the department heads which was indicated by less frequent interaction with the principal.

## **2. School condition**

One of the themes that emerged was school condition. Principals and teachers perceived their schools as free from external pressure. A principal from one of the secondary schools said the following: “There is no external pressure that potentially disrupts the teaching learning process in our school. Most parents have good attitude towards the school. The policy environment is also good for schools” (P<sub>2</sub>). Another principal argued that his school was free from external pressure that might have affected the operation of the school. He added also they implemented policies by adapting to their situation (P<sub>3</sub>). The rest of the principals also believed that their schools were free from undue pressure from the external environment except some few influences due to presence of ‘Chat houses’ and drug use among few students (P<sub>1</sub>P<sub>4</sub>).

Teachers had similar response with principal participants. All teacher informants, except some in school 4, responded that their schools were free from external pressure that potentially affected the teaching and learning. They explained they worked in total freedom and were happy with their schools. Some teachers said the presence of ‘Chat houses’ around their school to some extent affected students in their learning. They argued their school was working on this specific issue (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

With regard to resource availability in the schools, the respondents indicated about the adequacy of resource. School principals argued that their schools possessed adequate

resource for the current operation of their schools. However, they suggest some resources still remain to be supplied (P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>3</sub> and P<sub>4</sub>). For instance, a principal said his school needs some physics laboratory materials (P<sub>1</sub>).

Teachers on their part said that their schools had adequate resource for conducting their work. They still suggest there was much to be supplied for better performance and to contribute for quality education. A teacher from one of the schools said, “Some departments have no offices, there is lack of computer for teachers and chairs in the classrooms” (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher replied that materials for practical works and sports fields were inadequate” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). In support of this idea a teachers said that there was only one computer for seven teachers in his school. They also added many teachers shared single department office (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub>).

From the result it can be concluded that principals and teachers perceived their schools were relatively free from external pressure. They argued the schools’ operations were smoothly carried out and with no disruption. The resource allocated for them were reported to be sufficient to run their programs. However, the findings show the resource supply for the schools needs to be increased for improvement and ensuring quality education. However, the respondents did not consider the economic situation of teachers as external pressure. Under the theme of “Teachers’ satisfaction in their profession” it was reported that teachers were dissatisfied with low payment and were subjected to various private engagements to get extra income. Teachers’ income was even low to survive due to high cost of living. This factor has caused teachers not to spend much time in school working with all their energy and attention to their schools, helping students and improving the instruction.

### **3. Principal influence**

All principals of the secondary schools claimed they were influential in their respective schools. They argue they influenced their superiors too. They added they attempted to implement all activities in accordance with principle and standards set by the ministry of education. Furthermore, the principals argued they treated every teacher and employee with dignity and respect, facilitated healthy relationship among their staff, run capacity

building programs, participated teachers in decision making and conducted evaluation based on data and evidence.

The principals also argued they influenced their superiors (leaders in sub-city education office). One of the principals said:

*The school management has good relationship with the sub-city education department and Addis Ababa education bureau. I am able to get what is needed for my school. As an illustration, a year before there was restriction that prohibited schools to purchase any material at school level. However, I was able to convince my superiors and purchased different materials with the schools budget even in such restriction. I have very good relationship with my superiors. This is because we have similar background as teachers and educational leaders (P<sub>2</sub>).*

Another principal also argued he enjoyed good relationship with his superiors and influenced them. He said that he could get what he asked for his school. He added his recommendations and ideas were well accepted by the education offices. He believed this was achieved because he worked with many of the offices and developed common understanding (P<sub>4</sub>). Another principal also claimed to have good relationship with his superiors and influenced them to get what he needs for his school. He said he is accepted by them. According to him the reason for this relationship was the supervisors visited the school frequently and supported the school professionally (P<sub>3</sub>).

Most teachers responded that their principals influenced teachers and administrative workers in their school as well as their superiors. They added they worked with the staff in harmony and were able to get the support of sub-city education office timely (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). On the other hand, some teachers disagreed with their colleagues. Teachers from two schools said their principals did not have much influence on their superiors. They added the responses for requests and resources allocated for their school from the sub-city education office often delayed. In addition, they remembered when there was shortage of teacher the offices did not acted on time. They commented if the principals had influence, they could have obtained what they needed (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub> and T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). Another teacher said he had on any information what his principal is doing with his superiors (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). A teacher from another school also shared the same response (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>).

From the result one can conclude that the principals had good relationship with their superiors.

#### **4. Principal and Teacher expectation from students**

Principals and teachers do not have high expectation in the success of all their students. They said there were few or hand full students who were hardworking and scored extraordinary results and expected half of their students to score high grades and join university. They added a considerable amount might not succeed. Principals argued that there was much opportunity for the students to succeed and join university because the teaching learning was organized and coordinated in the schools and there were different programs like tutorial classes, worksheets, continuous assessments and library with sufficient collection. Despite all favorable conditions, principals estimated considerable amount of students would not succeed because of lack of interest in their education. They said this might be due to opportunity for higher education or employment prospects (P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>3</sub> and P<sub>4</sub>).

Teachers claimed that they exerted effort to make their students successful. However, they did not expect that all of their students would succeed. They forward lack of interest for learning on the part of students and lack of vision as the main reasons that affected student success. A teacher said he encountered only few students asked for additional task (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Another teacher in one of the schools, while talking about her expectation from students attested that about sixty per cent would succeed. She further explained a considerable number of students in school did not pay attention for their education. She added they said university graduates worked ordinary jobs (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>1</sub>). Other teacher participants estimated about fifty percent of their students would strive to join university. They added the other half would not want to spend more years on education and wanted immediate employment that would make them in a good financial position (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Another teacher said, “Many students do not have interest in their learning. I estimate thirty to forty percent of our students do not have interest. When teachers advise them they do not listen. They want to complete their secondary education and plan to start some work (T<sub>4</sub>S<sub>3</sub>). “Some students do not even know why they came to school” (T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>4</sub>).

From the result it can be concluded that the school did not set high expectation from each student. Some students did not set higher goal and vision. In addition teachers are working cognizant of the fact that even a considerable number of students would be failures and not motivated. Thus, teachers and principals were not working towards increasing students' awareness on their future to make them motivated and have positive attitude towards learning.

### **4.2.3. Factors for the current leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools**

The respondents, both principals and teachers, in the interview indicated factors that contributed for and affected the current leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of their schools. The factors were presented in themes in the section that follows.

#### **4.2.3.1. Contributing factors**

Principals and teachers, in their response to interview questions, identified a number of factors that they perceived as having positive impact on the existing principal leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools. The factors identified included: Principals' characteristics and experience; human relation among the staff, superiors and parents; and emphasis on student behavior.

#### **1. Principals' characteristics and experience**

The personal characteristics of the secondary school principals were perceived as a positive element for the well-functioning of the school by both participants. All principals who participated in the interview self-observed themselves as: respectful, good listener, friendly and engaged in their work most of the time. They believed they were close to the staff, have good knowledge of the school and confident in their leadership. They also argued they had good relationship with teachers except few they claimed to understand them even then. In addition they considered their long stay in their respective schools and service at different positions in the school (as teacher and vice principal) as fertile

opportunity to have good understanding of the school and the staff. One of the principal said:

*I was a mathematics teacher before assuming the principal's office for three years and vice principal for a year in this school. I have a friendly relationship with most of the teachers and sub-city education officers (whom some of them were here). I know personally most of the teachers and the interaction and behavior of the majority staff. In addition, I prefer to be peaceful with anyone as much as possible. My principle is 'People are good if you offer something good'. Besides the teaching learning demands the utmost understanding to make teachers committed and do responsibly their work. Thus, I believe common understanding and mutual trust is the cornerstones in leading a school community (P<sub>4</sub>).*

Other principals, although with varying degree, agreed that teachers needed good human relation and support from their principals. They argued that they discussed all issues with teachers before making decisions. They also said they mostly involved department heads and vice principals when issues arise that involved teachers (E.g. Conflict with teachers, disciplinary issues).

The principals' self-reported response was supported by teacher respondents. A teacher from one of the high schools admired his principal on his effort to build friendly relationship even with some dissatisfied teachers. He said, "I appreciate the principal's patience. He gives a great deal of chance for teachers to correct themselves. And he acknowledges the committed ones. He is with us in the department, staff room and in the compound and sometimes playing tennis table in the lounge (T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>). Other teachers also rated high the friendliness, openness and sympathetic nature of their principals (T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>S<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>). However, they also added principals took administrative measures on teachers who may follow hard relationship after a series of discussions to restore positive relationship and make teachers to comply with the rules and norms.

It can be seen from the result that the principals of secondary schools knew the school and the staff as a result of their stay in the school. In addition it seems their personal characteristics helped them to be accepted by the majority of their staff. Thus, their effort to build smooth relationship and care for teachers helped them for their leadership.

In summary personal behavior, experience and conceptual skill of the principals is crucial to the secondary schools. It helps them to influence their staff. In addition this is a precondition for building positive culture. The acceptance of leaders by followers would help to enhance leader influence which is also an important aspect of organizational health. As the quantitative data indicated leadership, school culture and organizational health showed moderate results. In addition, in spite of principals' positive personal behavior and detail knowledge of the school and environment the qualitative results showed principals' modeling, teacher peer learning, instilling school vision, challenging school process and motivating students remained low. Thus, the principals need to make use of their acceptance to improve their schools' performance.

## **2. Human relation among the staff, superiors and parents**

Human relationship in any organization is an essential element in all organizations. People need to interact with each other in the process of achieving their organizational goal through group effort. This is important to schools since they deal with people at a large scale.

In the secondary schools under study both the principals and teachers claimed to have healthy human relationship among their respective staff. All principals said the majority of their teachers enjoyed friendly, respectful and trustful relationship. They argued teachers cared one for another and gave value for social interaction. One of the principals said, "Teachers' have fellow feeling and became more responsive when social and personal problems like health problems, family problems arise. They are also active participant in situations like, wedding, graduation or in 'get together' events" (P<sub>1</sub>). The rest of the principals also responded that their staff enjoyed good social interrelationship. They said they observed it was positive although only few teachers aloof themselves from such interaction. They also added teachers with many years of teaching service enjoyed social interrelationship than new or teachers with few years of service (P<sub>2</sub>, P<sub>3</sub>, P<sub>4</sub>).

The majority of teachers shared the responses given by the principals. They said they have established a 'social committee' that coordinates the social affairs. It was managed by teachers who were selected from among the staff. They contributed some amount

monthly. At some instances they increased money contribution depending on the programs they had or the seriousness of some problems. All the respondents argued they enjoyed positive relationship, support from sub-city education offices and student parents and claimed that was helpful for their schools.

In summary the responses given by informants might contribute for leadership, school culture and organizational health of the schools. Positive relationship is essential for leaders to influence their employees. Hence principals in secondary schools may take this favorable situation to improve and transform their schools. In addition this situation is helpful to foster teacher cooperation, collaboration and professional development. It is also a vital condition for the organizational health since principal influence is facilitated.

### **3. Emphasis on student behavior**

Principals and teachers responded their schools were working consistently focusing on student discipline and making them engaged in their study. All principals responded that they organized teachers in the control of students in the school campus. Teachers have responsibility to supervise students being assigned one day in a week. They were required to be on duty and report situation on student behavior. Principals claimed this program helped to manage the school activity and facilitated the teaching learning process.

Teachers also confirmed that they were required to be a part of student control in the school compound. Some teachers were reported to refuse to accept this as their regular responsibility. The emphasis on student behavior through strict control might have helped the school to manage students.

#### **4.2.3.2. Hindering factors**

Participant in the secondary schools identified factors that impeded the school in relation to the variables under study. Teacher dissatisfaction, Students' lack of interest to learn and Lack of resource were the factors that were claimed by the respondents affecting the schools leadership, school culture and organizational health.



## **1. Teacher dissatisfaction**

Principals and teachers unanimously indicated teacher dissatisfaction as the major factor affecting the education system and schools in particular primarily due to low income. Teachers bitterly complain the extremely high cost of living in the city which they could not afford. Their salary was quite small unable to cover the basic needs. Teachers are compelled to look for other sources of income to survive. Consequently, teachers give home tutor service; teach in private schools and colleges to supplement their salary. They live in a low socio-economic situation. Others struggle by attending higher education with better opportunity of employment in which they aspire to leave the profession for good in the near future. There are also teachers who were reported to be engaged in taxi driving, running small village shops and other private jobs. They either look for any job or run hunting cheap services.

The respondents acknowledge efforts by the government in improving the pay scale for teachers and providing low cost house. But the majority of teachers still remain waiting the opportunity to come. Teachers experience mixed emotions. Even teachers are lucky to possess relatively affordable public houses; the pain on their fellows is easy to feel.

This factor affects every aspect of the school. Leaders may be in trouble to influence dissatisfied follower. Besides it will affect culture building. The organizational health of the school is affected because it cannot cope up with its external environment. The school is expected to fulfill its purpose by actively performing its activities. Thus the principals should support teachers emotionally and also look for alternative solution with the ministry of education and other stakeholders.

## **2. Students' lack of interest to learn**

Teachers are also not fully satisfied with their students. Principals and teachers indicated a considerable number of students loose interest to learn. They argued as having a divided student population. Some students work hard to realize their dreams. Others just enjoy their stay at school as recreation, simply coming to schools spending the time.

