

**EFFECTIVENESS OF PRINCIPALS' LEADERSHIP STYLES IN
SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC
ACHIEVEMENT IN GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF
OROMIA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA**

PhD DISSERTATION

DIRIBA KENE YADETE

**APRIL 2023
HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY, HARAMAYA**

**Effectiveness of Principals' Leadership Styles in School Improvement and
Students' Academic Achievement in Government Secondary Schools of
Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia**

**A PhD Dissertation Submitted to College of Education and Behavioral
Sciences,
Postgraduate Program Directorate
HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND POLICY
STUDIES**

Diriba Kene Yadete

**April 2023
Haramaya University, Haramaya**

HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM DIRECTORATE (PGPD)

I hereby certify that I have read and evaluated this Dissertation entitled “Effectiveness of Principals’ Leadership Styles in School Improvement and Students’ Academic Achievement in Government Secondary Schools of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia” prepared under my guidance by Diriba Kene. I recommended that it is submitted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement.

- | | | |
|--|-----------|-------|
| 1. <u>Hussien Kedir (PhD; Assoc. Professor)</u> Chairperson, Advisory Committee | _____ | _____ |
| | Signature | Date |
| 2. <u>Garkebo Basha (PhD; Assoc. Professor)</u> Member, Advisory Committee | _____ | _____ |
| | Signature | Date |
| 3. <u>Feyera Dinsa (PhD)</u> Member, Advisory Committee | _____ | _____ |
| | Signature | Date |

As a member of the Board of Examiners of the PhD Dissertation Open Defense Examination, I certify that I have read and evaluated the Dissertation prepared by Diriba Kene and examined the candidate. I recommended that the Dissertation be accepted as fulfilling the Dissertation requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies.

| | | |
|-------------------|-----------|-------|
| _____ | ----- | ----- |
| Chairperson | Signature | Date |
| _____ | ----- | ----- |
| Internal Examiner | Signature | Date |
| _____ | ----- | ----- |
| External Examiner | Signature | Date |

Final approval and acceptance of the Dissertation is contingent upon the submission of its final copy to the Council of Postgraduate Program (CPP) through the candidate’s Department or School Graduate Committee (DGC or SGC).

DEDICATION

I dedicated this Dissertation to my late father Kene Yadete and my mother Letu Lemi for their nursing me with affection and love and for their dedicated partnership in the success of my life.

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.

This Dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for PhD degree at the Haramaya University. The Dissertation is deposited at the University Library and is made available to borrowers under rules of the Library. I formally declare that this Dissertation has not been submitted to any other institution anywhere for the award of any academic degree, diploma, or certificate.

Brief quotations from this Dissertation may be made without special permission provided that accurate and complete acknowledgement of source is made. Requests for permission for extended quotation from or reproduction of this Dissertation in whole or in part may be granted by the head of the school when in his or her judgment the proposed use of the material is in the interests of scholarship. In all other instances, however, permission must be obtained from the author of the Dissertation.

Name: Diriba Kene Yadete

Signature-----.

Date of submission: April 2023

College: Education and Behavioral Sciences

Department: Educational Planning and Management

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|---|
| EdPM | Educational Planning and Management |
| EFA | Education for All |
| ETP | Education and Training Policy |
| FDRE | Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia |
| FGD | Focus Group Discussion |
| GEQIP | General Education Quality Improvement Program |
| GESLCE | General Education School Leaving Certificate Examination |
| HoDs | Heads of Departments |
| IDA | International Development Association |
| MDGs | Millennium Development Goals |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |
| NEAEA | National Education Assessment and Examination Agency |
| OEB | Oromia Education Bureau |
| OECD | Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development |
| ORS | Oromia Regional State |
| PASDEP | Plan for Accelerated and Sustainable Development to end Poverty |
| PTA | Parent-Teacher-Association |
| SCRs | Students' Councils Representatives |
| SIP | School Improvement Program |
| WB | World Bank |

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

The author, Diriba Kene Yadete, was born on 22 April 1977 in *Sululta Woreda*, North Shewa zone, Oromia National Regional State, Ethiopia. He attended primary school in Moye Gajo, junior and secondary school in Chanco Administrative Town. After the completion of his high school education, he joined Adama College of Teachers' Education and graduated in Geography in 2001. He joined the then Haramaya University to pursue Bachelor of Education in Geography and Environmental Studies and graduated in 2007. Following the graduation, he not only taught geography at Deder secondary and Haramaya preparatory schools, but he also served as principal of elementary and preparatory schools in Haramaya Administrative Town of East Hararghe Zone for the last 19 years. He joined School of Graduate Studies of Haramaya University to pursue his Master of Arts degree in Educational Leadership and Management and graduated in 2011. Horizontally, he again joined Postgraduate Program Directorate of the University in 2013 to attend Master of Arts degree in Geography and Environmental Studies and graduated in May 2017. After a year, he continued his PhD program at the University in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies and graduated in 2023.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I convey my deepest thanks to Dr. Befekadu Zeleke (Associate Professor), the former chairperson of advisory committee, for his invaluable professional and academic guidance and mentoring starting from identification and selection of research title, encouragement, as well as very critical and constructive comments on research paradigm and the structure of the first draft proposal development. Equally, I would like to express my deepest thanks and appreciation to Dr. Hussien Kedir (Associate Professor), the current chairperson of advisory committee, as he gave me a very critical and constructive comments, suggestions, insight, guidance and professional expertise from the proposal development to the completion of the research work.

I am also very thankful for members of advisory committee Dr. Garkebo Basha (Associate Professor), and Dr. Feyera Dinsa for their constructive comments, suggestions and guidance at time of title selection and proposal development and for reviewing questionnaires and giving me important comments and suggestions during Dissertation writing. Therefore, without their constructive comments, suggestions and motivation, the completion of this research work would not have been realized.

I am also grateful to Haramaya University; especially Postgraduate Progrma Directorate for it gave me a golden opportunity to pusue my PhD study at the university and covered all costs of courses, articles and dissertation work. I would also like to thank Haramaya administrative town education office for it gave me official and moral support for upgrading.

Since the research study was carried out in six zones of Oromia regional state, Ethiopia, I would like to acknowledge some zones and *Woreda* education offices and their staffs, all principals including one of their vices, heads of departments of the sample secondary schools for they provided me with all necessary information such as filling in questionnaires and being interviewed voluntarily and giving relevant secondary data. Finally, my gratitude goes to my beloved wife Adanech Tsegaye for her encouragement and shouldering a number of family responsibilities while I was busy by activities of this study so as to complete it successfully. I am also grateful to my daughters Nardos and Absalat and my son Robel Diriba for they tolerated me in many aspects.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-------------|
| STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR | iii |
| ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS | iv |
| BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH | v |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | vi |
| LIST OF TABLES | x |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xi |
| LIST OF TABLES IN THE APPENDIX | xii |
| LIST OF ARTICLES | xiii |
| ABSTRACT | xiv |
| 1. INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1. Background of the Study | 1 |
| 1.2. Statement of the Problem | 4 |
| 1.3. Research Questions | 7 |
| 1.4. Objectives of the Study | 7 |
| 1.4.1. General objective | 7 |
| 1.4.2. Specific objectives | 7 |
| 1.5. Significance of the Study | 7 |
| 1.6. Delimitation of the Study | 9 |
| 1.7. Limitations of the Study | 10 |
| 1.8. Definitions of Key Terms | 11 |
| 1.9. Organization of the Study | 12 |
| 2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE | 13 |
| 2.1. Concept of Leadership | 13 |
| 2.2. Theories of Leadership | 15 |
| 2.2.1. Trait theory of leadership | 15 |
| 2.2.2. Behavioral theory of leadership | 18 |
| 2.2.3. Contingency theory of leadership | 24 |
| 2.2.4. Situational theory of leadership | 29 |
| 2.3. Educational Leadership Styles | 32 |
| 2.3.1. Instructional leadership style | 33 |
| 2.3.2. Transformational leadership style | 36 |

Continues...

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 2.3.3. Transactional leadership style | 42 |
| 2.3.4. Participative leadership style | 46 |
| 2.4. An Overview of Qualities of Effective Principals' Leadership | 49 |
| 2.5. An Overview of Education System and Reforms in Ethiopia | 50 |
| 2.5.1. Education Sector Development Programs (ESDP I-V) of Ethiopia | 53 |
| 2.5.2. General Education Quality Improvement Programme (GEQIP) | 56 |
| 2.5.3. National General Education Inspection Guidelines | 59 |
| 2.5.4. Principals' school leadership in Ethiopia | 60 |
| 2.6. Mediated-effects Model on Students' Academic Achievements | 61 |
| 2.7. Conceptual Framework of the Study | 64 |
| 2.8. Summary of Reviews of Related Literature | 66 |
| 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY | 70 |
| 3.1. Description of the Study Area | 70 |
| 3.2. Research Paradigm and Approach | 71 |
| 3.3. Research Design | 73 |
| 3.4. Sources of Data | 75 |
| 3.4.1. Sources of primary data | 76 |
| 3.4.2. Sources of secondary data | 76 |
| 3.5. Population, Sample Size and Sampling Techniques | 76 |
| 3.6. Instruments of Data Collection | 80 |
| 3.6.1. Questionnaire | 80 |
| 3.6.2. Semi-structured interview guide | 81 |
| 3.6.3. Focus group discussion | 82 |
| 3.6.4. Document analysis | 84 |
| 3.7. Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument | 85 |
| 3.7.1. Validity of research instrument | 85 |
| 3.7.2. Reliability of research instrument | 86 |
| 3.8. Methods of Data Analysis | 88 |
| 3.8.1. Methods of quantitative data analysis | 88 |
| 3.8.2. Methods of qualitative data analysis | 90 |
| 3.8.2.1. Analysis methods of semi-structured interview results | 90 |
| 3.8.2.2. Analysis methods of results of focus group discussions | 90 |
| 3.9. Ethical Consideration | 91 |

Continues...