Teachers responded that these types of students are considerable in number and aim at only completing secondary education.

The very existence of the school is highly attached to students. The school should serve every child and beyond. Its influence should echo to the community. It seems this factor is outcome of pitfall from school leadership and absence of strong positive culture.

### **3. Lack of resource**

Schools were reported to possess adequate resources for their normal operation. However, participants of this study indicated lack of some resource for doing their task in a better way and to improve quality. Teachers indicated lack of teachers' rooms, department offices and computers. In some of the schools, four to seven teachers shared a single computer. In addition, students shared one computer for three and two in information communication technology laboratories. Furthermore, large class size is also common. A teacher from one of the schools said she taught seventy-five students in one of her classes. Lack of school resources affects their efforts to improve performance.

#### **4.2.4. Data from documents**

This involved document analysis in addition to interview of participants to generate qualitative data. Accordingly, documents pertinent to the research were identified by considering their relevance. To this end, Education and training policy of Ethiopia, school improvement program for schools and school plans were analyzed. The Education and training policy that was endorsed in 1994 was a policy document that evaluated the past problem of the education system and attempted to give solution for educational problems.

The policy in its introduction gives high emphasis for individual development. It states education should work to develop problem solving capacity of citizens. Accordingly, the acquisition of scientific knowledge, developing teachers' capacity and improving infrastructure and resource were emphasized. In addition the policy stresses on the participation of different parties in the education and management of the education sector. The objectives of the policy also envision bringing up citizens that participate in

the development of the nation. All these points can be taken as strong sides of the document. On the other side with a close examination, it can be seen the policy concentrating on the organization and management of educational institutions than leadership. The policy strategy under the theme ‘organization and management’ stipulates issues like institutional autonomy, coordinated and democratic management (MoE, 1994). However, it does not delegate the leadership role to the heads of educational institutions. School principals are heads to many teachers. They are also responsible for the physical, intellectual, social and moral development of the society’s young people. Besides, principals are given the responsibility of working with community and a range of stakeholders.

In addition to the national education policy documents from two secondary schools among sample schools were analyzed. School improvement program was launched as part of the general education quality assurance effort in primary and secondary schools. This program is guided by a document that provides focus points and standards for schools. It presents four domains namely: teaching and learning, safe and healthy environment, leadership and community participation. The main issue in the program was self-evaluation of schools in the four domains. It is based on quantification of activities and giving rank to schools (MoE, 2012). The link between school improvement activities and changes in student result were not well defined. However, it engages teachers in school functions. School culture and organizational health elements were not clearly seen. The tasks are given to the vice principal. The role of the principal was overall supervision and support. Thus, it seems the principal was not directly involved in the improvement program.

Schools were expected to prepare a three year strategic plan and yearly plan. They were given framework from city administration education bureau and sub-city education office. They were expected to include; preplan preparation, organizing education teams, core education activities like teaching and learning, ensuring equity, improving internal capacity, improving quality, cross cutting issues like civics and gender issue, support and monitoring, and focus of the future. Most activities in the plans were routine and managerial. For instance under the item ‘teaching learning’, sub item ‘curriculum’ the

principal plans on the distribution of textbooks on the basis of student number or ratio. In addition on issues of creating favorable condition in the school, the plans indicated supplying inputs for teaching learning and repairing venues. This indicates school principals were focusing on managerial issues.

In the presentations and analysis from quantitative and qualitative data, the research came up with findings in line with the objectives of the study. In the next section, the findings will be compared with previous research works by integrating the two data sets.

### **4.3. Discussion of results from the two data sets**

This study set out to explore the school principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools and their relationship. In studying these variables the results from quantitative and qualitative data sets were presented separately in the preceding sections. This section attempted to integrate the results from the two data sets.

The results obtained are discussed in the light of previous studies. In this discussion the results about leadership practice of school principals, school culture are discussed followed by the discussion of the results concerning the organizational health of schools. Then, the result on the relationship among the three variables is discussed.

#### **4.3.1. Leadership practice, school culture and organizational health and demographic variables**

This study attempted to examine if demographic variables had effect on leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools. Accordingly, age and service year of teacher respondents were found to be statistically significantly related to school culture. The other two variables were not significantly related. The result with the effect of age was in line with the findings of Jackalas, Martins and Ungerer. These researchers found that age of employees impacted school culture in health insurance company in Botswana (Jackalas, Martins and Ungerer 2016).

Other studies reported a different finding than the present study. With respect to culture, using Hofstede's culture model and demographics in a sample from the film industry,

Peterson (2014) found that age and years of experience had no effect on the participant response. Similarly, El Badawy, Trujillo-Reyes, and Magdy (2017) found age and years of service of employees had no effect on school culture in private service and manufacturing organizations in Egypt and Mexico.

#### **4.3.2. School leadership practice**

The quantitative part of this research used 'leadership practices inventory' observer with a ten point scale that ranged from '1' 'Almost never' to '10' 'Always' to measure the school principals' leadership practice. This survey was used to measure the leadership practice of school principals as perceived by teachers. According to (Kouzes and Posner, 2002) leaders who implemented these practices at a higher rate are effective in achieving their goals making their organizations successful. The quantitative results showed that teachers rated their principals overall leadership practice to be 5.79 mean value with standard deviation 1.45. This value depicted that principals were practicing leadership at a moderate level (a little above the mean value 5.5) which indicated the principals were not effective in their leadership.

Regarding the principals' leadership with respect to the five leadership dimensions 'Enable others to act' is practiced with the mean value 6.03 (the most practiced sub-scale than the rest of the practices). 'Enable others to act' referred to the principals' role of fostering collaboration, facilitating relationships, and developing competence. 'Model the way' was the second most practiced role of principals with mean value 5.87. In modeling principals are expected to set example by aligning their actions, asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance, give clear direction. 'Encourage the heart' was rated 5.79. On the other hand 'Inspire share vision' and 'Challenge the process' were the least practiced practices mean value (5.68 and 5.59) respectively. To practice 'Inspire share vision' leaders are expected to makes followers imagine exciting and enabling possibilities, and enlist them in a common vision. On the other hand, they need to 'challenge the process' by looking outward for innovative ways to improve, and experiment and take risks (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

The qualitative data analysis in general resulted in twelve themes within four categories. The first category being 'School leadership practice' included the themes: Principals personal characteristics, sharing vision, developing cooperation, encouraging teachers and dealing with challenges.

A principal personal characteristic was one of the themes. Teacher participants identified which they perceived exemplary leadership practices of their leaders. The principals also expressed their self-perception they thought is exemplary to teachers. A principal said he was often working with members of the school and discussed with those who were supposed to be a part of a certain issue and he liked most this approach. Another principal said, "I lead by participating others. I do not want to command others. Rather I do things by working with them. Often I start some job and make teachers or administration workers to follow". In addition teachers perceived their principals as punctual, committed, motivated, good listener, sociable, cooperative and not focused on their own personal respect and believed these characteristics to be taken as models by teachers. In support of this idea a teacher said, "Our principal is sociable and easy to approach. He encourages teachers and workers to work responsibly. He is punctual and duty minded. He is ready to listen to everyone".

Teachers believed their principals were exemplary in their social relation and task oriented behavior to the staff. In addition, teacher participants perceived their principals as supportive. A teacher argued that his principal was cooperative and helpful during his contact with him in different occasions and also saw him working with other teachers too cooperatively. Another teacher said, "My principal is very polite and willing to listen to people. He listens to people anytime anywhere. If someone contacts him with some difficulty he will solve the problem at hand or accept the idea. Another teacher from the same school said her principal was a person with positive attitude to people and had a very good relationship with teachers. This respondent believed, in this way the principal set the stage for common understanding. Another teacher said the principal cared for teachers and facilitated their classes by preparing them to conduct their classes with responsibility. Another teacher said that his principal had good relationship with teachers.

When teachers face personal problems he visits them in school or even at their home and was keen to take necessary measures.

In general, the principals' and teachers' perception on leadership practices identified as exemplary for staff coincided and found to be personal characteristics and positive social relations. However, it can be seen that principals leadership practices related to professional and technical issues were barely mentioned.

The second theme was 'sharing vision'. Principal respondents argued that in their respective secondary schools they attempted to make their staff internalize the vision of the school in some occasions and by making the vision to be displayed in the school compound for the school community. Vision sharing in the secondary schools was conducted during school planning, at school and department level; during staff meetings and during performance evaluation programs. In the schools the process of school development starts with clarifying the vision of the school. In addition, the school vision was explained to teachers, administrative workers, parents, community representatives and students at the beginning of each academic year on a general staff meeting. One teacher remembered the way his school vision was shared. "...The school vision was explained at the beginning and the middle of the year in some sentences. That is it. No one bothers about the vision after that". A teacher argued that people in the school gave little attention for the vision. A principal also noticed that there was no any survey or other means used to evaluate if people in the school understood and internalized the school vision.

The third theme was encouraging teachers. In encouraging the staff, secondary school principals argued that they employed verbal and financial rewards to encourage teachers in recognition to their high performance in their school. They appreciated teachers in person as well as in public for their good deeds. They also coordinated a formal process of selecting and rewarding the best performing teachers at a department and school level. However, it seems the selection of teachers was restricted to one teacher from a department. The procedure of selection was similar across schools. Teachers who passed through a series of evaluations from each department will be selected as best performers.

The winners will be given monetary incentives and certificates at the end of the academic year.

The process of selecting best performer teachers was reported to be transparent and a formal procedure. The school administration facilitated the participation of teachers in the process. Teachers' representatives observed the process. If teachers have compliant, they can appeal at any stage of the process. Sometimes teachers complained on the committee that selects teachers to be rewarded. There were instances the committee changed its decisions. Teachers and principals had expressed their worry that it may disappoint other teachers. Those who deserve to be acknowledged may not get the chance may not be included. Some respondents disclosed there were complaints by teachers. They said that they heard same teachers were repeatedly rewarded and principals attempted to influence the process.

The last theme in this category was 'dealing with challenges'. A teacher said, "When challenges are faced in our school there will be discussion at the department or committee level. If it is not solved we refer it to the principals, primarily to the vice principal". This seems to be a trend in the school problem solving procedure. Principal respondents also shared this response. According to them, when secondary schools faced challenges they held discussions on how to tackle them generated alternatives and solutions to solve the problems. They also asked the support of superiors. Sometimes schools encountered problems that could not be treated with the already established procedures. In such occasions principals made decisions to solve the problems and run the teaching learning process without disruption.

Challenges dealt by principals were administrative in nature (like procuring, maintenance). Principals and teachers did not indicate challenges related with teaching and learning. In addition, the school did not challenge teachers to make changes in their work.

As the thematic analysis of the qualitative data shows principals were largely exemplary to their teachers in their personal characteristics than in professional areas particularly in teaching. Furthermore, they shared the school vision occasionally and not in a rigorous



way. It seems the school community did not internalize the vision and inspired to commit to its realization. On the other hand school principals took collective responsibility to tackle challenges by discussing with their deputies and teachers. They mostly attempted to tackle administrative challenges and also sought superior support when they could not deal with challenges. In addition, principals were perceived by their teachers as cooperative and friendly with attitude of positive human relation and supportive to teachers when personal problems arise. They employed verbal and financial rewards to encourage teachers. They also coordinated a formal process of selecting and rewarding the best performing teachers which was characterized by a series of procedures, limited to a small number and source of conflict in some cases.

Generally, the results from the qualitative analysis of the principal leadership practice did not show high performance of principals in their leadership except they were seen very positive in their human relations and support. The quantitative results showed that the principals' leadership practices to be moderate. In addition, principals performed limited amount of practices which did not indicate the effectiveness of principals. Thus, it can be seen that the two sets of data, the quantitative and qualitative, gave similar results on the variable principals' leadership practices.

The themes from the qualitative and quantitative analysis showed some congruence. Accordingly, Modeling the Way Vs., Principals as examples; inspiring a shared vision Vs., sharing school vision; challenging the process Vs., dealing with challenges; encouraging the heart Vs. encouraging teachers showed similarity. However, the qualitative themes explained a portion of the quantitative themes. For instance principals as examples only showed the personal characteristics of principals and their positive relationship with others. On the other hand modeling the way, a theme, from the quantitative data included "Leaders clarify values by finding their voice and affirming shared values, and they set the example by aligning their actions with the shared values". In addition it included: setting a personal example of what he expects of others, spending time and energy making certain that the people he work with adhere to the principles and standards, following through on promises, commitments that he makes asking for feedback on how

his actions affect other people's performance, and building consensus around a common set of values for running organization, and is clear about his philosophy of leadership.

Likewise, inspiring sharing school vision in the quantitative data mainly focused on the principal's role in illuminating an exciting future image of the school and inspiring the school community towards realizing the vision. The theme Shared Vision in the qualitative analysis as viewed by the respondents elicited an act of recollecting the vision not vigorously acting to reinforce the school vision. The rest of the themes also had a slight similarity with the points in the quantitative themes. The quantitative results showed mediocre results and the qualitative themes indicated few professional roles by the principals. Thus it shows both instruments gave somehow similar results.