| | |
|---|------------|
| 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS | 93 |
| 4.1. Return rate of survey Instruments and Demographic Variables | 93 |
| 4.1.1. Return rate of survey instruments | 93 |
| 4.1.2. Demographic variables of respondents | 94 |
| 4.2. Results of the Substantive Data | 97 |
| 4.2.1. Identification of dominant school leadership style | 97 |
| 4.2.2. Practices of the school leadership styles | 99 |
| 4.2.2.1. Practices of transformational school leadership style | 99 |
| 4.2.2.2. Practices of instructional school leadership style | 102 |
| 4.2.2.3. Practices of transactional school leadership style | 108 |
| 4.3. Association of Schools' Levels and Students' Academic Achievement | 114 |
| 4.4. Factors Affecting Practices of Principals' School Leadership Styles | 115 |
| 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS | 124 |
| 5.1. Summary of the Major Findings | 125 |
| 5.2. Conclusions | 126 |
| 5.3. Recommendations | 128 |
| 5.4. Implications for Future Research | 131 |
| REFERENCES | 134 |
| APPENDICES | 164 |
| Appendix A: Questionnaire to be filled in by Secondary School Principals | 165 |
| Appendix B: Questionnaire to be filled in by Secondary School Heads of Departments | 170 |
| Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview Guides | 175 |
| Appendix D: General Questions for Focus Group Discussion | 177 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Page |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Summary of target secondary schools and the determined sample size | 78 |
| 2. Summary of total samples and size of research participants | 80 |
| 3. Results of reliability of pilot tested questionnaires items | 87 |
| 4. Return rate of survey questionnaires | 93 |
| 5. Demographic variables of the respondents and descriptive statistics | 95 |
| 6. Identification of dominant leadership styles practiced in the study area | 98 |
| 7. Practices of factors of transformational leadership and results of statistical analyses | 99 |
| 8. Practices of components of instruction leadership and results of statistical analyses | 103 |
| 9. Practices of components of transactional leadership and results of statistical analyses | 108 |
| 10. Level of the sample secondary schools within three consecutive years | 112 |
| 11. Percent of average results of students' academic achievement by zone | 113 |
| 12. Results of correlation between schools' levels and academic achievements | 114 |
| 13. Factors affecting school leadership styles and results of statistical analyses | 115 |
| 14. Challenges of school leadership and results of statistical analyses (continued) | 120 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure | Page |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Managerial grid | 21 |
| 2. Principals' leadership and mediating- effects on students' academic achievement | 65 |
| 3. Map of the study area | 71 |
| 4. Model of principal school leadership and student academic achievement | 132 |

LIST OF TABLES IN THE APPENDIX

| Appendix Table | Page |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Average percent of students' academic results in 10 th and UEE 12 th grades | 178 |
| 2. Level of the individual sample secondary school of east Wollega zone | 180 |
| 3. Level of the individual sample secondary school of east Hararghe zone | 181 |
| 4. Level of the individual sample secondary school of Bale zone | 182 |
| 5. Level of the individual sample secondary school of three zones | 183 |

LIST OF ARTICLES

Diriba Kene, Hussien Kedir, Garkebo Basha and Feyera Dinsa. 2021. Effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in school improvement and students' academic Achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. *Creative Education*, 12(11): 2535-2554. doi: [10.4236/ce.2021.1211190](https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2021.1211190).

Diriba Kene, Hussien Kedir, Garkebo Basha and Feyera Dinsa. 2021. Challenges of effective principals' leadership in school improvement in government secondary schools of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. *Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies*, 23(4):34.

Effectiveness of Principals' Leadership Styles in School Improvement and Students' Academic Achievement in Government Secondary Schools of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at assessing effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in school improvement and students' academic achievement. It adopted pragmatic research paradigm and convergent parallel design. Sampling techniques used were cluster to draw 6 zones of Oromia region out of 20, purposive followed by random to select 80 schools out of 306, 160 principals out of 240, 240 heads of departments out of 320 and 30 interviewees out of the accessible and purposive to take 36 discussants. Data were collected by using self-developed questionnaires, semi-structured interview, focus group discussion and document analysis. Quantitative data were analyzed by using appropriate statistics such as means and standard deviations; independent samples t-test and Pearson's correlation coefficient (r), whereas the qualitative data were analyzed by using narrative and paraphrasing methods. The finding revealed that transformational leadership style was the most dominantly practiced. The study found that the principals practiced transformational and instructional school leadership styles above medium values, but did not bring about change on the schools' status. This was because 86.3% of the sample schools were remained unimproved in their levels within 2018-2021 years. The study indicated that there was a weak correlation between schools' levels and students' academic results. The findings identified that inactive participation of parents in school affairs, low commitment of students for improvement of their academic results, lack of standard facilities and curriculum inputs, weak practices of structures and lack of capacity building for principals were among the main challenges that affected effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles in overall improvement of the schools. The study also verified that existing levels of the schools served as mediated-effect for the students' academic achievement. From these findings, therefore, it was concluded that school leadership styles were not effectively implemented for promotion of the schools improvement to the required levels (level 3 and 4) and to capacitate all students to score the compulsory subjects above pass or average mark. Finally, it was recommended that the principals and other key stakeholders should provide sufficient technical, professional and financial supports in order to bring about the schools to the required levels and sustainably improve students' academic results.

Keywords: Academic achievement, Effectiveness, School leadership challenges, School improvement, School leadership styles.

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the dissertation as introduction of this research study deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, basic research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, definition of key terms and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Leadership has gained the attention of researchers and has been considered as a central issue discussed by a number of scholars around the world (Bryman, Collinson, Grint, Jackson, Uhl-Bien, 2011; Day and Antonakis, 2012). One of main reasons is that leadership is the most important driving force to increase the performance of the organization (Karamat, 2013). Specifically, in educational institutions, leadership role is regarded as indispensable. It could play pivotal roles in upgrading of quality of educators and building of relationships inside and outside of the educational institutions (Day and Sammons, 2016).

Likewise, many researchers have defined the term “leadership” according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon that is of most interest to them (Bauer, 2016; Northouse, 2016). For instance, Aguswara, Wirasti, and Rachmadtullah (2017) defined the term ‘leadership’ as an ability to manage and influence a group of people to achieve the desired goals while Astin, Alexander and Astin (2013) conceptualize it as a purposive process which is inherently based on value.

However, prominent leadership scholars do not agree on how leadership is defined because of the fact that the definitions of leadership have evolved over time and leadership is complex, resulting in an array of perspectives, frameworks, and concepts (Huber, 2002; Northouse, 2016). The scholars agreed on one thing that they cannot come up with a common definition for leadership; therefore, they should live with the paradoxes or ambiguities that exist in definitions of leadership (Gabriel, 2015; Grint, 2005).

Numerous empirical studies indicate that school leadership becomes of great interest in international education as it is increasingly recognized as having a key role to play in

improving student outcomes (Day, Gu and Sammons, 2016; Mulford, 2008). Similarly, other studies reveal that school leadership has been identified in the last few years in several international reports as a key function to assuring quality of education. These reports also show that research on the subject of leadership has increased and has focused on analysis of the leader as a person and on leadership functions and tasks (OECD, 2013; UNESCO, 2012). Furthermore, school leadership has been stressed in many studies that improving school leadership can be the solution to many problems arising in schools (Bolívar, López and Murillo, 2013).

Principals' school leadership has received considerable international interest as it is an influential variable in understanding school effectiveness (Hallinger and Bryant, 2013; Lai, Wang and Shen, 2017). Similarly, effective leadership has been a major area of concern in many educational reforms in the 2000s as can be seen from reports by Barber and Mourshed (2007) and Mourshed, Chijioke and Barber (2010). In those studies, countries' education systems were considered in terms of their academic performance. One major finding in those reports was that educational institutions had improved their student's educational achievement owing to strong school leadership by their principals.

A national education policy of Ethiopia also consistently states that effectiveness of school management and leadership, and principals are becoming more accountable to expectations of school improvement (MoE, 2008). An effective leadership within the school is student-center and teacher focused, promoting collective responsibility for improvement the school (MoE, 2010). Here, leadership by effective leaders of the school is central to success of student learning and outcomes.

For the principals' leadership to be effective in ensuring the provision of good quality of school services, they need to adjust the leadership style to the conditions and context of the school they lead; efforts to improve the performance of the teachers must require a leader who is professional and can control all existing activities (Januar, 2015). A great interest is seen among recent researchers on multiple leadership styles in school settings (Bahadur, Amir, Waheed and Nasir, 2017; Hallinger, 2007). In supporting this idea, Hussin and Waheed (2016) state that the most recognized leadership styles in school contexts are instructional and transformational.

In addition, transformational leadership and instructional leadership are considered as two major aspects of leadership styles (Smith, 2016). Many scholars agree upon that both approaches to school leadership have a significant contribution to school improvement. For instance, Harris and Jones (2015) state that instructional leadership has been widely accepted as a leadership style being capable of contributing to school performance and students' academic achievement. While Jamal (2014) in his study on leadership styles and value system of school principals found that transformational leadership style has positive effect on the improvement and function of school and teaching process in Israel. Moreover, Marks and Printy (2003) pointed out that principals who use transformational and shared instructional leadership styles in an integrated manner have significant positive effect on students' academic achievement.

Numerous scholars (for instance, Kelly and Shaw, 2009; Leithwood, Jantzi and McElheron-Hopkins, 2006) have suggested that leadership style is the second biggest influence on student learning, just behind classroom teaching. In this case, Hallinger's (2010) review of empirical research on principals' school leadership inferred that the principals can have indirect positive effects on student achievement by building a collaborative organizational learning culture, and helping to develop the leadership capacities of staff and community. As these sources, even though the principals do not enter the classroom for teaching, they have roles and responsibilities creating conducive environments.

School improvement is considered as a core of education reform and it is perceived by many as a key to social and economic advance. It contributes to determining personal fulfillment and career paths of individual students and consequently engages the interests of parents and community members (Bush, 2011). In Ethiopian case, school improvement program focuses on enabling students to achieve excellence in academic results through improving educational inputs and process (MoE, 2011).

The school improvement literature internationally affirms that effective school leadership is an important condition for a successful school with other contributing factors such as the characteristics and development of effective school managers and leaders. In this case, evidence about the characteristics and practices of effective school leaders' centers mainly on

the work of principals, notwithstanding current interest internationally in sharing and distribution of leadership practice and influence (Robinson, Hohepa and Lloyd, 2009).

Research on school management and leadership for improvement of the school is not yet well developed (Nimisha and Musa, 2018; Robinson *et al.*, 2009). In case of Ethiopia, there is also a strong need to address a perceived decline in educational quality through nationally-mandated programmes for school improvement (MoE, 2015). Therefore, it was believed that this study could meet the national need (sustainable improvement of academic results through school improvement) if the suggested recommendations are applied well and has an international contribution to the existing literature through assessing effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in school improvement and students' academic achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia Regional State.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Principal's school leadership has a significant influence on school improvement (Nuryana, Nurcahyati, Rahman, Setiawan and Fadillah, 2020). However, Preston and Barnes (2017) assert that role of a principal in a government school is impacted by lack of required resources, multi-faceted responsibilities they shoulder, and expectations of a maintaining a high-profile role within the community. In relation to these constraints a research conducted by Aina (2011) has also shown that some secondary school principals are lacking leadership competencies, resulting in low quality of instruction, indiscipline among staff and students.

The challenges of schools and quality of education in Ethiopia are among the major persistent problems that the country has been facing for years. The main challenges identified by the Ethiopian Ministry of Education (MoE) include limited capacity of management at sector and school level; limited school improvement programme (SIP) implementation capacity at both *woreda* and school levels; unsustainable monitoring and evaluation system of the SIP and students' low academic achievement (MoE, 2010). Recently, result of national study, Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap (2018-2030), demonstrates that school leadership in Ethiopia could not solve challenges of education system through organizing work forces and engaging stakeholders in school activities in order to improve students' learning outcomes (MoE, 2017).

Ethiopian government has devised different intervention strategies and programs in order to alleviate these educational challenges aforementioned. The strategies include introduction of General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP) with the purpose mainly to improve quality of education, within the framework of education and training policy (MoE, 2008), launching Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs, I-V, 2003-2020) among which the ESDP-III gave strong emphasis to strengthen capacity of the education system; improve the school effectiveness and management and expand access to education (MoE, 2005).

In addition to these programs, efforts are made to improve professional skills of school principals and the school improvement process which has been in place is part of the endeavor for the solutions of education quality problems (MoE, 2010). Consequently, as other studies show, Ethiopia has made significant progress in providing citizens, especially students, with access to education. However, still there is a serious lack of quality of education that must be addressed (Belay and Melaku, 2019; EDA, 2010). More specifically, the education system in the country was characterized by low quality of outputs (MoE, 2015; World Bank, 2017).

Ethiopian MoE (2017) also outlines that poor leadership is one of the main contributing factors for low quality of education that is characterized by scoring below 50 percent, particularly in natural sciences in national as well as classroom exams; students' misbehaviors; presence of considerable rates of dropout and repetition. Most of these problems were resulted from the fact that many students did not consider goals of learning, and they were not equipped with adequate knowledge, skills and right attitudes on lessons; instead, they focused plainly on promotion from grade to grade by cheating in national examinations.

In relation to the effects of principals' school leadership on students' academic achievement; numerous studies have been conducted globally. For instance, a research study conducted by Kaleem (2021) on impact of principals' leadership style on schools' climate, teachers' performance and academic achievement of the students in Pakistan indicates that transformational leadership style has significantly great impact on schools' climate and students' academic achievement; Nimisha and Musa (2018) conducted a research on leadership styles of school administrators and teacher in Nigeria and concluded that

transformational leadership style is found to be the most effective type of leadership style used by school administrators.

In Ethiopian context, as available literature shows, some of the educational researchers have conducted empirical studies on principals' school leadership in many different ways and reported their respective findings. Among those, Markos (2021) carried out a study on effectiveness of school leaders in leading their schools and found that the most frequently used leadership style in the primary schools of Kambata zone of Ethiopia is supportive style of leadership.

Dessalegn, Bekalu and Frew (2015) found that there was no significant association between school principal's leadership effectiveness and students' academic achievement and there was no direct relationship between school leadership and students' academic achievement. The study of these researchers covered only one zone of Oromia region and focused on analyzing the association between the principal's school leadership effectiveness and students' academic achievement by employing quantitative research methods.

In contrast, Berhanu's (2016) finding reveals that there was positive association between transformational school leadership style and student academic achievement. Similarly, one of the findings of Shimelis (2017) indicates that principals' leadership practices have direct and strong relationship with students' academic achievement. The finding of the current study did not agree with the finding of Dessalegn et al. (2015) and Shimelis, but it was concurrent with the finding of Berhanu (ibid.). .

This research study differed from the study of Dessalegn et al. (2015), Berhanu (2016) and Shimelis (2017) in that these researchers did not focus on integrated leadership styles of the principals in a study and not give due consideration for school improvement as a significant bridging variable for successful achievement of students' academic results. Therefore, this research study was designed to fill the missed research gap and to alleviate the prevailing education quality problem by assessing the extent to which the principals are effectively practicing school leadership styles for improvement of school in general and students' academic achievement in particular. The study was guided by the following basic questions.

1.3. Research Questions

1. What are the dominant secondary school leadership styles (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and instructional) of the principals in the study area?
2. To what extent do the principals practice the leadership styles for the secondary schools improvement?
3. What relationship does exist between levels of the secondary schools and students' academic achievement?
4. What are the major challenges that affect the effectiveness of the principals' leadership styles for improvement of the secondary schools and students' academic achievement?

1.4. Objectives of the Study

1.4.1. General objective

The main objective of this study was to assess effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in secondary schools improvement and students' academic achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia Regional State.

1.4.2. Specific objectives

In line with the above aforementioned general objective, the specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Find out the dominant secondary schools leadership styles (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and instructional) of the principals in the study area.
2. Examine the extent to what the principals do practice the leadership styles for improvement of the secondary schools..
3. Investigate a correlation between levels of the secondary schools and students' academic achievement.
4. Identify the major challenges that affect the effectiveness of the principals' leadership styles in improving secondary schools and students' academic achievement.

1.5. Significance of the Study

The outcomes of this study may show the extent of effectiveness of the principals in implementing the appropriate school leadership styles, improving the schools and the existed

practical gaps. The outcomes could enable to suggest some more implementable and realistic recommendations which might provide a good opportunity mainly for the principals to practice effectively the school leadership styles. The results may indicate feasible strategies that enable the principals and other school leaders working at different levels in order to increase capacity of implementing different components of school leadership styles targeting at realizing improvement of the school and students' academic achievement.

The findings could not only be used by school leaders, academicians and researchers who work in the Oromia region and Haramaya university, but they could be typical inputs for strategy formulators, policy designers and decision makers at zonal, regional as well as national level in the education sector as the results show the prevailing education quality problems in many different aspects such as weak capacity of implementing plans, programs and strategies designed and escalated down and inadequacy of educational inputs and the required facilities in a real school situations.

The findings may contribute some latest information and add knowledge base to the existing literatures on aspects of school improvement and extend the body of knowledge regarding principals' school leadership styles in the region. The results may be useful in the endeavor of institutional development in such a way that they help to determine how principals' school leadership styles positively or negatively affect students' academic achievement as a result of structurally improved schools' levels in terms of inputs, processes and outputs in the secondary schools. As such the outcomes could be a good instrument in evaluating implementation of the 5th ESDP (2015-2020) even at national level.

Above all, the study would have a great contribution to the personal professional development of the researcher. This meant that by this research work, the researcher has gotten a great deal of experiences of conducting empirical study and learned valuable lessons from both theoretical assumptions and practical aspects of educational as well as school leadership in relation to various models and styles of leadership. Finally, the results of this empirical study may serve as stepping-stone for researchers and academicians who are interested to undertake further research regarding specific issues on effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles in overall sustainable improvement of secondary schools performance and come up with a better and reliable result in the region.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

This study focused on assessing effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in school improvement and students' academic achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia national regional state, Ethiopia. Hence, the study was delimited geographically to some selected secondary schools of six sampled zones of Oromia Regional State (ORS). Methodologically, the study adopted pragmatic research paradigm (mixed approaches of research) and convergent parallel research design. It employed four different instruments of data collection; namely, questionnaires, semi-structured format of interview guides, focus group discussion and document analysis.

The selected secondary schools in the sample zones of the ORS were not exceptional for the other regions of Ethiopia in terms of school leadership practices and anticipated outcomes, but the researcher purposely took the region for its more manageability in terms of time and limitation of resources allocated for this study and its relative closeness to his current working place. The study could have been much more interesting had it been possible to include more secondary schools in the zones of ORS and beyond. However, for the basic reasons explained, the study was undertaken only in the selected secondary schools of sample zones of the region.

In this study, an effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles was independent variable. Conversely, dependent variables, which could be positively or negatively affected by the effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles, were improvement of levels of the sample government secondary schools, on one hand, on the basis of schools' inspection reports of zones and *Woreda* education offices, and improvement of students' academic achievement, on the other hands. The study investigated students' English and mathematics (the two compulsory subjects) results of General Education School Leaving Certificate Examination (GESLCE) and university entrance examination for three (2018, 2019 and 2021) consecutive years.

This study involved many different key stakeholders of the sample secondary schools in the target zones of the ORS. The main reason for involvement was that these stakeholders could affect or be affected by the school leadership. The stakeholders were: principals including one

of their vices, teachers who served as heads of departments in addition to teaching practices in the classrooms, supervisors, Parent-Teacher Associations' (PTAs) representatives and students' councils representative (SCRs), and School Improvement Program (SIP) focal experts. However, this study excluded private and public secondary schools and Oromia city administrations' government secondary schools, *Woreda* and zones education offices' heads and administrative staff except for the principals because of adequate representativeness of the incorporated research participants and the basic research constraints aforementioned.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted only on 80 government secondary schools of six sample zones of Oromia region. The study excluded secondary schools of private, public and in city administrations like Assela and Nekemte within the sampled zones. The restriction of the sample also was made in terms of geographical position, number and ownership of the schools in order to complete the study as per schedule and within framework of budget allocated. Had those schools (the excluded ones) been incorporated in the sample, the study would have generated the best pictures of the current levels of the schools and students' academic achievement as result of effective practices of the principals' school leadership styles. Therefore, findings of this study may not be generalized by inductive inferences to all secondary schools of Ethiopia and even to those of Oromia region with the highest confidence.

Numerous sets of leadership styles have been identified over the world among which this study focused on applications of transformational, instructional and transactional school leadership styles in Ethiopian secondary schools in general and in those of Oromia region in particular. Because of their origin in western (American and European) countries where they were being validated and widely exercised, the selected leadership styles might not fit to socio-economic level and cultural context of Ethiopia.

This circumstance limited researcher's deeper understanding of which school leadership style/s was/were the most appropriate in the study area. This was practically true in that the results of the study indicated that level of implementation of transformational leadership style and the current levels (standards) of the sample secondary schools were somewhat

contradictory. This meant that transformational leadership style was implemented above average (medium point), but the schools did not yet meet their expected levels of development (improvement). As the researcher thought the contradiction might result from either the principals filled in the questionnaire items exaggeratedly or the existence of numerous affecting variables identified by the study. Particularly, the exaggeration has been evidenced when rating scores of the principals were compared with the qualitative results (analysis of data collected via interviews and focus group discussions).