The results from the quantitative research on leadership practices were compared with previous research works by different authors. Mitiku and Mitiku (2017) in their study on Practices and Challenges of Leadership in Oromia Regional State (Ethiopia) Colleges of Teacher Education reported that college deans were perceived as practicing Kouzes and Posner leadership practice moderately. In a study on Principal Leadership Practices, Teacher Motivation, and Student Achievement in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City, the leadership practice of general secondary school principals was found to be a little bit higher the total means value (Shimelis, 2017). Similarly, Mekonnen (2020) found that leadership practices to be practiced at a moderate level in secondary schools of East Wollega Zone, Oromia Regional State. Moreover, Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Al-Omari (2008) reported that Kouzes and Posner leadership practice were moderately practiced in Jordanian basic and high schools. Contrary to this, Sidaoui (2007) found the leadership practices of deans of United Arab Emirates public universities to be ( $M = 7.6$ ,  $SD = 0.9$ ) in LPI scale, which is higher performance.

The findings of this study also revealed that principals in secondary schools of Addis Ababa city practiced the five leadership practices of Kouzes and Posner (Modeling the Way, Inspiring a shared Vision, Challenging the Process, Enabling others to Act, and Encouraging the Heart). The mean value for each of the dimensions of leadership practices ranged from 5.59 for Challenging the Process to 6.05 for Enabling Others to Act on a 10 point Likert rating scale which shows that respondents agreed with

“Occasionally” or “Sometimes” choices in the survey. This shows that the principals were practicing at a moderate level. This result corroborate with Mitiku and Mitiku’s (2017) finding that deans of Oromia teacher education colleges were found to practice the five leadership practices at a moderate level. The mean values were just above the expected mean.

Regarding the leadership practice of school principals in Addis Ababa secondary schools with respect to the five dimensions of LPI, they were practicing Enabling others to act more than the other practices (M = 6.03) followed by model the way (M = 5.87). This result was consistent with Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Al-Omari’s (2008) study that found highest mean for principals’ leadership practice inventory scores in Jordanian schools for enabling others to act. This result is also in line with Sidaoui’s (2007) finding who found the leadership practices of deans of United Arab Emirates public universities mean value to be (M = 8.4) for Enable Others To Act followed by Modeling the way (M = 7.8). Similarly Sawie’s (2013) study reported that both managers and employees gave highest scores to the managers’ leadership practices of “Enabling Others to Act” and “Encouraging the Heart.” Howard’s (2004) study in public elementary schools in state of Michigan, USA showed the highest mean score of 7.426 in the sub-scale Enabling others to Act, closely followed by Modeling the Way (M=7.08).

Another finding of this study was that ‘challenging the process’ leadership practice had the lowest mean score of 5.59 with Standard Deviation 1.52. The lowest means were for Inspiring a Shared Meaning vision (M=6.60) and Challenging the Process (M = 6.58). The finding of this study was in agreement with Sawie’s (2013) study in which both managers and employees gave their lowest scores on the managers’ leadership practices of “inspiring a shared vision” and ‘challenging the process’. in Yemeni governmental and financial audit organizations. In Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Al-Omari’s (2008) study ‘challenging the process’ and ‘inspiring a shared vision’ were the least rated leadership practices in Jordan schools as perceived by teachers.

Enabling others to act sub-scale indicate that participants felt their leaders enabled or allowed them to develop cooperative relationships, demonstrate active listening, and consider varying points of view. Based on their responses teachers felt that leaders

supported their decisions, allowed choices about how to work, encouraged individuals to develop new skills, and treated them respectfully and with dignity. Teacher's beliefs represented in modeling the Way demonstrated that leaders set clear goals, divided tasks into smaller milestones, and practiced his or her beliefs (Kouzes and Posner, 1995).

Turan and Bektas (2013) found positive and significant relationships were found between the scores of school culture and leadership practices of teachers in primary schools in the central districts of the province of Erzurum, Turkey. The multivariate linear regression analysis results showed that leadership practice explained 28 percent of the variance of school culture.

The results of the qualitative analysis on leadership practice of school principals were compared to previous studies. The present study found that principals were perceived to possess positive human relationship with the school community and personal characteristics like: participative, initiator, committed, motivated, good listener, sociable and supportive. Steyn (2014) in a case study of successful principalship in South Africa reported a principal as having a positive attitude towards his staff. "The principal was 'very people oriented' with 'a compassion for people.'" (p. 352). The principal committed himself to make others happy which helped him to influence others in collegial approach. This behavior was in line with the principals characteristics in the sampled secondary schools in the current study.

Hsieh and Shen (1998) cited in Latham (2004) in the State of Michigan examined teachers', principals' and superintendents' perceptions of 'a good educational leader'. Results of a focus group showed that teachers, principals and superintendents identified the qualities that educational leaders should have as being good levels of communication, problem-solving, collaboration, modeling, decision-making, listening and interpersonal skills. All informants agreed that communication and listening skills were the important skills for principals. In another study by Blase and Blase (1999:484) cited by Latham (2004) found the work of principals identified as exemplary. These were 'shared-governance' characterized by becoming involved, 'supportive processes', and 'supportive structures'. According to the researchers, shared governance principals were not

dominating and did not have a ‘preoccupation with self’, were more likely to work with others as equals, develop trust and were highly collaborative.

Schmiegel (2015) in a qualitative study of teachers’ lived experiences in urban, suburban, and rural schools about school principal support found teachers’ perception of principals leading by example behaviors. Accordingly, teachers argued that their principal showed instructional presence by showing up to the classroom and writing notes what the teacher has done well. In addition, they stated the principal provided useful comment, positive or negative. However they also perceived the principal building on teachers’ strengths and reinforcing and promoting professional development. This finding is not with agreement to the present study in that principals in the sample schools were perceived only exemplary in their personal characteristics and their good human relation with teachers.

Blase and Blase (2000) in his study about teachers' perspectives on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools found that principals modeled teaching (p.134).

*Effective principals demonstrated teaching techniques in classrooms and during conferences; they also modeled positive interactions with students. These forms of modeling were viewed as impressive examples of instructional leadership that primarily yielded positive effects on teacher motivation as well as reflective behavior.*

The response of teachers in the study indicated that they obtained insights about teaching and reflected on their own practice. This finding is against the results of the present study where principals in the sampled schools did not modeled classroom teaching for their teachers.

In this study sharing school vision was seen as occasional activity in the sampled secondary schools. This showed the vision was not well communicated, internalized by and inspired the school community. Vision is the core of leadership, which produces a sense of purpose that brings teachers together and drives them to exert their fullest effort to reach their school goals (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003).

In a study by Hipp and Huffman (2000), teachers in schools, with a high level of readiness for developing as a learning community, indicated that conditions of trust and

respect had been established which supported shared decision-making and the development and implementation of a shared vision. In schools where readiness for developing as a learning community was low, evidence of shared visions was not found. In addition resistance to change and a lack of trust or openness were evident. The result of this study was not in line the findings of Ahmad *et al.*, (2017) in Malaysian schools. According to the researchers, “The high performing school principals ensured that all citizens share and understand the vision clearly. They accept the responsibility and accountability for promoting and achieving the vision and mission.” (p. 6). The researchers further indicated that the principals of the schools used several strategies for communicating the mission and vision of the school to the staff students, and parents.

The result of this study showed that teachers’ high performance was not adequately rewarded, at times neglected and seen as source of conflict due to competitive procedures. This result is in agreement with finding a study by Latham. In a case study of teachers' and principals' Perceptions of school leadership, Latham (2004) found that teachers perceived that school leadership gave less emphasis to rewarding teachers for their achievement. This was evidenced by a word of a teacher respondent who was reported to say "We like to be told that we are wanted and needed and good". On the other hand a teacher said, "Schools are busy places and often it is overlooked"; indicating teachers’ good performance might be unnoticed (p.105). Similar finding was reported by Alemu (2016). His study found that teachers were de-motivated in government secondary schools of Bole Sub-city, Addis Ababa due to lack of recognition for their good performance, lack of professional freedom and lack of merit-based promotion.

Secondary schools sampled for this study tackled the challenges they faced through discussion and generating alternatives. Principals practiced taking collective responsibility in response to challenges. There was also referral of cases to the next higher body. Most of the challenges identified by the respondents tended to be administrative problems than instruction related problems. The results also showed principals did not challenge teachers in the teaching learning process to make changes in their practice. Thus it seems the principals were preoccupied with managing the teaching learning in the schools

Al-Jaradat and Zaid-Alkilani (2015) identified problems of student, teachers and school environment and supplies in the schools they studied. The researchers by citing Thomas (2001) Helen (1997) and Richard and Elena (1995) stated that safe school leadership of school should be prepared for carrying out its leadership role efficiently and effectively. They forwarded proactive strategies for schools to be equipped for later challenges. These included: development of the educational environment and building good relationships outside and inside the school, designing short-term programs to acquire relevant skills and stimulation of the administrative and educational faculties and students to work according to the contemporary educational criteria. In addition, emphasis to setting conduct-defining systems that will be applied by cooperation with the school leadership and parents. Southworth (2004) cited by Al-Jaradat and Zaid-Alkilani (2015) said that effective leadership is influential if based on three strategies: pattern setting, monitoring or controlling, and dialogue.

Al-Jaradat and Zaid-Alkilani (2015) stated that schools employed caring for the suitable number of students inside the classrooms, forming a periodical parents' council and providing them guidelines showing them how to deal with their children to deal with problems in schools. However, they also indicated the least practices were those of care for teachers' stability and retention at school, and motivating committed teachers.

### **4.3.3. School culture**

School culture is one of the variables in this study. In the quantitative part 'School Culture Elements Questionnaire' with a five point scale that ranged from '1' 'Never' to '5' 'Always' was used to measure school culture in the secondary schools. Scale mean scores between 3 and 4 indicated an aggregated response of moderate level. The quantitative results showed that teachers rated the overall school culture of the schools ( $M = 3.19$ ,  $SD = 0.34$ ). This shows that teachers rated the existence of the cultures mentioned in the survey at a moderate level. Teachers' responses show collaboration and shared planning were the least observed cultures by teachers with ( $M= 3.06$ ,  $SD = 0.46$ , ( $M= 2.99$ ,  $SD = 0.58$ ) respectively. Teachers affirmed the prevalence of only one dimension of school culture 'emphasis on learning' (commitment to professional growth and improved outcomes for students, Cavanagh and Dellar, 1998) in the schools with

( $M= 3.49$ ) at above average level. Collaboration and shared planning were rated the least observed dimensions by teachers with ( $M= 3.06$ ,  $SD = 0.46$ , ( $M= 2.99$ ,  $SD = 0.58$ ) respectively. The overall result shows that there was no strong culture in the schools which indicates the ineffectiveness of the principals in shaping culture in their schools. In the qualitative data analysis themes related to school culture were grouped together. These themes include: Managing teaching and learning, encouraging learning, teachers' satisfaction in their profession and teacher peer learning.

According to the principal participants, the teaching learning in their respective schools was run in a coordinated way. The schools' curriculum committee was responsible for the overall teaching learning process supervised by the principal. A principal said that teachers were not obliged to remain in the school compound so long as they finished their work. It seems teachers have time to spare for other engagements. A principal said teachers work in other schools or attend university education other than education fields with an intention to leave their profession. Teachers shared the same view and added teachers were engaged in teaching in private schools and tutoring or other jobs, even in low status, to increase their income.

Thus, teachers seem to have divided attention to their work pressed by economic problem and different leaders, work environments (regular and private) or attending education intending to leave teaching profession. This situation affected both teachers and the education system. Teachers were highly loaded which may affect their effectiveness and similarly the schools could not get the irreplaceable key teacher role in developing students.

There was a reporting system in the schools. When classes were missed or not adequately covered, students, department heads and vice principal for teaching learning report to the principal. The students also participated in reporting in the school without the knowledge of teachers (teachers do not know which student was reporting). Teachers were not comfortable with such a follow up behind them. Teachers who miss classes for school work or personal reasons were obliged to compensate the missed classes. However, teachers reported missed classes were rarely compensated because students have different engagements and do not want to come to school in their free time. Principals received



feedback from the school community mainly through monthly regular meetings and in person.

The schools conducted regular scheduled meetings that discussed educational issues set by the school administration. Teachers provided mixed responses. Some teachers perceived meetings were held with adequate debate while others said few people participated. Sometimes teachers and principals took much of the floor. The agendas mostly on teaching learning were: student result, student behavior and school improvement.

The secondary schools focused and participated the whole staff to manage the students in their respective schools. Principals said they managed students of their schools through the teaching staff. Teachers closely supervised students being assigned on a particular duty day in the compound. They also added teachers were responsible any student case. Furthermore, they added weekly and monthly meetings were held to look for the student management.

Teachers confirmed that student management was a part of their responsibility. They affirmed teachers mainly were required to keep students to stay in their classes during school work hour. According to them, the intention of this control was to make them engaged in their studies. However, it was reported by teachers that some teachers refused to take this task as part of their responsibility.

One of the themes that emerged in the analysis of qualitative data analysis was 'Encouraging learning'. The principal respondents argued that their schools rewarded students for their academic achievement. Students were given money and materials when they achieve high results in the school and national examination. They were rewarded in a ceremony in which sub-city education officers, teachers and parents were present. Teachers believed this type of encouragement had a positive influence on students.