Another limitation of this study was low quality of the secondary data regarding the sample secondary schools' levels and students' academic results. The study did not use any possible mechanism in order to confirm the accuracy of the data directly from the secondary schools by cross-checking. This was because the researcher felt, on the basis of existing situations and bad experiences in relation to students' academic performance (exam cheatings), that the data available in the form of reports may not genuinely reflect the reality on the ground. This in turn affected the results of the study.

1.8. Definitions of Key Terms

Academic achievement: refers to the level of schooling in which students have successfully completed learning and their ability to attain the academic success (Larocque, Kleiman and Darling, 2011).

Effectiveness: refers, more comprehensively, to the successful exercise of personal influence by one or more people that result in accomplishing shared objectives (Cooper and John, 2004).

Leadership: It is a process in which an individual affects other group members to achieve the defined success or organizational objectives (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2013).

Leadership style: It is the relatively consistent pattern of behavior that characterizes a leader (DuBrin, 2016).

Principal: is the person on whose shoulders rest the entire leadership, success or failure of the school (Ogundele, Sambo and Bwol, 2015).

School improvement: refers to a strategy for school change that focuses on the learning and achievement of students (Hopkins, 2005).

School inspection: refers to a means which assures quality of education and accountability by conducting monitoring and evaluation of school performance (MoE, 2013).

Secondary school: refers a school intermediate between elementary school and preparatory school in which general secondary education is offered as current structure of Ethiopian education system (MoE, 2015).

Woreda: refers to an intermediate administrative level between zone and *kebele* under current administrative structure of Ethiopia (MoE, 2010; World Bank, 2001b).

Zone: refers to an administrative level between region and *woreda* to which all government agencies in *woredas* report to their respective offices in zones (MoE, 2006).

1.9. Organization of the Study

This study was organized into five major chapters. The first chapter was introduction where background of the study, statement of the problem, basic research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitation and delimitations of the study, definitions of key terms, and organization of the study were included. The second chapter was review of related and relevant literatures where the concept, characteristics, development and conceptualization of leadership, theories and styles of educational leadership, conceptual framework of the research presented and discussed and at the end, summary of reviews of the related literature was presented. The third chapter presented description of the study area, research paradigm, research design, sources of primary and secondary data, sample size and sampling techniques, instruments of data collection, validity and reliability of research instruments, methods of data analysis and ethical considerations. The fourth chapter was concerned with results, discussions and interpretations of both quantitative and qualitative data, whilst summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study were presented in chapter five.

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter of the dissertation is concerned with related and relevant literature on the concept, characteristics, development, and conceptualization of leadership, theories and educational leadership styles, qualities of effective principal leadership, mediated-effect model, conceptual framework of the study and summary of review of the related literatures. The chapter gives special emphasis to transformational, instructional and transactional school leadership styles. As such, it adapts techniques of exhaustive with selective review of relevant and related literature.

2.1. Concept of Leadership

Leadership is given so many different definitions by researchers on the basis of existing school of thoughts and their perspectives and interests. As such, there are over 1500 definitions of leadership (Kellerman, 2012). The researcher noted that leadership as profession or action has paramount significance in any form of organization. Hence, there are different levels of power, different reasons for leadership, and different models or styles of leadership. These phenomena have made the term to have different kinds of definitions over time. However, this subsection of the chapter focuses on some of the most related and significant literatures enriching the current study.

Regarding the definition, some examples were incorporated in this research study. For instance, Aguswara, Wirasti and Rachmadtullah (2017) defined “leadership” as an ability to manage and influence a group of people to achieve the desired goals. In this sense, a leader can be used to influence the members of a given organization. For Bauer (2016) leadership is about searching for new opinions, support, and solving problems. This concept reveals that leadership in a given setting is applied to solve the existing problem and it helps for searching opportunities in reaching a designed goal.

Other researchers conceptualized leadership differently. As such, he word “leadership” is the name of confidence and belief of a leader to lead with vision, mission and hope. The confidence and belief in leadership help the follower to follow a right person for accomplishment of their desired goals (Barreto, 2009). In other way, Chandra (2010) presented leadership as the process of influencing and supporting others to work

enthusiastically towards achieving objective and as the art to transform people and organization with aim of improving the organization.

Similarly, leadership can be defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2015). According to this author, leadership is also a process of bringing people together to strive to achieve shared goals. Stewart-Banks, Kuofie, Hakim and Branch (2015) add that leadership is a process of influencing and building consensus towards achieving common goals of organization. Moreover, Munoz (2013) finds leadership as an instrument used to facilitate the followers so as to achieve common goals of the organization.

Generally, leadership has been conceptualized in many different approaches but in each of the definitions presented by the researchers above, the term “influence” is consistently used among the others. However, some elements are central to the concept of leadership. These elements are (a) leadership is a process; (b) leadership involves influence; (c) leadership occurs in groups, and (d) leadership involves common goals (Northouse, 2007). The current study tends to adopt a definition given by this author, that is, leadership is a process by which a person influences others to accomplish objectives or a goal, by guiding them to ensure a cohesive and coherent direction.

To the researcher of this study, leadership is an act of setting institutional vision and directing activities of a group of people with a capacity of convincing about why and how the activities are performed and in the process of supporting and motivating them so as to attain the shared institutional and groups’ goals. From the literature discussed under this subsection on concepts and nature or characteristics of leadership, one can imagine that it is impossible to provide detailed summary of leadership under this specific section of the dissertation by referring to all available literatures.

Therefore, as the focus of this study was on effectiveness of principals’ school leadership styles, it is imperative to examine evolution of the leadership through reviewing the four major leadership theories, present and discuss fairly on styles of educational leadership identified by scholars. Above all, this chapter placed more emphasis on instructional, transformational and transactional school leadership styles.

2.2. Theories of Leadership

There are a number of different views of leadership as there are varied characteristics that describe the leaders' qualities and detect leaders from non-leaders (George, 2003). Recently, most of the research works have shifted their attention from traditional trait to a situation theory, which states that the situation in which leadership is practiced in a given organization is decided by the leadership skills and quality of the leader (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009).

There are many different theories of leadership. Great man, trait, contingency, behavioral, process leadership (servant, learning organization, principals' centered and charismatic) and situational. Some authors treat a number of leadership styles/approaches as theories of leadership which creates confusions. Hence, for more clarify, the current researcher attempted to distinguish leadership theories and styles and then discussed accordingly. This subsection of the dissertation presents and discusses, among many others, on four prominent leadership theories as follows:

2.2.1. Trait theory of leadership

Trait is one of the earliest leadership theories which assume that leaders share certain inborn personalities that some people are born with certain traits that those others do not have. This leadership approach dominated the study of leadership until the 1950s, but failed to produce evidence on personal characteristics that influence leadership success (Yukl, 2010). In supporting this idea, Martinez (2003) found in his research that distinguishing leaders from non-leaders as per their traits, personality, social, physical or intellectual attributes dates back to early 1930s.

Moreover, Bryman (1996) states that leadership scholars in the previous eras (within 1930s to 1950s periods) thought that leaders possessed unique characteristics that made them into leaders. The author continues by saying that such scholars began to look for the traits that distinguished leaders from other people. Such early researchers indicate that renowned men like Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln and Roosevelt had exceptional leadership personalities. For Hermann and Egri (2002), the great man theory explains that leaders are born with certain attributes that make them different from other people.

Harrison (2018) adds that the great man, like these mentioned, are natural leaders and they emerge as leaders in all conditions. Thus, not everyone can be a leader and cannot want to be a leader because leadership is seen as a gift from God to human beings (Spector, 2016). Indeed, this theory has an acceptance to lesser extent as empirical evidence shows that 30% of the leaders are genetic (born) and 70% of them are made (Avolio et al., 2009).

According to Stogdill (1974), research into personality traits indicates only one-dimensional approach. Although it is assumed that personality traits are a sufficient way of predicting who is to be a leader, the existing research has shown that this theory is defective. After having carried out a review of 163 research articles in 1974, the author proposed that personality traits should not be assumed to be the only criteria to identify an effective leader from non-effective one. He concludes that there is a necessity of conducting further researches which should include situational factors such as the level of interaction between leaders and followers.

As stated earlier, trait theory of leadership has many weaknesses, including that it neglects the opportunity of leadership skills that the leaders can gain through formal training and education instead of relying solely on inherent personal characteristics that indicate who can be a leader. In addition to this, early trait leadership researchers were also criticized because they completely depended on first (bottom) line managers as their subjects of study, while neglecting the top-level managers (House and Aditya, 1997; Kaiser, Hogan and Craig, 2008). Recent studies also support that trait theories do not explicitly show how the leadership behavior or traits affect leadership outcomes (Northouse, 2016) and the assumptions of the theory are speculative and the theory lacks empirical tests and research (Harrison, 2018).

Moreover, the theory does not take into account characteristics of subordinates and context within which leadership will occur (Robbins, 2001; Stogdill, 1974). Similarly, great man theory has been examined and criticized on that it showed a gender-based discrimination, but it gave more emphasis for masculine elements. This implies that women's roles and contributions in leadership are neglected in the theory despite that fact that they could be leaders as the men. As stated in many sources, the great man theory and trait theory were not discussed and presented separately; instead, they have been discussed together as the same

entities. The need for separation is that the theories have common characteristics and they are two different theories in terms of their assumptions (Grint, 2011; Spector, 2016).

This means that a great man theory argues that the leader's characteristics are inborn (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991). This theory was founded on the fact that many great leaders have become who they were without any training and have accomplished great things such as building the Great Wall of China or Leading a French Revolution. Those leaders seemed to have the right skills and one is either born with it or without it (Chand, 2018).

On contrary to the above theory (great man), trait theory claims that the leader's characteristics can be innate and acquired after birth or learned through life long. So that what distinguishes the leader from non-leader people is that the leader has a whole set of congenital and subsequently acquired characteristics (Pierce and Dunham, 1990). However, both theories have not been supported by scientific research and tests (Harrison, 2018). Even there are inconsistencies among the limited studies conducted on the characteristics of the leaders (Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt, 2002). In addition, Schriesheim, Tolliver and Behling (2001) contend that these earliest theories are criticized for they neglected the environmental conditions and factors which have a great potential in determining nature of the leaders. None of these theories claims can be supported by empirical evidence and are pure conjecture (Chand, 2018).

In sum, the earliest theories (the great man and trait theories) of leadership concentrates their focus on characteristics that those served as special approaches in order to distinguish men leaders from non-leader ones (Martinez, 2003) and effective leader from a non-effective one (Stogdill, 1974). However, other factors such as socio-economic and environments situations are not taken into accounts; no description in the theory on how personal or leader's traits affect leadership outcomes (Northouse, 2016); it is not tested adequately in empirical researches (Harrison, 2018) even, as stated earlier, the available research findings do not support one another. In comparison, trait theory claims that the leader's characteristics can be natural and acquired after birth or learned through life long (Pierce and Dunham, 1990), whereas the great man theory assumes that the leader's characteristics are inborn (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).

From practical perspective of the current researcher, the two most common earliest theories especially the great man theory is no this much functional or practical in the contemporary world because its central argument is based only on innate behaviors of men leaders ignoring alternative opportunities of acquiring pertinent leadership characteristics through modern trainings and education and it totally neglects women's roles in leadership. On the other hand, the trait theory of leadership, to some extent, might lay theoretical foundation for leadership development by providing considerable pictures on how different types of individuals' characteristics affect leaders' qualities and it argues that leader's characteristics, unlike in the great man theory, can also be acquired after birth or learned through life long.

2.2.2. Behavioral theory of leadership

Since the 1950s, dissatisfaction and discouragement with great man and trait theories led scholars to search for new ways on what leaders do and how they do it (Krüger and Scheerens, 2012). In other words, behavioral theory emerged when the previous theories became weak in determining behavior of effective leadership and the criticisms addressed to the theories (Harrison, 2018). The failure to describe successful leadership by focusing only on traits of leaders led to a concern of searching for the behavior of the leaders and how this can facilitate or impede leadership success. Thus, behavioral studies of leadership aimed to fill the gaps observed by identifying behaviors that help to differentiate leaders from non-leaders and effective from ineffective leadership.

Robbins (2001) also asserts that behavioral theory aimed to determine the behavioral differences between the effective and ineffective leaders. Therefore, the scholars changed their direction of study from leaders' traits to behavioral approaches of leadership and consequently different patterns of behavior were categorized collectively and labeled as styles. In this case, effectiveness of the leaders relies on their behaviors rather than on the characteristics of the leaders as seen in the great man and trait theories. As such the leaders' behaviors are not congenital, but can be seen and learned (Northouse, 2010) and their effectiveness could be improved through trainings (Goff, 2003).

Behavioral theory assumes that behaviors of the leaders bring the groups or followers together to work for success along the success of the leaders. Therefore, the leaders are not unique to

the member of the group, as seen in the great man and trait theories. This means that the leaders work with the group and leadership effectiveness relies on their acquired behaviors (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015) and the relationship that the leaders have with group members.

Initially, as stated by Northcraft and Neale (1990), behavioral theory was studied in Ohio University studies, Michigan University Studies and Blake and Mouton Management grid. These studies found that leaders' behaviors can generally be categorized into two: task-oriented and relationship-oriented style (Daft, Kendrick and Vershinina, 2010; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman and Humprey, 2011). The task-oriented or the initiating structure style refers to the task while dealing with the needs of the organization (Daft *et al.*, 2010; Gordon, 1991). In contrast, relationship-oriented behavior denotes the need for our understanding of human relations and is related to employee needs (Griffin, 1990; Schriesheim *et al.*, 2001).

Moreover, the relationship-oriented or concern for people behavior denotes a leadership style in which leaders care about their followers as persons, are trusted by the followers, and promote friendship. On the other hand, task-oriented or concern for production is style of leadership in which the leader indicates accurately what followers need to do and develops work schedules for them (Avolio, Richard, Hannah, Walumbwa and Chan, 2009).

As the finding of Michigan University research revealed, the most effective leadership is employee-oriented behavior, whereas the finding of Ohio University research showed that both task-oriented and relationship-oriented are the most effective leadership styles (Robbins, 2001). The finding of Blake and Mouton Managerial Diagram model has a similar pattern in supporting the later finding that the most effective leadership is team leadership style with the highest level of concern for production and concern for employee (Harrison, 2018; Robbins, 2001; Northcraft and Neale, 1990).

The two behavioral dimensions—employee-oriented and the relationship-oriented—of a leader are not independent of each other as he/she can exhibit both behaviors simultaneously at high or low levels. This means that a leader cannot be both production and employee oriented at the same time. This is because the more a leader exhibits employee-oriented behavior, the more he/she moves away from production-oriented behavior (Daft *et al.*, 2010). In addition,

the Universities of Ohio, Michigan and Harvard conducted major research studies as a result of which different leaders' behaviors were recognized (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2012; Schein, 2004).

These leadership behaviors of the leaders were found to be significant antecedents to leadership effectiveness. For those researchers in the above universities, individualized consideration and initiating structure were the basic ones among other behaviors. The former behavior or style refers to the leaders' attention to the task organization of the followers' activities while the latter focuses on leaders' sensitivity to the needs and feelings of their followers. These studies found positive linkages between these factors and many important leadership outcomes, including organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction and extra effort (House and Aditya, 1997; Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

According to Daft et al. (2010), the results of the Ohio and Michigan University research provided basis for the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid. This Grid or model of management focuses its much more attention on two broad behavioral dimensions: concerns for people and concern for results. In this sense, concerns for employee deals with the degree to which a leader takes into consideration needs and interests of a group members and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

On the other hand, the above authors (ibid.) state that the concern for results refers to the degree to which a leader emphasizes concrete objectives, organizational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task. Moreover, the authors defined five leadership styles which have been developed depending on the different combinations of two leadership behaviors aforementioned. The five leadership styles are illustrated in Figure 1 below and followed by brief explanation.

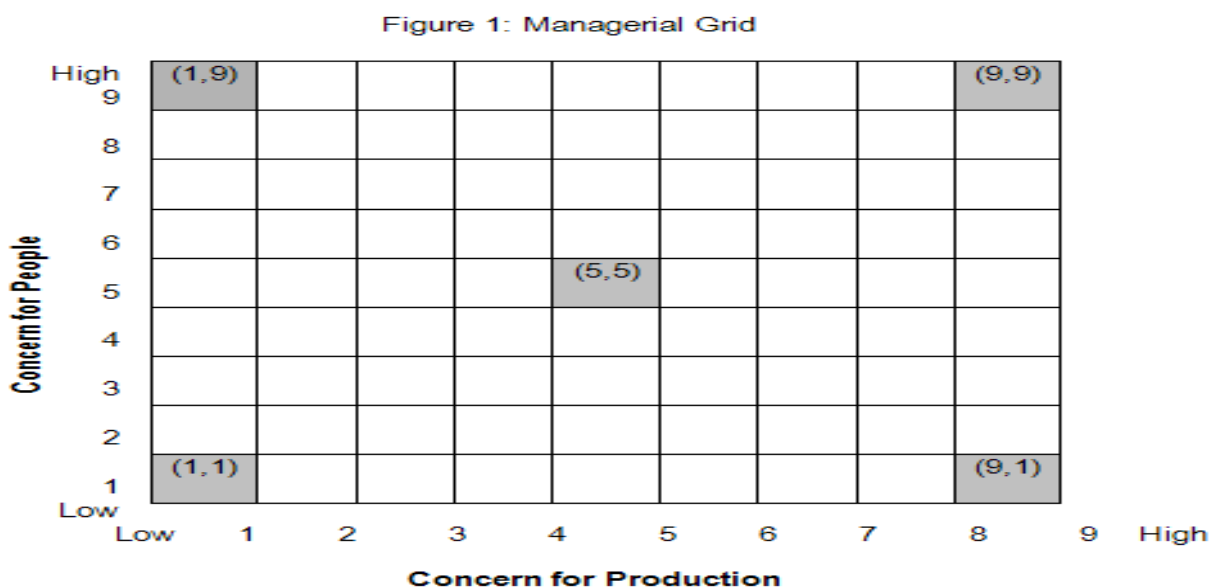


Figure 1. Managerial grid

Source: adopted from The Blake and Mouton managerial grid, 1964

a) Impoverished leadership (1, 1)

The impoverished or "indifferent" leader or manager is mostly ineffective. He or she is characterized by a low regard for creating systems that get the job done, and with little interest in creating a satisfying or motivating team environment, his/her results are inevitably disorganization, dissatisfaction and disharmony (Mohammed and Piyali, 2019). Furthermore, Northouse (2012) confirms that such a leader, adopting impoverished leadership, has nothing to contribute as a leader. Generally, this leadership style/grid shows situation of both behavioral attitudes towards production and towards people is the lowest.

b) Produce or perish leadership (9, 1)

This style of leadership is also known as "authoritarian" or "authority-compliance" managers, or "task management". Leaders in this category believe that their team members are simply a means to an end and the team's needs are always secondary to its productivity. In supporting this idea, Srivastava, Bartol and Locke (2006) argue that followers are undermined in the attainment of the organisation's needs for the reason that such leadership believes that production objectives can only be attained when followers are forced to accomplish the required tasks.

A leader/manager adopting this style/ approach is autocratic has serious work rules, policies and procedures that need to be kept. The leader believes that punishment is an effective way of motivating team members. This means production results gets priority, whereas morale and motivation of team members are undermined by their leader.

c) Middle of the road leadership (5, 5)

A middle of the road or "status quo" is a style of leadership where a leader/manager tries to balance results and people (Hoy and Miskel, 1991), but this strategy is not as effective as it may sound. Through continual compromise, the leader fails to inspire high performance and also fails to meet people's needs fully. The result is that his or her team will likely deliver only mediocre (average) performance. Such type of leader settles for average performance from employees; that, he/she balances interest to results in mediocre production and employee satisfaction. In short, this style of leadership points out the situation of both behavioral attitudes towards production and towards people with midmost (Harrison, 2018).

d) Country club leadership (1, 9)

This style of leader/manager is most concerned about his or her team members' needs and feelings. Such leaders do what is possible in order to maintain a wholesome atmosphere for employees, but show little concern for production (Blake and McCause, 1991). This approach to leadership assumes that as long as they are happy and secure, members will work hard. What tends to be the result is a work environment that is very relaxed and fun, but where productivity suffers because there is a lack of direction and control.

e) Team leadership (9, 9)

According to the Blake and Mouton model, team leadership is the most effective leadership style. It reflects a leader who is passionate about his or her work and who does the best he or she can for the people he works with. In this case, Blake and McCause (1991) state that a leader shows a high concern for both production and people. Team leaders commit to their organization's goals and mission, motivate the people who report to them, and work hard to get people to stretch themselves to deliver great results.