Teachers' satisfaction in their profession emerged as a theme in the qualitative data analysis. The words of the informants indicated that teachers in the sampled schools were highly vulnerable chronic economic problem. They were subjected to extra workloads to resist the extremely expensive living condition. Principals argued teachers were not

satisfied dominantly due to low economic status. They indicated the intention to leave among new and low teaching service was serious. However, the principals indicated few teachers with longer teaching service were satisfied with their profession. The reason for this was they observed some improvement in the education system in the course of their stay in the profession.

Teachers' perception with regard to satisfaction with teaching profession was not positive. They shared the principals' responses. Some of the teachers' words give the true picture of the phenomenon. A teacher said many teachers do not even identify themselves with the profession. Another teacher argued teachers felt inferior by comparing themselves with other civil servants. In addition, teachers complain there was no income difference between long serving and beginning teachers.

Teachers indicated that few teachers were satisfied despite a vast dissatisfaction among the teacher population. A teacher said some teachers were proud of being teacher because they felt they were helping students; they liked their school environment and the social interaction among teachers.

Teachers' peer learning was another theme under the category teacher job focus. Principals and teachers indicated the professional development programs among the teaching staff were inadequate. There were in-built supervision that involved peer classroom teaching observation, professional development programs and experience sharing programs. The professional development program was a continuous program that was conducted throughout the year. In this program teachers were expected to work on and improve prioritized educational issues. Principals said teachers were reluctant to conduct professional development programs. Teachers also argued professional development programs were ineffective.

The results from the quantitative research on school culture were compared with previous research works by different authors. School culture in the sampled schools was found to be at a moderate level. This result was similar with past research findings. Mekonnen (2020) found that school culture to be a moderate level in secondary schools of East Wollega Zone, Oromia Regional State as rated by teachers. Cavanagh and Dellar (2001) reported that emphasis on learning was the highest rated culture dimension in Western

Australian secondary schools. The researchers also described that teachers were uncertain about the presence of collaboration, shared planning and transformational leadership. The result of this study regarding the presence of highly valued culture in secondary schools was different from Maslowski's study. Maslowski (2001) reported high level of culture in schools of Netherlands. They were found to be focused on high student achievement as perceived by teachers and school administrators. In terms of dimensions of school culture, Veeriah (2017) reported that teachers in primary schools of Selangor, Malaysia affirmed collegial support as highly prevalent culture than other dimensions of school culture.

The qualitative data that were related to school culture was compared to previous research findings too. In this study, it was found the teaching learning process in the secondary schools was managed and supervised by the schools' curriculum committee. The principals coordinate the overall activity. The principals claim the instruction in their schools was planned, orderly and strictly carried out. The secondary schools sampled for this study had a culture of strict student control. To this end, principals and teachers were supposed to participate in managing students. There was a follow up of teachers both by department heads and vice principals. Different meetings at department and school level were conducted to monitor and evaluate school performance.

Hallinger (2005) argued that instructional leaders: Focused on creating and communicated a shared vision, developed a climate of high expectations, guided and coordinated continuous improvements in the school, monitored the curriculum and student learning outcomes, and became visible in the school by modeling the shared values of the school's culture. Ahmad *et al.*, (2017) stated that principals in high performing schools of Malaysia managed instruction effectively. This finding was different from the current study. In these schools, principals took the responsibility to supervise and evaluate the classroom instruction, to coordinate the curriculum, to appoint the right staff for the right subjects, to manage the committees and to monitor the students' progress frequently through a variety of assessment procedures. The principals in the high performing schools focused "especially in human resource management,

curriculum, co-curriculum, staff development, finance, and environment and discipline management” (p. 8).

Teaching and learning is obviously school leadership role that aims at classroom instruction. This core role specifically deals with creating productive teaching and learning conditions for both teachers and students. Instructional leadership practices for this purpose include: developing staff and curriculum, staffing the programs with appropriate personnel, providing support services, monitoring the activities, protecting staff against disruptions from their work, and creating school-community partnership (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006).

Principals’ instructional leadership had direct effect on teachers in their classroom instruction. One study indicated principals’ influence was linked to teachers’ consideration and tolerance for students, planning, creativity, and monitoring of student learning. In a case study of a principal’s instructional leadership, it was reported that behaviors of a principal directly influenced teachers. Teachers were able to exhibit greater critique of practice, consideration of alternatives, teamwork with colleagues, and implementation of innovations as a result of their principals’ practice of staff development, demonstrated inquiry, stimulated risk taking, asked reason for practices, and criticized by walking around (Blase and Blase, 1999).

There were attempts to motivate students in their learning in the sampled secondary schools. Both principal and teacher respondents argued that their schools rewarded students for their academic achievement by selecting high achievers. Students were given money and materials when they achieve high results from their respective classes and at national examination. However, motivating students intrinsically and making them to develop positive attitude was not mentioned by respondents.

Ferreira, Cardoso and Abrantes (2011), studying motivation and relationship of the student with school, concluded that negative sense of school belonging, intrinsic motivation and perceived learning, found to be determinants of academic success and factors to make the student to want to learn. They further argued:

*In the process of teaching and learning, the cognitive, affective, social, and motivational variables have a potentiating effect on student learning. The findings provide useful information for teachers and school managers, revealing the importance of high schools in developing institutional and pedagogical strategies that might improve the students' sense of school belonging, leading them to believe they are accepted and valued in their school. A positive sense of school belonging may improve students' academic motivation, and their engagement and participation in learning activities, especially among students who are at risk of dropping out. Teachers should also create an active learning environment that enhances students' perceived autonomy and competence, providing students with choices and opportunities for self-directed learning, and planning learning activities that might increase their feeling of mastery. In fact, intrinsic motivation was shown to be a factor of great importance that can lead to higher perceived learning (p. 1713).*

This indicates that the school administration and teachers in the sampled schools need to work to motivate students by designing relevant strategies.

The qualitative study of this research showed that the majority of the teachers were dissatisfied mainly due to low socio-economic status and low student motivation. In addition, it was observed the provision of government low-cost house for limited number of teachers. The salary scale for teachers did not show any difference between long serving and novice teachers. However, small portion of teachers were reported to be somehow satisfied with their profession because they thought they were helping students and favorable social interaction among teachers.

This finding was in line with Raymond's (2018) case study which reported dissatisfaction among urban Oklahoma schools teachers due to lack of recognition, increased responsibility, under payment and non-supportive work environment. Conversely, Tayyar's (2014) interview result on job satisfaction and motivation among secondary school teachers in Saudi Arabia secondary schools showed teachers were found to be satisfied with their profession. Furthermore, Raymond (2018) indicated that teachers found motivation in the work itself and due to success in their students. Tayyar's (2014) qualitative results showed factors for teachers' job satisfaction in Saudi schools included positive social interaction in the schools. The qualitative data in the case study by Makolle show that teachers' satisfaction level was low in two schools in south west region of Cameroon. It was reported that these perceptions were attributable partly to the

lack of basic working and living facilities and services (Makolle, 2015). Gedefaw (2012) reported the result of interview on teachers' job satisfaction in secondary schools of Addis Ababa. Accordingly, the majority of teachers was not satisfied with the leadership practice and administrative support and rated leadership practice as the second most dissatisfying factor next to salary. Similarly, Mekonnen (2020) reported that teachers in secondary schools of East Wollega were dissatisfied. A teacher in one of the schools in the zone said, "It is long time since teachers lost interest towards teaching profession. Not only teachers, even students themselves do not have interest to learn. I think the education system in this country was highly affected during the period of this government (after 1990s)" (p.142). Another teacher expressed his feeling saying:

*I could say that we teachers are teaching because we have no option for our livelihood. No more, no less. I have lost morale to teach. Everything good about teachers and teaching has been over. The salary, the recognition, and the prestige we have in society are very low. We are ashamed of being in the profession (p.143).*

This clearly indicated the status of teacher job satisfaction in the study area that samples secondary schools under investigation.

On the other hand regarding teacher peer learning principals and teachers in the sampled secondary schools indicated that they had low attitude to the professional development program and perceived it inadequate and ineffective indicating the school principals' ineffectiveness in implementing school based teachers' professional development. A study in one of the regions in Ethiopia found similar result to the current study. Ashebir (2014) studied professional development of teachers in secondary schools of Kemashi zone, Benishangul-Gumuz Region Ethiopia. The findings indicated that all the implementation of teachers' professional development activities were inadequate. In addition, teachers received insufficient support from the school principals, facilitators and senior teachers. Similarly, Habtamu (2013) found that continuous professional development programs were low in their implementation. The respondents in their response in focus groups and interview indicated that in secondary schools teachers were not actively taking part in the programs. Teachers also indicated that principals played little role in the professional development programs. The main reason for low implementation of the programs was teachers attached minimum or no value to the

program as having not attached to teacher career development system. Furthermore Habtamu reported the supervision in the secondary was ineffective from the teachers and woreda supervisor's point of view. He also stated the qualitative results revealed the principals' emphasis for instructional activities was moderate.

The result of this study was against a study finding by Steyn (2014) and Blase and Blase (2000). Steyn (2014) in a case study of successful principal in South Africa reported the principal paid significant attention to teachers' professional development. He also believed in self-development and developing teachers beyond himself. Blase and Blase (2000) studied teachers' perspectives on principals' everyday instructional leadership characteristics and the impact of those characteristics on teachers in public schools. The results indicated that principals implemented teacher professional development programs effectively. The principals used strategies to promote professional growth in the schools which included: the study of teaching and learning, supporting collaboration, developing coaching relationships, encouraging and supporting programme changes, using adult learning strategies and action research.

Powell et al., (2003) and Bartleton (2018) found that teachers perceived continuous professional development as highly important for teachers' improvement. However, Kagoda and Ezati (2014) found that teachers in Ugandan secondary schools had narrow understanding of continuous professional development program.

#### **4.3.4. Organizational health**

Organizational health is one of the variables in this study. In the quantitative analysis organizational health inventory for secondary school was used to collect data. The rating scale ranged from '1' 'rarely' to '4' 'very frequently'. It can be seen that the overall level of organizational health of secondary schools was moderate. The highest mean was 2.67 for initiating structure which shows the principal focuses on task and achievement. Whereas the least mean was 2.44 for institutional integrity which is the ability of school to deal with outside forces in a way that maintains the continuation of its programs. The moderate level of each organizational health mean value shows that the schools were not in a status that enables them to achieve their mission. In addition, initiating structure was

rated the highest as an average health status in the schools. This shows that the principals are more of 'task oriented' which may affect the motivation of teachers. Besides, the low score for 'institutional integrity' indicates that the schools experienced external pressure which might affect their programs. In general the average overall health of secondary schools and variable mean score of the dimensions of organizational health affects the effectiveness of the schools.

The qualitative data analysis related to organizational health resulted in four themes. They were principal behavior, school condition, principal influence, teacher and principal expectation from students.

The first theme under this category was principal behavior. Secondary school principals were reported serving as teachers and in administrative positions prior to becoming principals. In addition, they all attended school principalship training at a Masters' degree level. Regarding their human relation behavior they argued they had good relationship with the majority of the staff. They added they attempted to share the feeling of the staff by spending more time with teachers and administrative workers. They said they followed open door policy, respected all members, treated equally and made themselves visible in the school most of the time.

All principals responded they coordinated their work through vice principals and department heads. They added they frequently explained the expectation from teachers, set schedule for every activity and monitored closely.

Principals and teachers perceived their schools to be free from external pressure and having adequate resources for their operation. Accordingly, the participants argued that the schools experienced no external pressure from their environment. They also added parents were supportive to the school. In some schools the presence 'Chat' shops was taken as potential treat for the school. Schools were also reported to implement the policies from top level management by adapting to the school environment which contributed to stability of the schools. However, none of the participants indicated the economic pressure on teachers as factor of school condition. It was indicated that teachers



experienced severe economic pressure and this contributed to their dissatisfaction (Category 'Teacher job focus', Theme 'Teachers' satisfaction in their profession').

The schools were reported as having adequate resource for daily operation. Both respondents argued the schools possess adequate human and material resource for day to day operation. However, they perceived a need for resources for making schools to work towards excellence. The materials suggested to be supplied included: laboratory materials, computers and offices.

Principal influence was the third theme under the principal role category. Principal respondents claimed to have good relationship with their superiors. The majority of teacher respondents said their principals had good relationship with their superiors. They also added they influenced their superiors in getting what they wanted for their schools. Expectation from students was the last theme. Principals and teachers in the secondary schools have somewhat similar expectation about their students' achievements. However, teachers have less expectation than principals. Teachers roughly estimated fifty to sixty per cent of their students to succeed both in classroom based assessments and national examinations. The reasons for low expectation included lack of interest to learn on the part of students for various reasons one of which students did not have bright future on job opportunities. Furthermore, some students lacked vision and simply wanted to complete their secondary education. Thus, students and teachers seem to be affected by lack of passion to learn and teach and a feeling of low expectation.

The quantitative analysis on organizational health was compared to previous research findings. The findings of this study indicated that the organizational health level of schools in Addis Ababa found to be moderate. Previous studies corroborate the findings of this study. Toprak, Inandı and Colak (2015) in their study of Leadership style and organizational health of secondary schools of Jordan schools reported that the organizational health for the schools was found to be average. Farahani, Mirzamohamadi, Afsouran and Mohammadi (2014) reported that high schools of Kohkilouie and Boierahmad Province in Iran showed varied levels of organizational health. Accordingly, 42.5 percent of high schools were less than the mean, 22.5 percent

of high schools were mediocre, and 35 percent of them are more than the mean. Cemaloglu<sup>b</sup> (2007) also reported that the organizational health of primary schools in Turkey was perceived by teachers as high. These results of previous researches were different from the present study result that showed all schools in the sampled schools were found to be medium in their organizational health.