Team leaders prioritize both the organization's production needs and their followers' needs. They do this by making sure that their team members understand the organization's purpose,

and by involving them in determining production needs. When people are committed to, and have a stake in, the organization's success, their needs and production needs coincide. This creates an environment based on trust and respect, which leads to high satisfaction, motivation and excellent results. Recent studies also confirm that the most effective leadership style under managerial grid (network) or model is team leadership (Harrison, 2018; Robbins, 2001).

Furthermore, finding of Blake and Mouton Managerial grid demonstrated that the most effective leadership is team leadership, with the highest level of behaviors of leaders concern for results (production) and concern for people (employee). Blake and McCauley (1991) also explain that the involvement of workers in every institutional activity creates a favorable atmosphere for them, which makes them bring their loyalty and admiration to the institution. In a nutshell, this leadership style is characterized by the highest situation of both behavioral attitudes towards production and people.

The findings of studies in behavioral theory showed that all of them have reached universal (Folger, 2017; House and Aditya, 1997). However, some of the basic criticisms examined and presented in the great man and trait theories are also seen in the behavioral theory. This indicates all of the theories under consideration have their own limitations with varying degree. In the later theory, many inconsistencies are observed among the findings of the researches of Michigan University, Ohio University and Blake and Mouton Management grid with respect to effective leadership styles or behaviors (Gill 2011; Northouse, 2010). In addition, failure in considering situational factors while explaining leadership styles is the main criticism of this theory because a leadership style does not function effectively in all circumstances so that it can be affected by the conditions (Barling, Christie and Hopton, 2011; Harrison, 2018).

To summarize, the defects observed and examined in the great man and trait theories of leadership laid foundational for emergence of behavioral theory of leadership (Harrison, 2018; Krüger and Scheerens, 2012). The core assumption of this theory was that leaders' behaviors (styles) determine effectiveness of the leaders. The behaviors are two folds: task-oriented and relationship-oriented styles (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman and Humprey, 2011). This theory served as stepping-stone for today's different forms of leadership styles applied in

many different organizations/institutions like schools. However, like the trait and great man theory, behavioral theory of leadership was criticized mainly for it neglected consideration of situational factors that would negatively or positively affect leaders' effectiveness in world of the work (Barling, Christie and Hopton, 2011; Harrison, 2018).

When seen from practical viewpoint in educational institutions, behavioral theory of leadership might have a significant implication for school leadership in Ethiopian educational management system where effectiveness of the principals is taken as a driving force for school improvement. The effectiveness, as described in the theory, can be improved through professional education (educational leadership and management or school leadership) and trainings (in-service or on-job). As such, the principals can evaluate themselves whether they give high concern for teachers as well as administrative staff or the school performance depending on the existing situations. The theory is more implementable if the principals are capable to develop and exercise team leadership in their respective school for it enables them give a balanced concern for school activities and staffs' needs and interests with common objective of improving school performance.

2.2.3. Contingency theory of leadership

Inattention to environmental factors while explaining what effective leadership is, a criticism addressed to great man, trait and behavioral theories became the basic reasons for the emergence of contingency theory. Hence, lack of emphasis on conditions and environments affecting effectiveness of leadership (Harrison, 2018), insufficiency of universal leadership theories and the view that leadership cannot be explained purely by traits and behaviors are the main point of argument for the contingency theory of leadership (Flocy, 2017). The contingency theory claims that a person may be an effective leader in certain conditions or environments, but he/she may not be an effective leader in other conditions or environments (Fiedler, 2006).

In other words, a leadership style that was effective in the past times may not be effective today (ibid.). For these reasons, the contingency theory believes in an existence of many factors that either limit or promote effectiveness of a leadership style (Kraft, 2018). With this regard, Yukl (1989) contended that the personal characteristics of a leader/manager, the characteristics of the followers/subordinates or group, the structural characteristics of the

organization, the nature of the objectives of the organization and the past experiences of the leaders and followers are among the affecting factors. The author continued in saying that, if effective leadership is a function, leadership behavior and conditions are the basic elements of effective leadership.

On the basis of the above arguments, Fiedler`s theory, which is one of the prominent theories of the behavioral leadership, assumes that there is no a best way for managers to lead because situations will create different leadership style requirements for managers. This theory concludes that there is no good or bad leadership style; each person has his or her own preferences for leadership approach (Kest, 2006). Moreover, Blanchard (2008) supports that that there is no one best or unique style of leadership that transcends across all situations. In other words, there is no “one size fits all” approach to leadership, depending on the situation that varies the way of leaders’ behavior. This means that one effective style in some situations could have no effects or even it would have dysfunctional effects in the others situations.

According to Yukl (2006), the contingency theory of leadership attempts to identify which of these situational factors is the most important and predicts which leadership style will be more effective in a given situation. The author states that this theory of leadership is often referred as the ‘it depends’ approach to effective leadership. The theory assumes that there is not one best approach to leadership and stresses the influence of the total set of conditions or circumstances in which the leader must function. Contingency theory suggests that the situation determines which leadership approach will be better rather than saying that one of the two (or a combination) of the approaches is most valuable.

Contingency leadership theory undertakes that leadership characteristics are significantly dependent on contextual factors. So, the theory expresses that there is a need for the leader to adjust his/her behavior based on a rational understanding of the situation and assume a leadership style that is appropriate for the occasion (Bates, 2016; Ghorbani, Zare and Haghani, 2016).With this regard, Scheerens (2012) provides three important situational factors emerge from this view. The first one includes leader-follower association, which mainly concerns with a common belief between them. The second factor is task structure, which mainly comprises the question of whether and to what degree a manager understands

what must be performed in order to make the most of the job. The last element is concerned with the mechanisms on hand to a leader for managing benefits and sanctions.

Moreover, the contingency theory of leadership proposes that leaders do not just act only, but they also react to specific situations. There are many types of theories and models that contribute to contingency leadership theory. Among these, Fiedler's contingency theory, Path-goal theory and the Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model appear to be prominent. These theories are presented and discussed as follows:

a) Fiedler's contingency theory

This theory assumes that when the leader-follower relations are good, the tasks are planned or structured, and leader's position power is high, the most effective leadership is task motivated leadership. On the contrary, when the leader-follower relations are weak, the tasks are unplanned or unstructured, and the leader's position power is low, the most effective leadership is still task motivated leadership. When the leader-follower relations are moderate, the tasks are moderately planned or structured, and the leader's position power is moderate, the most effective leadership is relationship motivated leadership (Daft *et al.*, 2010).

In addition, Fiedler has identified three variables (conditions) that determine the effectiveness of the leader (Northcraft and Neale, 1990; Robbins, 2001; Rue and Byars, 1990). These conditions are the leader-follower relations (may be good, moderate or weak), the task structure (may be structured/planned, moderately structured/moderately planned or unstructured/unplanned) and the position power of the leader (may be strong, moderate or weak). The good leader-follower relations mean that the followers have a high level of trust, love and respect towards the leader, while weak leader-follower relations mean that the follower has a low level of trust, love and respect towards the leader (Gordon, 1991).

Because leadership behaviors are rigid, Fiedler (2006) has suggested that conditions should be adapted to the behavior of leaders by training rather than applying the appropriate leadership style. His theory has contributed to leadership in terms of providing a wide range of leadership behaviors, rather than a polarizing model. However, the theory has been criticized to be built on a lot of variables and data. This means leadership effectiveness necessarily depends on the three interrelated variables: leader-follower relations, aspect of position

power, planning task. Therefore, as the author a leader's effectiveness can be affected when one of the variables is not in the required position.

b) Path-goal theory

The roots of the path-goal theory was developed by House (1971) based on expectation theory (Gordon, 1991). According to the theory, it is the leader's duty to provide information, support or other resources to achieve the objectives of the organization. A finding of path-goal theory reveals that in cases where tasks are uncertain and stressful, directive leadership leads to high job satisfaction, whereas supportive leadership results in high job satisfaction and performance when tasks are certain (structured) and planned. In addition, Whitener (2007) asserts that the path-goal theory suggests that leader behavior influences the motivation, performance, and satisfaction of subordinates. The theory is called path-goal because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates' perception of their work goals, personal goals and paths to goal attainment.

In general, path-goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and they can change their style, as situations require. This theory of leadership states that leaders will be effective if their behavior help subordinates achieve relevant goals. The path-goal theory suggests that leader's behavior influences the motivation, performance, and satisfaction of subordinates. The theory is called path-goal because its major concern is how the leader influences the subordinates' perception of their work goals, personal goals and paths to goal attainment (Whitener, 2007).

When a directive leadership style is applied to employees with high experience and competence, the reluctance (unwillingness) of employees emerges. While tasks are uncertain and complex, participative leadership is the most effective leadership if group members expect clarity and autonomy. While the tasks are uncertain and complex, the achievement-oriented leadership style is determined as the most effective leadership if the expectations of the group members are high. Effective leaders set goals, clarify the path to the goal, and reward the followers when the goal is achieved (House, 1971).

Therefore, the structure of the tasks and followers' expectations based on their qualifications can be specified as the conditions that determine the leadership effectiveness. In this theory,

four different leadership styles were put forward: directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented (Daft *et al.*, 2010; Griffin, 1990; Robbins, 2001). Thus, in cases where tasks are uncertain and stressful, directive leadership leads to high job satisfaction. Supportive leadership results in high job satisfaction and performance when tasks are certain (structured) and planned.

c) Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model

Hersey and Blanchard's Model aims to dwell into facilitator-follower behavior, which helps develop strategies to ensure that the leaders' behavior would stand up to the expectations (Coetzee and White, 2004). This model proposes a contingency theory in which a leader's use of differing leadership behaviors depends upon two interrelated maturity factors; namely, job and psychological maturity. This study found that if the followers are mature, effective leadership style is delegating and if the followers are immature, effective leadership style is telling. If the followers' maturity level is moderate, then effective leadership styles will be selling and participating (Bolman and Deal, 2003). In this model, the maturity dimension was added to the previous dimensions, such as relationship-oriented and task-oriented behaviors.

According to the model, determining the appropriateness of leader's behavior is based on maturity (readiness) of followers (Daft *et al.*, 2010; Robbins, 2001). While psychological maturity is related to the willingness of the followers, work maturity is related to the followers' skills and competencies (Cherry, 2018). In school context, for instance, a teacher who has high level of knowledge and skill in his/her subject matter is self-confident as a result of which he/she requires little principal leadership, while a teacher who has low level of knowledge and skill in his/her subject matter is not self-confident, consequently, he/she demands principals' direct supervision and mentoring (Yukl, 2006). Generally, situational leadership model suggests that leadership styles should be adapted to the context.