Regarding the dimensions of organizational health in secondary schools the present study found that the highest mean was 2.67 for initiating structure and the least mean was 2.44 for institutional integrity. Parlar and Cansoy, 2017 reported that teachers rated the organizational health of the schools the highest in the dimension of initiating structure ( $M = 3.31$ ) and at the lowest in the dimension of resource support ( $M = 2.70$ ) in elementary, middle and high schools of Umraniye district, Turkey.

The qualitative data on organizational health was compared to previous research findings. This study found that principals in secondary schools influenced teachers by following open door policy, respect and equal treatment of all members of the school. Gonzales and Short (1996) cited in Latham (2004) in an interview with teachers found that they perceived the more they were empowered the more they believed their principals did not use reward or punishment to influence teachers work and behavior. The researchers claimed that "expert power" offered principals the most potential for influencing teachers for school improvement. On the other hand in a qualitative study Short (1994) cited by Latham (2004) stated that principals managed to create self-managing teams by helping the teams to engage in reflection, facilitating them to focus on goals, encouraging team members to be critical of their performance and by self-reinforcement in acknowledging their own success.

A study by Blase (1987) cited by Latham (2004) identified task and consideration related dimension of principals using grounded theory analysis. The result of the study indicated that leadership orientation of the school principals was a significant factor of shaping teachers work perspectives. Accordingly, task related dimensions of leadership included accessibility, consistency, knowledge / expertise, expectations, decisiveness, goals / direction, follow through, time management, and problem solving orientation. The researcher also identified consideration related dimensions of leadership included

support, participation, consultation, fairness, recognition and delegation. Results indicated that principals perceived by teachers as effective principals exhibited most each of the factors identified. Gonzales and Short (1996:214) concluded that "expert power", "reward power" and "referent power" were "powerful sources of influence that principals can use in creating an empowering environment for teachers".

The result of this study showed that the principals were not engaged on professional leadership practices. This finding was in line with Tamrat's study. Tamrat (2018) argued that principals in secondary schools of Oromia special zone were found to be overburdened with administrative tasks and faced lack of finance resources. Birhanu (2020) found that principals in secondary schools of Eastern Ethiopia employed mostly positional power in their schools.

Principals and teachers in the sampled schools had average expectation from of their students to succeed both in class and national examinations. The reasons for low expectation included lack of interest and motivation to learn on the part of students. Students argued they did not have bright future on job opportunities. Thus, students and teachers seem to be affected by lack of motivation to learn on the part of students and a feeling of low expectation on the part of teachers. Green (2015) argued that motivation depends on students' beliefs about: the subjective value of the goal (the goal perceived as worth attaining), the expectation of the students on successful attainment of the goal (positive if the student believes they will achieve the goal and negative otherwise, and the learning environment (supportive for achieving the goal). This indicates that teachers need to give attention to learner-centered pedagogy to address the needs of students. Johnston, Wildy and Shand (2019) in their study of research studies synthesis on teacher expectation from 2008 to 2018 argued that teacher expectation had a substantial effect on student achievement. However, the researchers found different outcome as a result of differential treatment in student response to teacher expectation related to variables like socioeconomic status. In one of the studies reviewed by the researchers, it was indicated that teacher expectation account 3 to 60 percent variance in student achievement. In addition, the researchers found teacher expectation had an effect on teacher performance.

The findings of this study on teachers feeling about student were similar with Mekonnen's (2020) findings that teachers in secondary schools of East Wollega in a focus group reported that they had negative attitude towards students because most students were undisciplined, engaged in sabotage, drug abuse and eroding values and norms in the schools.

#### **4.3.5. The relationship among leadership practice, School culture and organizational health of schools**

Regarding the relationship among the variables of this study, leadership practice, school culture and organizational health influenced one another positively. Accordingly, Leadership Practice predicted both school culture and organizational health. However, leadership practice was found to exert a relatively stronger positive effect on organizational health than on school culture. The amount of variance in organizational health of school (i.e. 37.40 percent) was explained in leadership practice. On the other hand, the amount of variance in school culture (11.40 percent) was explained in leadership practice. School culture was found to have a mediating effect between the relationship of leadership practice and organizational health. That is, due to the indirect (mediated) effect of leadership practice on organizational health; when leadership practice goes up by 1 standard deviation, organizational health goes up by 0.045 standard deviations. The total (direct and indirect) effect of leadership practice on organizational health is .611. That means, when leadership practice goes up by 1 standard deviation, organizational health goes up by 0.611 standard deviations.

Reviewed literature affirmed that school culture impacts the way people think, feel, and act (Peterson, 2002) and leadership and culture are two concepts that are considered to be inseparable (Schein, 1985). The extent to which organizational values are shared among employees is essential when linking leadership and organizational culture. The degree of acceptance of the leader's culture-related messages determines the homogeneity or heterogeneity of organizational culture (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999).

The finding of this study also showed that secondary school principals' leadership practice was positively related to school culture, ( $\beta = .35$ ,  $p < .001$ ) positively and significantly. Previous studies on school leadership and school culture showed similar

results. Martin (2009) found in schools of Georgia in US, statistically significant relationship between most of the factors of the leadership styles of principals and the factors of school culture. Howard's (2004) study in public elementary schools in state of Michigan, USA reported that there was a positive relationship between school culture and leadership. Sufean's (2014) study on school Culture and Instructional Leadership showed that there existed a slight positive relationship between instructional leadership and school culture in high-performing schools. In primary schools in province of Erzurum, Turkey, positive and significant relationships were found between the scores of school culture and leadership practice of principals. The prediction power of leadership practices on school culture in this schools showed principal leadership practice explained 28 percent of the variance of school culture (Turan and Bektas, 2013).

Arokiasamy (2017) reported that principals transformational leadership style and school culture were positively and significantly related in secondary schools in the state of Perak, Malaysia. On the other hand, Veeriah (2017) reported that there was a significant relationship between principal transformational leadership practices and schools' culture ( $r = .853$ ,  $p < .01$ ) indicating a positive and strong correlation in primary schools of Selangor district in Malaysia. Furthermore, Veiseh *et al.*, (2014) in their study on the relation between transformational leadership and organizational culture medical school of Ilam, university of Ilam, Iran using structural equation modeling found transformational leadership having a significant influence on the development of organizational culture.

This study found statistically significant relationship between leadership practice and organizational health. In this respect it was revealed that principals' leadership practice was positively moderately related to organizational health, ( $\beta = .57$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Statically significant relation was found between the two variables.

This finding was in line with other researches results. The school principals' instructional leadership behavior was positively and significantly related to the organizational health level of schools ( $r = .69$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and instructional leadership behavior explained 49 percent of the variance in the organizational health level of schools (Parlar and Cansoy, 2017). The correlation between transformational leadership and school health in high schools of Ankara, Turkey found to be ( $r = .58$ ,  $p < .001$ ) showing moderate and

statistically significant relation (Korkmaz, 2007). Toprak, Inandi and Colak (2015) reported that school principals' general leadership scores significantly predicted organizational health ( $\beta = .76$ ,  $p < .001$ ) in Osmaniye city Turkey primary schools. Accordingly, 58 percent of the variance in organizational health was explained by transformational leadership of school principals. Khademfar and Idris (2012) reported the correlation between transformational leadership and organizational health in Golestan province of Iran to be .78 which shows strong relationship between the variables. The results of regression analysis in the same study showed that the 61.2 percent of variances of organizational health were explained by transformational leadership. Arokiasamy (2017) reported that principals transformational leadership style and school organizational health were positively and significantly related in secondary schools in Perak state, Malaysia.

Orhan and Tosuntas (2015) in Karadağ (2015) in a meta-Analysis of empirical studies of six studies reported that leadership has a large positive effect on organizational health. The effect size was calculated to be .78 which was large showing the significance of the effect of leadership on organizational health. The researchers also argued that "the studies included in the meta-analysis showed transformational leadership instructional leadership and leadership behaviors have a larger effect on organizational health than styles of leadership do" (p. 208).

There were few studies that studied principals' leadership, school culture and organizational health of schools simultaneously. Arokiasamy (2017) studied principals' transformational leadership style, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools in the state of Perak, Malaysia. The result of Arokiasamy's study was in line with the current study in that principals' transformational leadership style and school culture positively and significantly influenced the organizational health of Malaysian secondary schools.

## 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The preceding chapters have detailed the background, reviewed the relevant literature, and described the methodology of the study. In chapter 4, the researcher portrayed the data as obtained through following the methodology outlined in chapter 3. This chapter presented the summary of the study, the conclusions that were derived from the study, and the recommendations forwarded and indication for future research in the area.

### 5.1. Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the status of principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration their relationship as well. The study also examined relationships that exist between and among the variables. Accordingly, attempt was made to answer five basic questions and to five four hypotheses:

The study attempted to answer and test the following research questions and hypotheses.

1. To what extent do school principals practice leadership in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration as perceived by teachers?
2. What type of school culture is prevalent in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration as perceived by teachers?
3. What is the level of organizational health in government secondary schools of Addis Ababa City as perceived by principals and teachers?
4. Is there significant difference in principals' leadership practices, school culture and organizational health with respect to demographic variables and secondary schools Addis Ababa City Administration?
- 5.Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant relationship between principals' leadership practices and school culture in secondary schools Addis Ababa City Administration.
- 6.Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant relationship between principals' leadership practices and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.
- 7.Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant relationship between school culture and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.

8. H<sub>04</sub>: School culture does not significantly mediate the relation between leadership practice and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.
9. H<sub>05</sub>: There are no significant inter-correlations among the subscales of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in Addis Ababa secondary schools.
10. What factors affect leadership school culture and organizational health of secondary schools?

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect data for the study. For the quantitative part data from randomly selected 450 teachers from 13 secondary schools of Addis Ababa city out of 1644 population was collected using survey questionnaire. The data were derived through three sets of questionnaire: LPI, SCEQ and OHI. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as Frequency, Percentage, Means and Standard Deviation, ANOVA, MANOVA and Structural Equation Modeling.

On the other hand, data for the qualitative part was collected by using interview. There were interview sessions that involved semi-structured questions were conducted with four principals and sixteen teachers in collection were our secondary schools of Addis Ababa city. The informants in the qualitative data collection were not those who participated in filling the survey questionnaires. Thematic analysis was used to analyze data from interview.

The summary of the findings from both quantitative and qualitative results are presented here under.

#### **5.1.1. The status of leadership practice, school culture and organizational health in secondary schools**

The results of the study from the descriptive statistics revealed that principals were practicing leadership at a moderate level (M=5.79). Although all the five leadership practices were implemented moderately, 'Enable others to act' was practiced relatively higher than the other practices (M= 6.03) followed by 'Model the way' while 'Challenge the process' was the least practiced practice. The other variable of this research, school culture, was also at a moderate level (M= 3.19). The most prevalent school culture in the



schools was 'Emphasis on learning' (M= 3.49) followed by 'Collegiality'. On the other hand 'Collaboration' and 'shared planning' were the least observed dimensions of school culture by teachers. The moderate mean value of the school culture dimensions show none of the school culture indicated the prevalence of strong school culture. Thus the schools were not in a status that enables them to achieve their mission effectively. From the dimensions of the third major variable, organizational health, which it still showed moderate level of the health (M=2.53); 'initiating structure' was rated the highest (M=2.67) showing that the principals were more of 'task oriented' followed by 'consideration' which refers to concern for teachers. Low score was found for the 'institutional integrity' dimension indicating that the schools experienced external pressure as perceived by teachers. The principals' behavior focus for both task and teachers is positive and encouraging. However, the existence of external pressure on schools affects the internal function and their ability to adapt themselves and to improve their services.

The qualitative research of this study identified themes that supported the quantitative research results. The findings indicated that principals were perceived to possess positive human relationship with the school community and were supportive when requested for support by school members. In addition, principals showed both task and people oriented behavior in the course of leading their schools. The principals employed discussion and participation to tackle challenges faced in the school and sought superior help for issues beyond their capacity. However, the school principals occasionally shared the school vision and delegated the task of rewarding teachers to a committee which left them with a supervisory role in the process.

The secondary schools gave emphasis for managing the teaching learning process with supervising teachers not to miss classes and control of students within the campus. Both teachers and principals had average expectation from their students. The schools attempted to reward teachers and students who performed better than others. On the other hand, school based professional development programs were insufficient and ineffective due to lack of interest and low attitude of teachers towards the programs.

### **5.1.2. The relationship among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of schools**

The three variables (Leadership practice, school culture and organizational health) influenced one another positively. Leadership practice predicted both school culture and organizational health and school culture predicted organizational health. Accordingly, leadership practice predicted organizational health ( $\beta = .57, p < .001$ ) and school culture ( $\beta = .35, p < .001$ ) positively and significantly. Similarly, School culture predicted organizational health significantly ( $\beta = .13, p < .05$ ). Leadership practice had stronger positive effect on organizational health than on school culture. The amount of variance explained by leadership practice in organizational health ( $R^2 = 37.4$  percent) was far greater than the variance that it explained in school culture ( $R^2 = 11.4$  percent). School culture had a mediating effect in the relationship of leadership practice and organizational health of schools.

The subscales of the major variables were found to have inter-correlations each other. There was moderate to weak positive relationship among the majority of the sub-scales of the three major variables. Only three subscales of leadership practice influenced the subscales of organizational health. The beta value for 'inspiring a shared vision' vs. 'consideration' was the highest .512,  $p < .000$ . Two of the subscales of school culture, 'Collaboration' and 'transformational leadership', influenced most of the subscales of organizational health. However, the effect had small beta value compared to the relation subscales of leadership practice and the subscales of organizational health. Regarding the relationship of subscales of leadership practice and the subscales of school culture three of the subscales of leadership practice influenced most of the subscales of school culture. The beta value .414,  $p < .001$  was the highest between 'Enabling others to act' on 'emphasis on learning'.

### **5.1.3. Factors that affected the leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools**

Principals' characteristics and experience, positive human relation among the staff, superiors and parents and emphasis on controlling student behavior were identified as factors that contributed to the current leadership practice, school culture and

organizational health of secondary schools. Principals were perceived as having good relationship with teachers. In addition, the majority of teachers enjoyed friendly, respectful and trustful relationship each other. Furthermore, schools paid much attention to student behavior through strict control which might have helped the school management.

On the other hand, teacher dissatisfaction, students' lack of interest to learn and lack of resource were identified as factors that negatively affected the leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools. The majority of teachers were dissatisfied with their profession due to sever economic pressure to withstand the extremely expensive living condition in the city. As a result they were subjected to be engaged in additional jobs like teaching in private schools and running small village shops to survive. It seems they were spending too much time including the weekends which made them to be divided in different excess responsibilities which may affect their effectiveness. Furthermore, students were found lacking interest to learn that affected the schools operation and effectiveness.

#### **5.1.4. The difference among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health with respect to demographic variables**

In this study leadership practice, school culture and organizational health were checked if there exists statistically significant difference among the variables mentioned with respect to some demographic variables in multivariate analysis. School culture showed difference with only two of demographic variables of teacher respondents. The test found statistically significant differences in organizational culture with respect to (age at  $p < .05$  and service year at  $p < .05$ ). Leadership practice and organizational health did not show statistically significant difference with respect to all demographic variables of teacher respondents. This shows that demographic variables largely have no influence on the three variables. However, teachers' age and service year may have effect on the school culture of the secondary schools.

## 5.2. Conclusions

The findings of this study showed the leadership practice of school principals, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools were all at a moderate level. Principals were observed performing Kouzes and Posner's leadership practices moderately except in two schools. As the study sought to investigate the relationship among principals' leadership practice, school culture and organizational health, it was found that the three variables were significantly related to each other. Accordingly, leadership practice of principals influenced both school culture and organizational health of schools. It can be concluded that leadership practice is the key factor in improving the other variables in secondary schools.

The findings indicated leadership practice in the schools rarely focused on professional leadership. This was evidenced by low level of school based professional development, low level of student motivation to learn, low expectation from students by both teachers and principals, lack of passionately shared school vision and lack of environment that posed challenges for teachers. The schools also showed a culture of control than collaboration in discharging obligations. Thus, it can be concluded that principals were largely managing the school processes than exercising leadership and influencing the staff and students. This implies the need for reexamining the preparation, recruitment, training and development of school principals. In addition there is a need to look in to policy in relation to principalship of schools since school leadership has a key role in influencing different aspects of school like school culture and organizational health.

Leadership practice of principals was found to be an important variable predicting both school culture and organizational health of schools with higher prediction value on organizational health. It can be said that the more principals practice effective leadership it will have a positive effect on the school culture and organizational health of the schools.

The findings indicated that principal leadership practice had strong effect on organizational health of schools. It could be reasoned that the more principals practice effective leadership there will be a determining effect on the level of organizational

health of school. The way a school leader acts during organizational processes could act as an inhibiting or reinforcing factor in the development of organizational health. When a school leader influences teachers towards visionary goals, inspires them, motivates them to help a school effectively achieve its goals and shows great care to every individual he or she works with, that school will have more chances to survive in fast changing conditions, will be more capable of challenging problems it faces, and can continuously develop its skills which are features of a healthy school.

Leadership and culture are two sides of a coin. In the secondary schools leadership practice had positive effect on school culture. From the findings of this research it can be concluded that the ineffectiveness of leaders and focus on management than leadership contributed to absence of strong culture. It was found that when school principals' leadership practice improves school culture and organizational health of schools becomes better. The leadership role of principals is very significant in improving the culture and in particular organizational health of secondary schools in the context of Addis Ababa city.

This study found relationship among the subscales of leadership practice of school principals, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools. The interrelationship of subscales of the three variables was also found to show similar relationship as the major variables. Thus, it can be concluded that, the relationship among the subscales has implication for school principals in the choice of specific leadership practices and the emphasis they need to attain particular results in improving school culture and organizational health of their schools.

### **5.3. Recommendations**

#### **5.3.1. Recommendations for improving practice**

Based on the findings and the conclusions the following recommendations were made.

1. Schools need professional leaders to cultivate the young and achieve their societal delegated goals. However, the findings of this study indicated that although school principals had good human relationship, their leadership practices were not significant in the secondary schools. Thus, Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau

and sub-city education offices should focus on developing principals and supporting them in their practice to effectively and competently lead the schools. There should be strong professional development programs for principals to make them more focused to leadership practices that enhance teachers, students and other stakeholders. Principals' role should focus on leadership than managing schools.

2. School principal's role is now increasingly becoming complex and responsibilities added from time to time increasing more accountability. Principals are required to lead schools effectively and improve students learning and achievement. Hence, they need to work extensively on teachers professionally and lead them to achieve the school goal. Principals in secondary schools Addis Ababa city Administration secondary schools need to focus on instruction and build a positive professional school culture in their schools.
3. Students are central to schools in which every effort is geared towards their academic achievement. Consequently, all resources are deployed to schools to serve students to achieve their dreams. However, besides teacher satisfaction student motivation has been a challenge to present day schools. Therefore, Education offices, schools and parents in Addis Ababa City Administration should work collaboratively to improve student motivation to learn so that students lead goal driven life and hard work.
4. Schools plan their work, implement and monitor or evaluate their performance throughout the academic year. However, most evaluations emphasize on performance evaluation which mainly relate to outcomes like student final results. The processes that contribute to school success and effectiveness should also capture the attention of school leaders and policy makers. Schools need to periodically collect data and evaluate the status of their leadership, culture and organizational health and plan for preferred situation and continually improve based on data and evidence.

### **5.3.2. Recommendation for policy**

Principals should be assisted with a clear direction and policy documents. Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau need to reexamine its policy and guidelines for school leadership and improve to adequately deal with leadership, culture and organizational health issues in secondary schools. To this end, a

comprehensive guideline should be available for principals and leaders working with them to facilitate leadership in schools.

### **5.3.3. Recommendations for future research**

The current research sought to explore the relationship among leadership practice, school culture and organizational health of secondary schools. Future research may focus on similar issue by taking larger sample and including parents and students in addition to teachers and principals. The same issue may be researched in different types of schools like private schools or higher education institutions. It can also be further extended by combining with other variables like school effectiveness or student achievement. Interested researchers may also study the mentioned variables longitudinally. In addition a more practice focused research may be taken as option.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Questionnaire for Teachers

**Haramaya University**  
College of Education and Behavioral Science  
Department of Educational Planning and Management

#### Questionnaire – To be filled by Secondary School Teachers

I am a PhD student at Haramaya University in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies. I am conducting my dissertation research. The quality of this study is highly dependent on the data given by you. Therefore, you are kindly requested to fill and return this questionnaire honestly and genuinely. The information you provide would be strictly used for academic purpose only and kept confidential. No need of writing your name.

*Thank You for your Cooperation.*

#### I. Personal Information of Respondents

Please indicate your answer by putting “X” for each item in the box or give short answer.

1. **Name of your school** -----
2. **Sex.** 1. Male                       2. Female
3. **Age.** 1. 20 - 29 years                       2. 30 - 39 years                       3. 40 - 49 years   
4. Above 50 years
4. **Marital status.** 1. Single                       2. Married                       3. Separated   
4. Divorced                       5. Widowed
5. **Current education level.** 1. BA     2. BSc degree     3. MA     4. MSc degree
6. **Total work experience in teaching.** 1. 3 - 5 years                       2. 6 - 9 years   
3. 10 - 15 years                       4. 16 - 20 years                       5. more than 20 years
7. **Total work experience in teaching in this school.** 1. 3 - 5 years     2. 6 - 9 years   
3. 10 - 15 years                       4. 16 - 20 years                       5. more than 20 years
8. **Your salary in Birr** 1. 2001 - 2500     2. 2501 - 3000                       3. 3001 - 3500   
4. 3501 - 4000                       5. 4001 - 4500                       6. 4501 - 5000   
7. More than 5000

**LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (Observer)**

**James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner**

To what extent does your principal typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and circle it under that statement.

**1 = Almost Never    3 = Seldom    5 =Occasionally    7 =Fairly Often    9 = Very Frequently**

**2 = Rarely        4 = Once in a While    6 = Sometimes    8 = Usually        10 = Always**

**He or She:**

1	Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2	Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3	Seeks out challenging opportunities that tests his/her own skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4	Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	Praises people for a job well done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6	Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8	Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9	Actively listens to diverse points of view	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10	Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	Follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12	Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13	Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14	Treats others with dignity and respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15	Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

16	Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17	Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18	Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19	Supports the decisions that people make on their own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20	Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21	Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22	Paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23	Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24	Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25	Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26	Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27	Speaks with a genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28	Experiments and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29	Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30	Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10



### III. School Culture Elements Questionnaire

Please indicate the extent to which you observe “*how you and your school actually are*”.

**5 = Always 4=Often 3=sometimes 2=Seldom 1= Never**

1	Students are not provided with the skills needed for future educational or vocational experiences	5	4	3	2	1
2	I am proud to be a teacher.	5	4	3	2	1
3	Teachers have an understanding of how to support each other.	5	4	3	2	1
4	Agenda for meetings always come from the same people/ teachers.	5	4	3	2	1
5	The school’s future vision do not reflect staff consensus.	5	4	3	2	1
6	The principal is the most influential members of the staff.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Educational programs don’t contribute to improving the quality of life in our society.	5	4	3	2	1
8	I spend time in personal reflection about my work.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Teachers are unwilling to share problems with each other.	5	4	3	2	1
10	There is little debate in meetings.	5	4	3	2	1
11	We have not developed a common vision for the school’s future.	5	4	3	2	1
12	The school administration does not encourage teachers to decide on new activities.	5	4	3	2	1
13	The creative potential of students is not realized.	5	4	3	2	1
14	Developing the social skills of students is important.	5	4	3	2	1
15	Teachers do not make an effort to continue positive relationships with colleagues.	5	4	3	2	1
16	We work together to implement the decisions of meetings.	5	4	3	2	1
17	We do not gather data for measuring the success of school programs.	5	4	3	2	1
18	The principal and deputies do not encourage the professional growth of teachers.	5	4	3	2	1
19	I have a clear understanding of how I can contribute to realizing the future vision for the school.	5	4	3	2	1
20	Teachers learn from each other.	5	4	3	2	1

21	My professional decisions are not usually supported by colleagues.	5	4	3	2	1
22	We frequently discuss what we should teach in particular curriculum or subjects.	5	4	3	2	1
23	We do not always evaluate the success of existing school programs.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Members of the administration show a genuine concern for me as a person.	5	4	3	2	1
25	Individual differences between students are not given attention.	5	4	3	2	1
26	I am interested to get advice from colleagues about my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
27	We are willing to help each other when problems arise.	5	4	3	2	1
28	Teaching methods and strategies are not discussed sufficiently.	5	4	3	2	1
29	We have identified ways of determining if school priorities are achieved.	5	4	3	2	1
30	The principal gives teachers sufficient freedom to act in with their work.	5	4	3	2	1
31	I work towards achieving the school vision.	5	4	3	2	1
32	We believe that every child can learn.	5	4	3	2	1
33	We always encourage each other to exercise our professional decisions.	5	4	3	2	1
34	We repeatedly compare how we assess student achievement.	5	4	3	2	1
35	Teachers are not united in working towards the school's future vision.	5	4	3	2	1
36	Members of the administration create a personal commitment from teachers that ensures the success of innovations.	5	4	3	2	1
37	Improvements in student achievement are rewarded.	5	4	3	2	1
38	I still find new ways to improve my teaching.	5	4	3	2	1
39	We encourage each other to take responsibility for new activities.	5	4	3	2	1
40	Student behavior management strategies are not discussed sufficiently.	5	4	3	2	1
41	Teachers have not implemented school priorities.	5	4	3	2	1
42	Successful innovations are supported by the administration.	5	4	3	2	1

#### IV. Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary School (OHI-S)

**DIRECTION:** Please indicate the extent to which statement characterizes your school by marking “X” in front of the statements of your choice.