In summary, the contingency theory of leadership is continuation of the precede theory, behavioral theory of leadership, arguing that a number of factors can effect effectiveness of leader/manager among which leader behavior is basic element of effective leadership; thus, the theory stresses the influence of the total set of conditions or circumstances in which the leader must function. In most case, scholars (for instance, Blanchard, 2008; Kest, 2006; Yukl,

2006) agree with absence of one best leadership approach functions in all situations. However, like other theories discussed earlier, contingency theories of leadership had considerable weakness among which the most prominent criticisms directed to them are that they lack adequate research in order to test assumptions of theory and fail to account for how certain demographic characteristics affect the leader-subordinate relations (Shonhiwa, 2016) and being built on a lot of variables and data.

From literature review of Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model, the researcher learned that an institutional leader can use leadership styles of directive (telling), supportive (selling) and delegative in accordance with maturity level of his/her followers. So, choice of leadership style relies on followers' maturity level. However, in inquirer belief, maturity level, in its all forms, may not be alone sufficient factor to determine appropriate leadership approach. This is because other factors/variable like motivation and working environments would have significant effects.

This model seems to be applicable in school setting as the principals lead teachers and administrative staffs working with different level of experiences and competencies. In this case, the model may be more functional if the principals are professionals of school leadership or educational leadership and management or well trained. This qualification enables them to distinguish and apply an appropriate approach/style among directive (telling), supportive (selling) and delegative leadership styles on the basis school context.

2.2.4. Situational theory of leadership

Situational approach, which is one of the most widely recognized approaches to leadership, was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969). This approach has been refined and revised several times since its inception and it has been used extensively in organizational leadership training and development. Situational leadership focuses on leadership in situations and needs an effective leader who adapts his or her style to the demands of different situations. This form of leadership also stresses that leadership is composed of two dimensions: a directive and a supportive, and that each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation.

The situational theory of leadership emphasizes leadership behaviors along a continuum between task-orientation and relation-orientation. This theory also emphasizes the level of

maturity (readiness) of the followers as a contingency or context that leaders need to account for in order to establish the correct fit between the leader and follower (Bass, 2008). As stated by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001), situational leadership model concludes that no unique leadership style is suitable for all situations.

To determine what is needed in a particular situation, a leader must evaluate his or her employees and assess how competent and committed they are to perform a given task. Based on the assumption that employees' skills and motivation vary over time, situational leadership suggests that leaders should change the degree to which they are directive or supportive to meet the changing needs of subordinates (Blanchard, Zigarmi, and Nelson, 1993; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) proposes that effective leadership requires a rational understanding of the situation and an appropriate response, rather than a charismatic leader with a large group of dedicated followers (Graeff, 1997; Grint, 2011). This leadership theory evolved from a task-oriented versus people-oriented leadership continuum (Bass, 2008; Graeff, 1997; Lorsch, 2010). The continuum represented the extent that the leader focuses on the required tasks or focuses on their relations with their followers. SLT described leadership style, and stressed the need to relate the leader's style to the maturity level of the followers. Task-oriented leaders define the roles for followers, give definite instructions, create organizational patterns, and establish formal communication channels (Bass, 2008; Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1969), situational leadership model describes four primary styles of leadership:

a) Telling (directing) style of leadership

This leadership style, in the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Model, puts a high emphasis on directive behavior and a low emphasis on supportive behavior. A leader's primary concern lay with the task delivery and less with the personal needs of the subordinates. Typical behavior for a leadership style, according to Hersey, is offering step-by-step instructions, clear explanation of the consequences of non-performance and close supervision. In such a situation, it is important that the task is clearly defined and the stages of the process are easy to follow.

This is important because the leader believes that the follower either does not know what to do or is unwilling and therefore he or she requires a certain degree of coercive power. Blanchard, in other words, believes that this style should be used for followers who are highly ‘Enthusiastic Beginners’. They already have the motivation to do the tasks required, which lowers the need for supportive behavior. However, they still lack the competence, which increases their need for directive behavior. In short, the telling style is characterized by telling people what to do and providing them with close supervision.

b) Selling (coaching) style of leadership

This leadership style is the high directive and high supportive. Hersey argued that this style is needed for followers who are willing, but they are not able to perform a task. The leader’s style should; therefore, be concerned with increasing the confidence and skills of followers so that they can ultimately take on more responsibility for their actions. Blanchard, however, believes that this style is necessary for followers, who used to be highly enthusiastic in the beginning, but who lost confidence because their competences are failing them. These ‘Disillusioned Learners’; therefore, need a leader with a higher concern for supportive behavior that helps them to gain confidence and become motivated again. Overall, the selling style involves leaders convincing followers to buy into their ideas and messages.

c) Participating (supporting) style of leadership

Participative style of leadership shows high supportive behaviors, but low directive behaviors. In the process, it may involve listening, praise and a high level of interaction between leader and follower. In addition, the leader puts a high level of trust in the follower to achieve the day-to-day tasks as the follower’s competence has also grown over time. The leader will; therefore, only encourage and offer feedback when needed to motivate and develop the subordinate, but not as a comment on the task performance. This is because the leader believes that the follower is capable enough of achieving the required tasks largely independently. In sum, the participative style of leadership is marked by allowing group members to take a more active role in the decision-making process.

d) Delegating style of leadership

The delegating leadership style assumes a low supportive and a low directive behavior of leader. This is very much a ‘hands-off approach’ as the subordinate is perfectly able and willing to perform the tasks independently and with great responsibility. The leader can further encourage autonomy, while keeping an eye on not overloading the follower with responsibility and not withdrawing completely from the follower’s proximity. For these type of followers, it is; thus, important as a leader to keep observing and monitoring them (albeit to a far lesser degree), in order to provide the necessary support if needed. In general, the delegating style involves taking a “hands-off” (less involvement) approach to leadership and allowing group members to make the majority of decisions.

In sum, there is overlapping condition among the selling (coaching), selling (coaching), participating (supporting) and delegating styles of leadership which even leads to confusion for the readers and practitioners. However, when applied in school settings, the researcher assumed that these leadership styles/ approaches suggested by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) are likely to be used by professional or well-trained principals. It is obvious that teachers and administrative/ supportive staff members develop varying degree of competence, experiences and self-confidence and also would have different motivation level even for specific ask. Well recognition of these characteristics, the principals could adapt one or more (integration) of the leadership styles in accordance with an existing school context.

2.3. Educational Leadership Styles

Bush (2003) identified and developed nine different educational leadership models. The models are: managerial, participative, transformational, interpersonal, transactional, postmodern, contingency, moral and instructional. Similarly, Bass and Avolio (2004) developed Full Range of Leadership Model consisting of transformational (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence), transactional (management-by- exception both active and passive) and laissez-faire (hands-off leadership) leadership. This model has been widely applied in multidisciplinary case including educational organization/institutions.

Among the components of the two models, the current study combined and focused on transformational, transactional, instructional and laissez-faire for their relevance in school leadership. Hence, the study was based on these two models (styles) of educational leadership. Other researchers have also identified many different sets of leadership styles, among those, Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) list six leadership styles that have different effects on workers in organizations like schools. These styles are: autocratic, bureaucratic, laissez-faire, transformational, transactional, and participative. In other ways, Hussin and Waheed (2016) argue that the most recognized leadership styles in school contexts are instructional, transformational and moral.

With this regard, Mulford (2008) often appreciates and advocates more adaptive and multiple oriented leadership styles rather than using a single and rigid leadership style. In supporting, Bush (ibid.) argues that the most successful leaders are those who adapt most or all of the different styles. Others argue that different leadership styles may be required under different circumstances (Yukl, 2012).

Accordingly, the researcher focused on most of the leadership styles aforementioned with placing more emphasis on instructional, transformational and transactional leadership, because they are appropriate for the research topic under study and help to assess the effectiveness of principals' leadership styles. Numerous scholars, for instance, Bush (2003), Jamal (2014), Hussin and Waheed (2016) support that these leadership styles are appropriate for school leadership among many other forms. The researcher also believes that these approaches guide how the school leaders (principals) exhibit the required characteristics. Each of the preferred leadership styles is discussed as follows:

2.3.1. Instructional leadership style

The increasing global emphasis on accountability seems to have a great interest in instructional leadership. Until recently, the considerable and growing body of researches conducted by Mangin and Dunsmore (2015), Neumerski (2013) and The Wallace Foundation, (2012) on principal leadership styles suggested that the instructional leadership construct was still alive in the domains of policy, research and practice in school leadership and management. Balena (2015) adds that the instructional leadership is very imperative approach as it is a critical factor in the success of a school's improvement initiatives and the overall

effectiveness of the school. These scholarly studies clearly show that there is a strong need and interest for development of instructional leadership in the school system.

The term ‘instructional leadership’ comes from North America and it has been superseded in England and elsewhere by the notion of learning centered leadership (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2010). Numerous studies add to this idea that instructional leadership has been derived from the effective schools’ research, primarily in the United State of America (Hallinger, 2005; Nettles and Herrington, 2007; Waters, Marzano and McNulty, 2003). As these studies, instructional leadership was more exercised and validated in North America than other parts of the world. Hence, it is recent phenomena in Africa in general and Ethiopia in particular.

Recently, other studies conducted by scholars (for instance, Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011; Hallinger, 2010, 2011; Heck and Hallinger, 2014; Pashiardis, 2014) demonstrate that instructional leadership style has a strong focus on the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning as the core practices of the school. These studied showed that within the instructional leadership framework, different conceptualizations of leadership have been developed. For instance, definitions given by Bush (2007) and Glover (2000) stress the direction of the influence process that instructional leadership is a form of leadership which focuses on teaching and learning and on the behavior of teachers in working with students.

This school leadership style focusing on the teaching and learning that takes place in school is the most important of all principals’ tasks and learning is supposed to bring about all-round students’ development in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude (Schleicher, 2015). Furthermore, Southworth (2009) stated that instructional leadership is strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional learning of teachers as well as student’s growth.

Furthermore, Rhodes and Brundrett (2010) argue that the learning centered leadership is a concept which is broader than instructional leadership and has greater potential to impact on school and student outcomes. The authors explore the transition from instructional leadership, concerned with ensuring teaching quality, to leadership for learning, which incorporates a wider spectrum (range) of leadership action to support learning and learning outcomes. In supporting this idea, other studies assert that instructional leadership style focuses on the

academic progress of students. These foci include the value of creating clear educational goals, planning the curriculum, and evaluating the quality of teachers and their teaching (Day, Gu and Sammons, 2016).