**1= Rarely      2= Sometimes      3 = Often      4 = Very Frequently**

1	Teachers are safe from unreasonable / unfair community and parental demands	1	2	3	4
2	The principal gets what he or she asks for from his/ her superiors	1	2	3	4
3	The principal is friendly and approachable	1	2	3	4
4	The principal asks that teachers follow standard rules and regulations	1	2	3	4
5	Extra materials are available if requested	1	2	3	4
6	Teachers help each other	1	2	3	4
7	The students in this school achieve the goals that have been set for them	1	2	3	4
8	This school is exposed to outside pressures	1	2	3	4
9	The principal is able to influence the actions of his/ her superiors	1	2	3	4
10	The principal treats all teachers as his/ her equals	1	2	3	4
11	The principal makes his/her attitudes clear to teachers and students of the school	1	2	3	4
12	Teachers are provided with adequate materials for their classrooms	1	2	3	4
13	Teachers in this school like each other	1	2	3	4
14	The school sets high standards for academic performance	1	2	3	4
15	Community demands are accepted even when they are not in agreement with the edu	1	2	3	4
16	The principal is able to work well with supervisors and experts of woreda or sub-cit	1	2	3	4
17	The principal puts suggestions made by teachers into action	1	2	3	4
18	The principal lets teachers know what is expected of them	1	2	3	4
19	Teachers receive necessary classroom supplies and equipment	1	2	3	4
20	Teachers are uninterested to each other	1	2	3	4
21	Students respect other students who get good grades	1	2	3	4

22	Teachers feel pressure from the community	1	2	3	4
23	The principal's recommendations are given serious consideration by his/her superiors	1	2	3	4
24	The principal is willing to make changes	1	2	3	4
25	The principal maintains clear / sure standards of performance	1	2	3	4
26	Supplementary materials are available for classroom use	1	2	3	4
27	Teachers show friendliness to each other	1	2	3	4
28	Students try to find extra/ additional work so they can get good marks	1	2	3	4
29	Some individuals groups are influential in the school board/ committee	1	2	3	4
30	The principal is hindered by his/her superiors	1	2	3	4
31	The principal works for the personal well-being of teachers	1	2	3	4
32	The principal schedules / programs the work to be done	1	2	3	4
33	Teachers have access to needed instructional materials and equipment	1	2	3	4
34	Teachers in this school are cool and unfriendly to each other.	1	2	3	4
35	Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically	1	2	3	4
36	The school is open to the sudden interest of the community	1	2	3	4
37	The morale of the teachers is high	1	2	3	4
38	Academic achievement is recognized and acknowledged by the school	1	2	3	4
39	A few parents known to be influential speakers can change school policy/ decision	1	2	3	4
40	There is a feeling of trust and confidence among the staff	1	2	3	4
41	Students try hard to improve on previous work	1	2	3	4
42	Teachers accomplish their jobs with eagerness/ interest	1	2	3	4
43	The learning environment is orderly and serious	1	2	3	4
44	Teachers consider themselves as part of the school	1	2	3	4

## **Appendix II: Interview Guide**

**HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY**  
**College of Education and Behavioral Sciences**  
**Department of Educational Planning and Management**

### **Semi-Structured Interview for Teachers, Principals and Education Officers**

PhD Dissertation Research

Dear Participants,

The purpose of this interview is to collect information for the research entitled “The Relationship among Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia”. I kindly request you to provide your genuine response. Participation in this interview is voluntary. The data you provide will be used for this research purpose only and kept confidentially. .

Thank for your cooperation!

#### **Interview Guide for Teachers**

##### **Part I: Demographic Data**

Would you please introduce and describe yourself: Your School/Department, Age, Sex, Marital Status and Service Year.

##### **Part II: Substantive Data**

1. How do you describe the leadership practices of your principal and their implementation in your school? (in relation to Kouzes and Posner leadership practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart)
2. How do you describe the school culture of your school? What culture is most prevalent?
3. How do you describe the organizational health level of your school?
4. What are the factors to leadership practices of your principal, school culture and organizational health in your school?

### **Interview Guide for Principals**

1. How do you describe your leadership practices and their implementation in your school? (in relation to Kouzes and Posner leadership practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart)
2. What factors do you think contributed to the current principal leadership practice in your school?
3. How do you describe the school culture of your school? What culture is most prevalent?
4. What factors do you think contributed to the existing school culture in your school?
5. How do you describe the organizational health of your school?
6. What factors do you think contributed to the current organizational health in your school?

### Appendix III: Permission to Use Leadership Practice Inventory



October 16, 2019  
 Teklemariam Bekele Bogale  
 PO Box 138  
 Haramaya University, Haramaya  
 Ethiopia

Dear Teklemariam Bekele Bogale:

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® in your research. This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observer/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research. You may *reproduce* the instrument in printed form at no charge beyond the discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy; however, you may not distribute any photocopies except for specific research purposes. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Joshua Carter (jocarter@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions.

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- (4) We have the right to include the results of your research in publication, promotion, distribution and sale of the LPI and all related products.

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Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Melanie Mortensen

Rights Coordinator

[mmortensen@wiley.com](mailto:mmortensen@wiley.com)

## **Appendix IV: Permission to Use Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary School**

**Wayne Hoy**

Tue Sept. 19, 2019 8:39 PM

Dear Teklemariam,

You have my permission to use the Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary Schools in your research.

Best Wishes.

*Wayne*

Wayne K. Hoy  
Fawcett Professor Emeritus in  
Education Administration  
The Ohio State University  
[www.waynekhoy.com](http://www.waynekhoy.com)

7655 Pebble Creek circle, #301  
Naples, FL 34108  
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Phone: 239 595 5732



## Appendix V: Permission to Use School Culture Elements Questionnaire

**Graham Dellar**

Sept. 24, 2019, 11:46 AM

You are most welcome to use the instrument.

Good luck with your research

**Professor Graham Dellar**

BA, Dip Teach, PGradDip C andET Dist, MEd Dist, PhD MAERA; MAARE; FWAIER  
Adjunct Professor of Education  
School of Education  
Faculty of Humanities

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## **Appendix VI: Consent Letter to Sample Secondary Schools**

### **Secondary schools of Addis Ababa city**

Dear All,

I am Teklemariam Bekele Bogale, a PhD candidate in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Haramaya University. I am now at Dissertation Phase and my topic is ‘The Relationship among Leadership Practice, School Culture and Organizational Health in Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa City Administration, Ethiopia’.

Your school was selected to be included as a sample for the Dissertation research among other secondary schools.

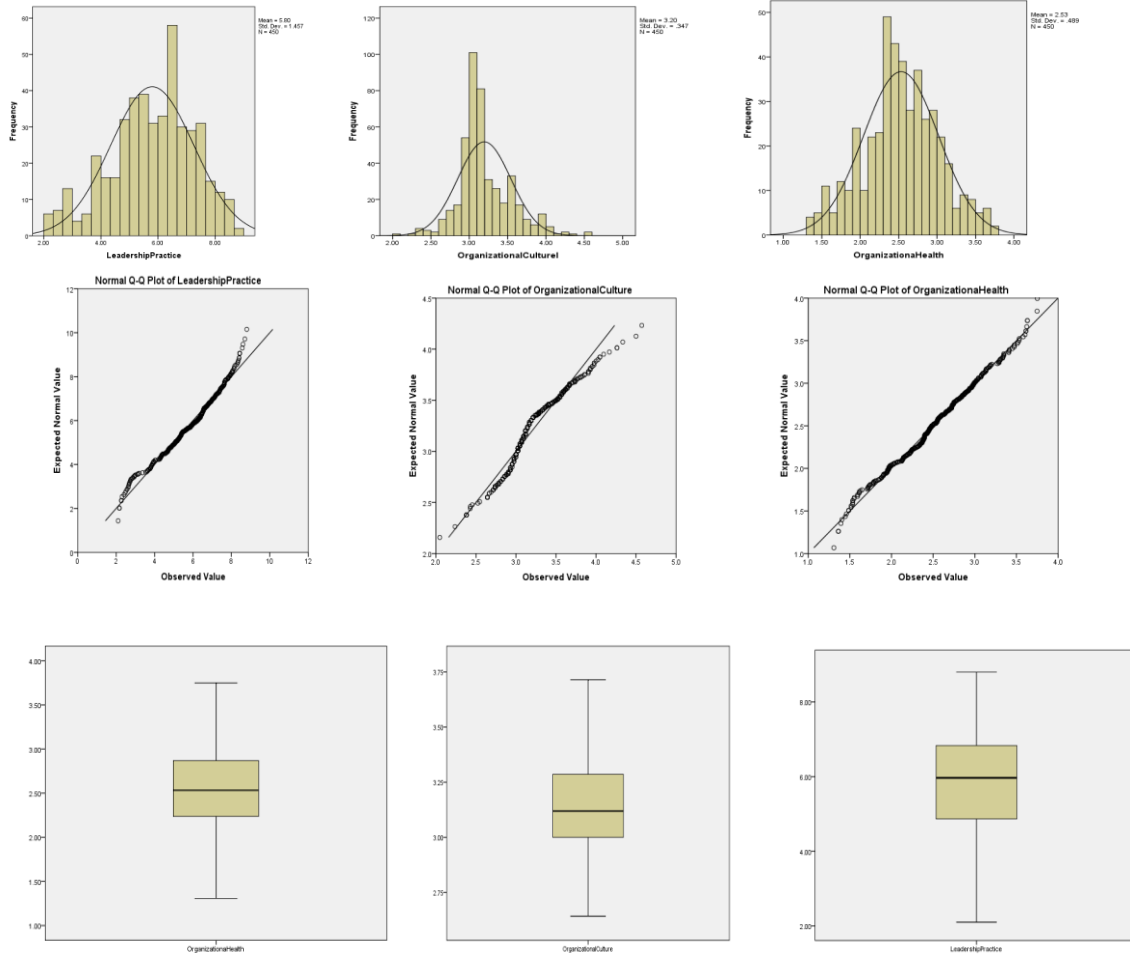
Therefore, I would like to request you to show your consent on the participation of your school and provide me with permission to conduct my dissertation research with utmost ethical principles of research. I would also like to assure you that every piece of information and data I collect from humans, materials, and documents from your school for my dissertation research will be kept confidential and will be used only for academic purposes with maximum care. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

With Regards

Teklemariam Bekele Bogale

## Appendix VII: Test of Normality to Determine Sample Characteristics

The visual inspection of sample characteristics through histogram, Q-Q plot and boxplot is presented as follows.



### Appendix VIII: Model Fit Summary of Leadership, School Culture and Organizational Health (Initial model)

#### Model Fit Summary

Notes for Model (Default model)

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 171

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 135

Degrees of freedom (171 - 135): 36

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 2263.590

Degrees of freedom = 36

Probability level = .000

#### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	39	698.619	132	.000	5.293
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independence model	18	6350.750	153	.000	41.508

#### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.050	.845	.799	.652
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.543	.244	.155	.218

#### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.890	.872	.909	.894	.909
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**Parsimony-Adjusted Measures**

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.863	.768	.784
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

**NCP**

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	566.619	487.595	653.155
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	6197.750	5940.347	6461.482

**FMIN**

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1.556	1.262	1.086	1.455
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	14.144	13.803	13.230	14.391

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.098	.091	.105	.000
Independence model	.300	.294	.307	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	776.619	780.065	936.879	975.879
Saturated model	342.000	357.112	1044.681	1215.681
Independence model	6386.750	6388.341	6460.716	6478.716

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	1.730	1.554	1.922	1.737
Saturated model	.762	.762	.762	.795
Independence model	14.224	13.651	14.812	14.228

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER	HOELTER
	.05	.01
Default model	103	112
Independence model	13	14

## Appendix IX: Model Fit Summary of Leadership, School Culture and Organizational Health (Modified)

### Notes for Model (Default model)

#### Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 171

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 44

Degrees of freedom (171 - 44): 127

#### Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 429.170

Degrees of freedom = 127

Probability level = .000

#### Model Fit Summary

##### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	44	429.170	127	.000	3.379
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independence model	18	6350.750	153	.000	41.508

##### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.050	.904	.871	.672
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.543	.244	.155	.218

##### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.932	.919	.951	.941	.951
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

##### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.830	.774	.790
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

##### NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	302.170	243.020	368.919
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	6197.750	5940.347	6461.482

##### FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.956	.673	.541	.822
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	14.144	13.803	13.230	14.391

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.073	.065	.080	.000
Independence model	.300	.294	.307	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	517.170	521.058	697.977	741.977
Saturated model	342.000	357.112	1044.681	1215.681
Independence model	6386.750	6388.341	6460.716	6478.716

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	1.152	1.020	1.300	1.160
Saturated model	.762	.762	.762	.795
Independence model	14.224	13.651	14.812	14.228

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	162	175
Independence model	13	14



## ASSESSMENT OF NORMALITY

**(Group number 1)**

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
MRL	1.111	3.667	-.063	-.544	-.338	-1.462
AE	1.250	3.875	.021	.183	-.231	-.999
II	1.143	4.000	.042	.362	.000	-.002
SP	1.143	4.857	.208	1.804	.156	.674
TL	1.429	4.571	-.058	-.506	.398	1.724
COLB	1.714	4.429	-.272	-2.358	.558	2.418
RS	1.000	4.000	-.069	-.598	-.301	-1.303
IS	1.000	4.000	-.090	-.778	-.393	-1.703
CSD	1.200	4.000	-.030	-.256	-.433	-1.874
PI	1.000	3.800	-.070	-.609	-.472	-2.043
EH	2.000	9.000	-.328	-2.841	-.389	-1.685
EOA	2.000	9.000	-.455	-3.941	-.429	-1.858
CP	2.000	8.833	-.277	-2.400	-.562	-2.433
ISV	2.333	8.667	-.412	-3.571	-.548	-2.372
MW	2.167	8.667	-.405	-3.507	-.431	-1.867
CLG	1.571	5.000	.319	2.760	.310	1.341
EL	1.857	5.000	-.109	-.945	-.277	-1.200
PV	1.714	4.857	.063	.545	.096	.417
Multivariate					54.450	21.523

## SUMMARY OF BOOTSTRAP ITERATIONS

**(Default model)**

Iterations	Method 0	Method 1	Method 2
1	0	0	0
2	0	0	0
3	0	0	0
4	0	0	0
5	0	0	0
6	0	20	0
7	0	1005	0
8	0	2874	0
9	0	2848	0
10	0	1703	0
11	0	887	0
12	0	354	0
13	0	173	0
14	0	78	0
15	0	31	0
16	0	16	0
17	0	4	0
18	0	3	0
19	0	4	0
Total	0	10000	0

0 bootstrap samples were unused because of a singular covariance matrix.

0 bootstrap samples were unused because a solution was not found.

10000 usable bootstrap samples were obtained.

Standardized Total Effects - Two Tailed Significance (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	...	...
OH	.000	.026	...
MRL	.000	.026	.000
AE	.000	.025	.000
II	.000	.025	.000
SP	.000	.000	...
TL	.000	.000	...
COLB	.000	.000	...
RS	.000	.025	.000
IS	.000	.025	.000
CSD	.000	.025	.000
PI	.000	.025	.000
EH	.000	...	...
EOA	.000	...	...
CP	.000	...	...
ISV	.000	...	...
MW	.000	...	...
CLG	.000	.000	...
EL	.001	.001	...
PV	.000	.000	...

## Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.353	.000	.000
OH	.566	.128	.000
MRL	.000	.000	.780
AE	.000	.000	.809
II	.000	.000	.740
SP	.000	.677	.000
TL	.000	.567	.000
COLB	.000	.565	.000
RS	.000	.000	.842
IS	.000	.000	.784
CSD	.000	.000	.812
PI	.000	.000	.824
EH	.912	.000	.000
EOA	.900	.000	.000
CP	.920	.000	.000
ISV	.941	.000	.000
MW	.932	.000	.000
CLG	.000	.561	.000
EL	.000	.213	.000
PV	.000	.723	.000

## Standardized Direct Effects - Two Tailed Significance (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	...	...
OH	.000	.026	...
MRL	...	...	.000
AE	...	...	.000
II	...	...	.000
SP	...	.000	...
TL	...	.000	...
COLB	...	.000	...
RS	...	...	.000
IS	...	...	.000
CSD	...	...	.000
PI	...	...	.000
EH	.000	...	...
EOA	.000	...	...
CP	.000	...	...
ISV	.000	...	...

	LP	SC	OH
MW	.000	...	...
CLG	...	.000	...
EL	...	.001	...
PV	...	.000	...

**Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)**

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.353	.000	.000
OH	.566	.128	.000
MRL	.000	.000	.780
AE	.000	.000	.809
II	.000	.000	.740
SP	.000	.677	.000
TL	.000	.567	.000
COLB	.000	.565	.000
RS	.000	.000	.842
IS	.000	.000	.784
CSD	.000	.000	.812
PI	.000	.000	.824
EH	.912	.000	.000
EOA	.900	.000	.000
CP	.920	.000	.000
ISV	.941	.000	.000
MW	.932	.000	.000
CLG	.000	.561	.000
EL	.000	.213	.000
PV	.000	.723	.000

## STANDARDIZED INDIRECT EFFECTS

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	.000	.000
OH	.045	.000	.000
MRL	.477	.100	.000
AE	.494	.103	.000
II	.452	.094	.000
SP	.239	.000	.000
TL	.200	.000	.000
COLB	.199	.000	.000
RS	.514	.107	.000
IS	.479	.100	.000
CSD	.496	.104	.000
PI	.503	.105	.000
EH	.000	.000	.000
EOA	.000	.000	.000
CP	.000	.000	.000
ISV	.000	.000	.000
MW	.000	.000	.000
CLG	.198	.000	.000
EL	.075	.000	.000
PV	.255	.000	.000

Standardized Indirect Effects - Two Tailed Significance (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	...	...	...
OH	.019	...	...
MRL	.000	.026	...
AE	.000	.025	...
II	.000	.025	...
SP	.000	...	...
TL	.000	...	...
COLB	.000	...	...
RS	.000	.025	...
IS	.000	.025	...

	LP	SC	OH
CSD	.000	.025	...
PI	.000	.025	...
EH	...	...	...
EOA	...	...	...
CP	...	...	...
ISV	...	...	...
MW	...	...	...
CLG	.000	...	...
EL	.001	...	...
PV	.000	...	...

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default model)

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	.000	.000
OH	.045	.000	.000
MRL	.477	.100	.000
AE	.494	.103	.000
II	.452	.094	.000
SP	.239	.000	.000
TL	.200	.000	.000
COLB	.199	.000	.000
RS	.514	.107	.000
IS	.479	.100	.000
CSD	.496	.104	.000
PI	.503	.105	.000
EH	.000	.000	.000
EOA	.000	.000	.000
CP	.000	.000	.000
ISV	.000	.000	.000
MW	.000	.000	.000
CLG	.198	.000	.000
EL	.075	.000	.000
PV	.255	.000	.000

**Standardized Indirect Effects - Lower Bounds (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)**

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	.000	.000
OH	.007	.000	.000
MRL	.406	.013	.000
AE	.417	.013	.000
II	.384	.012	.000
SP	.161	.000	.000
TL	.124	.000	.000
COLB	.127	.000	.000
RS	.432	.014	.000
IS	.400	.013	.000
CSD	.414	.013	.000
PI	.426	.014	.000
EH	.000	.000	.000
EOA	.000	.000	.000
CP	.000	.000	.000
ISV	.000	.000	.000
MW	.000	.000	.000
CLG	.132	.000	.000
EL	.026	.000	.000
PV	.170	.000	.000

**Standardized Indirect Effects - Upper Bounds (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)**

	LP	SC	OH
SC	.000	.000	.000
OH	.093	.000	.000
MRL	.542	.185	.000
AE	.562	.193	.000
II	.518	.175	.000
SP	.312	.000	.000
TL	.284	.000	.000
COLB	.277	.000	.000
RS	.588	.202	.000
IS	.550	.190	.000
CSD	.569	.197	.000
PI	.572	.195	.000
EH	.000	.000	.000
EOA	.000	.000	.000
CP	.000	.000	.000
ISV	.000	.000	.000

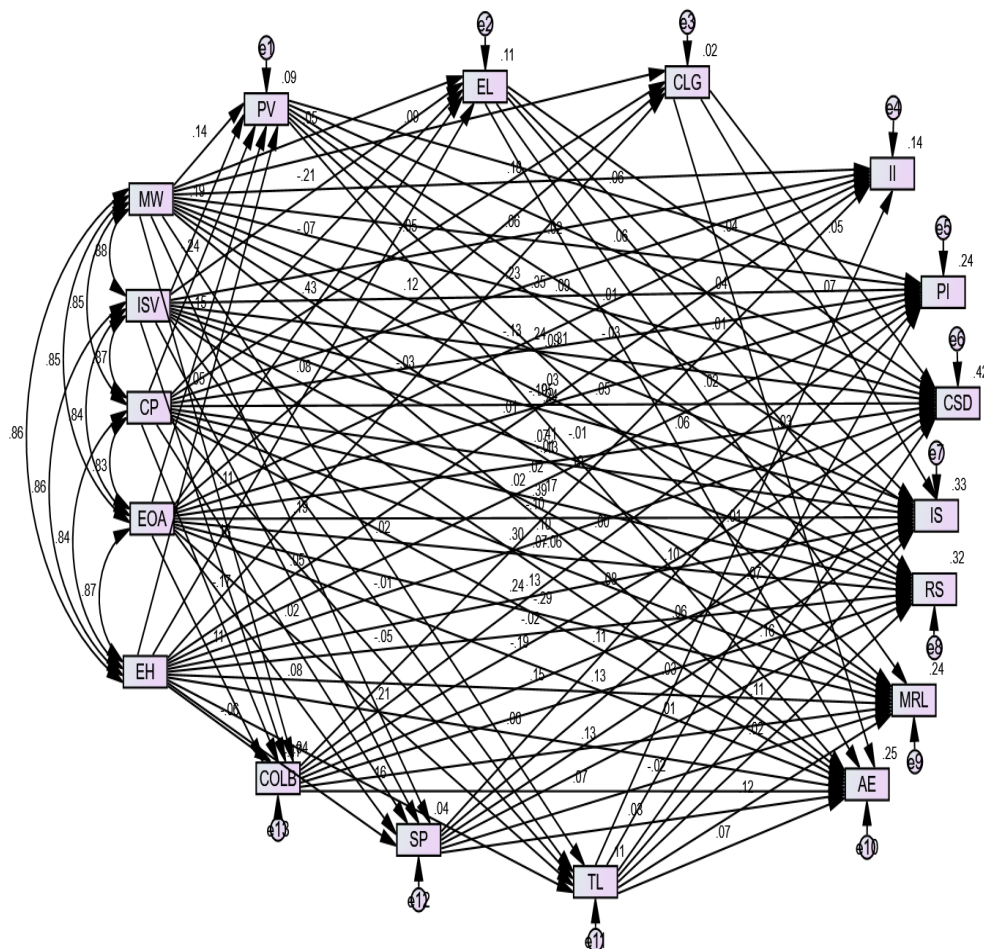


	LP	SC	OH
MW	.000	.000	.000
CLG	.270	.000	.000
EL	.137	.000	.000
PV	.337	.000	.000

**Standardized Indirect Effects - Two Tailed Significance (BC) (Group number 1 - Default model)**

	LP	SC	OH
SC	...	...	...
OH	.019	...	...
MRL	.000	.026	...
AE	.000	.025	...
II	.000	.025	...
SP	.000	...	...
TL	.000	...	...
COLB	.000	...	...
RS	.000	.025	...
IS	.000	.025	...
CSD	.000	.025	...
PI	.000	.025	...
EH	...	...	...
EOA	...	...	...
CP	...	...	...
ISV	...	...	...
MW	...	...	...
CLG	.000	...	...
EL	.001	...	...
PV	.000	...	...

## Appendix X: Initial Model of Leadership, Culture and Organizational Health Subscales



### MODEL FIT SUMMARY FOR INITIAL MODEL OF THE SUBSCALES

#### Notes for Model (Default model)

#### Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments:	171
Number of distinct parameters to be estimated:	135
Degrees of freedom (171 - 135):	36

**Result (Default model)**

Minimum was achieved  
 Chi-square = 2263.590  
 Degrees of freedom = 36  
 Probability level = .000

**CMIN**

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	126	2283.218	45	.000	50.738
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independence model	18	6350.750	153	.000	41.508

**RMR, GFI**

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.055	.529	-.788	.139
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.543	.244	.155	.218

**Baseline Comparisons**

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.640	-.222	.645	-.228	.639
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**Parsimony-Adjusted Measures**

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.294	.188	.188
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

**NCP**

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	2238.218	2085.421	2398.357
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	6197.750	5940.347	6461.482

**FMIN**

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	5.085	4.985	4.645	5.342
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	14.144	13.803	13.230	14.391

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.333	.321	.345	.000
Independence model	.300	.294	.307	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	2535.218	2546.353	3052.983	3178.983
Saturated model	342.000	357.112	1044.681	1215.681
Independence model	6386.750	6388.341	6460.716	6478.716

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	5.646	5.306	6.003	5.671
Saturated model	.762	.762	.762	.795
Independence model	14.224	13.651	14.812	14.228

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	13	14
Independence model	13	14

## MODEL FIT SUMMARY FOR MODIFIED MODEL OF THE SUBSCALES

Notes for Model (Default model)

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 171  
 Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 93  
 Degrees of freedom (171 - 93): 78

### Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved  
 Chi-square = 585.163  
 Degrees of freedom = 78  
 Probability level = .000

### Model Fit Summary

#### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	93	585.163	78	.000	7.502
Saturated model	171	.000	0		
Independence model	18	6350.750	153	.000	41.508

#### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.034	.885	.747	.404
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.543	.244	.155	.218

#### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
	Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model	.908	.819	.919	.839	.918
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

#### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.510	.463	.468
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

**NCP**

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	507.163	433.980	587.822
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	6197.750	5940.347	6461.482

**FMIN**

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1.303	1.130	.967	1.309
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	14.144	13.803	13.230	14.391

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.120	.111	.130	.000
Independence model	.300	.294	.307	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	771.163	779.381	1153.323	1246.323
Saturated model	342.000	357.112	1044.681	1215.681
Independence model	6386.750	6388.341	6460.716	6478.716

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	1.718	1.555	1.897	1.736
Saturated model	.762	.762	.762	.795
Independence model	14.224	13.651	14.812	14.228

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER	HOELTER
	.05	.01
Default model	77	85
Independence model	13	14

## Appendix XI: Linear relationship among the dependent variables