Strong instructional leadership has been widely recognized as the core factor in school development and plays a substantial role in improving school effectiveness (Allen, Grigsby and Peters, 2015) and quality (Hallinger, Wang, Chen and Liare, 2015). Moreover, another study states that instructional/pedagogical leadership has emphasized the importance of establishing clear educational goals, planning the curriculum and evaluating teachers and teaching. This form of leadership sees the leader's (in this case principal's) prime focus, as an academic responsible body, is promoting better outcomes for students, emphasizing the importance of teaching and learning and enhancing their quality (Robinson, Hohepa, and Lloyd, 2009).

Studies conducted by Daley and Kim (2010), Danielson (2011), Marshall (2012) and Papay (2012) indicate that the basic goals of instructional leadership are: (a) improvement of the teaching profession and teachers, (b) the promotion of effective teachers, and (c) genuine improvement of the deep learning that takes place in schools. Using teacher evaluation practices, efforts are made to improve classroom teaching, to improve the qualitative development of school life, to accelerate the implementation of educational programmes, to identify strengths and weaknesses with regards to teaching and learning, and generally to improve the quality of the schooling process. These studies also claim that monitoring and evaluation are primary constituents of an effective instructional leader. In addition, Hallinger (2003) identifies that this style of leadership involves three key goals: (a) defining the school's goals, (b) supervising the delivery of the curriculum, and (c) encouraging a positive school learning environment.

Instructional leadership style infers that a principal's efforts should be concentrated on the promotion of better outcomes for students, and the importance of improving the quality of classroom teaching and learning (Day *et al.*, 2016). In supporting this, empirical studies conducted by Robinson *et al.* (2008) and Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, and Brown (2014) demonstrate that instructional leadership style can influence student's achievement mainly through improvements to teacher's work conditions and school culture. These studies have

concluded that instructional leadership can have a more noticeable effect on student achievement than transformational leadership, primarily because it places more of an emphasis on the quality of teachers and their teaching.

From the above different studies of scholars concerning instructional leadership, one can notice that the central focus of this form of leadership is improvement of quality of teaching practices targeting at students' academic progress or outcomes. Moreover, in the literatures reviewed, no contradicting ideas are observed, rather they support one another. In line with this, the current study attempted to assess the degree to which the principals practice instructional leadership along with others and brought about positive effects on school improvement and students' academic achievement in Ethiopian secondary schools' context.

2.3.2. Transformational leadership style

According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership is the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the followers. As the author, transformational leadership was basically developed with assumption of setting aside self-interest from both the leader and followers such that goals are achieved for the benefits of all. This approach to leadership is also conceptualized as a process in which leaders and followers increase their motivation and morality while inspiring organizational change through awareness and vision (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006).

Recently, transformational leadership is defined as a form of leadership in which leaders set a common goal and shared vision of the future, inspire followers mentally and show individual consideration to followers (Chi and Huang, 2014). By this attribute, the approach has captured the interest of many researchers in the field of organizational leadership over the past three decades. Within the period, transformational leadership has been "the single most studied and debated idea with the field of leadership" (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). Specifically, transformational leadership is a method by which the school principal will guide and encourage fellow staff to work, communicate the schools' goal and empower them to achieve the schools' vision (Anantha, 2017).

Historically, transformational leadership style was developed by Burns (1978) and later enhanced by Bass (1985, 1998) and others (for instance, Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Tichy and Devanna, 1986). This implies that transformational leadership originated from James MacGregor Burns, who pioneered the concept of transformation in his book titled “Leadership”. The idea was further developed by Bass and Riggio (2006), who pioneered the term transformational which is found throughout academic literature (Breevaart *et al.*, 2014).

Later on, Burns’ book motivated Bass and his associates to develop the transformational leadership model that subdivided leadership into a two-pronged theory: transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Bass and Riggio, 2006). In supporting this scope, Bass (2002) argues that leaders could be both transformational and transactional and they could complement each other. Apartly, the major premise of the transformational leadership theory is the leader’s ability to motivate the followers to accomplish more than what the followers planned to accomplish (Krishnan, 2005).

Transformational leadership promotes followers’ adaptive performance, and its practice has a built-in linkage with the emergence of adaptive behavior which involves the capacity to work imaginatively and gain knowledge of new skills, the ability to deal with demanding circumstances, as well as the competence to contain varied social environments. These capacities should be particularly well addressed by transformational leaders (Charbonnier, Akremi, and Vandenberghe, 2010).

Transformational leadership focuses on stimulating and inspiring followers to achieve both extraordinary outcomes and develop their own leadership capacity (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Bass (2002) also stated that transformational leadership emphasizes the growth and development of an organization’s followers and its goals. In connection to these ideas, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) assert that transformational leadership gets characterized in four different dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

However, Avolio (2010) argues that transformational leaders will not succeed without using transactional leadership style as expectations and goals need to be set and performance needs

to be controlled. In addition, leadership and organizational culture is highly debated in academia because the nature of how leadership affects culture is not a straightforward process (Acar, 2012). For example, transactional leaders do not usually deviate from the status quo of the current culture, while transformational leaders seek to transform the organization through their shared vision. This implies that in organizations where tasks are routine and can be measured consistently through the use of transactional leadership may be more appropriate than the use of transformational leadership (Chaganti, Cook and Smeltz, 2002; Breevaart *et al.*, 2014).

In addition, Ojokuku, Odetayo and Sajuyigbe (2012) state a way how transactional and transformational leadership affects organizational performance has been examined and debated throughout academia; the most research supports that there is a correlation between leadership style and organizational performance, which makes the examination of these approaches a critical issue. In comparison, transformational leadership seeks to enhance vision and awareness, whilst transactional leadership aims to reward or punish based upon performance; it is recognized that both styles can be effective at increasing performance depending on the situation.

When comes to school leadership context, transformational leadership focuses on establishing school culture and vision to enhance the quality of teaching and learning, develop people, and improve the organization (Shatzer *et al.*, 2014). As such, transformation school principals identify a shared school vision, lead and inspire others by example, create a culture of learning, and encourage staff members to undertake professional development. These scholars also noted that transformational leadership style focuses on four key areas: (a) inspirational motivation, (b) individualized consideration (c) idealized influence (charisma), and (d) intellectual stimulation.

Other studies reveal that a greater emphasis of transformational leadership is to influence positively the school environment, teachers' attitude and satisfaction (Bogler, 2005; Griffith, 2004). Furthermore, this form of leadership is good at inspiring and motivating the followers (Bass, 1985). It is aimed at bringing about a radical change in a school's existing state of affairs (Watson and Rivera-McCutchen, 2016). However, numerous studies, for instance, those of Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) and Ross and Gray (2006), have concluded that these

positive impacts of transformational leadership have a much weaker effect on student achievement.

Joint effects of transformational and instructional leadership styles on school performance were examined. Basically, both approaches to leadership differ in several key ways. Hallinger (2003) argues that instructional leadership uses a top down approach where leaders are the predominant decision makers, while transformational leadership offers a more distributed or bottom up approach. In this case, firstly, instructional leaders manage and reward their staff as they work toward a predetermined objective, whereas transformational leaders would involve their staff in the creation of a common vision, and inspire them to achieve it more independently. Secondly, instructional leadership prioritizes making changes with core curriculum, whereas transformational leaders use the shared vision they have created with their staff to support change and guide school reforms.

MacBeath and Dempster (2009) outline that instructional leadership differs from the other styles of leadership because it focusses primarily on the direction and purpose of leaders' influence which target at student learning via teachers. While transformational school principals are expected to be entrepreneurial, innovative, respectful of ethical values, fair, principled and virtuous; they follow technology and scientific developments, renew, modify and improve their schools within the frame of these data, and they lead teachers educationally (Hoy and Tarter, 2004; Greenfield, 2004). However, Marks and Printy (2003) pointed out that principals who use integrated transformational and shared instructional leadership styles have a significant effect on academic achievement of students.

Regarding dimensions, numerous researchers, for instance Bass and Riggio (2006), Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), Bass (2008), and Hargis (2011) identify four main components of transformational leadership. The transformational leader exhibits behavior of each of these components to varying degrees in order to bring about desired organizational outcomes through their followers (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The four components are presented and discussed as follows:

a) Idealized influence

Idealized influence refers to the behaviors of a transformational leader that evokes his or her followers' trust, admiration, respect, and their desires to emulate the leader. These behaviors embody considering the wants of their followers higher than the leader's own interests or gains and demonstrating consistency and smart ethics in their conduct (Bass and Avolio, 1994). In supporting this, Jandaghi, Matin and Farjami (2009) expressed that such leaders demonstrate high standards of ethics. Idealized Influence is also conceptualized as the degree to which leaders behave in charismatic ways, causing followers to identify with them (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Moreover, some literatures equate idealized influence with charismatic leadership and explain that these transformational leaders act in a manner that predisposes them to be considered as role models (Gomes, 2014; Ngaithe, K'Aol, Lewa and Ndwiga, 2016). This component has been associated with leaders who have charismas, are ethical and ones who are able to effectively communicate vision of their organization to subordinates (Ngaithe *et al.*, 2016). These leaders manifest strong personal values that set them apart from the rest and establish positive images for their followers (Gomes, 2014).

Certain specific behaviors have been used to characterize idealized influence of transformational leaders. First, these groups of leaders are usually great communicators of inspiring vision to followers. In other words, they are competent in communicating their vision to subordinates in ways that they can very easily understand, providing credible and sufficient information to make possible the attainment of the vision or objectives by subordinates (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002). Secondly, these leaders have a tendency of utilizing reinforcement systems to recognize the involvement of the people they lead towards the established vision (Ngaithe *et al.*, 2016). Through reward mechanisms, these leaders can effectively reinforce what they value and motivate employees to perform their best to realize the established vision (Gomes, 2014).

b) Intellectual stimulation

This subcomponent of transformational leadership is the degree to which leaders challenge assumptions, take risks, and solicit followers' ideas. The leaders inculcate creativity and innovativeness among school members and in teaching and learning process; challenge the status quo, help the followers to identify new approaches when faced with difficult situations.

Here, the transformational leaders appeal to followers' intellect, stimulate them to question their assumption, and invite innovative and creative solutions to problems. The leaders focus on enabling members of the organization to think of old problems in new ways and develop innovative ways of dealing with organizational issues (Piccolo and Colquitt, 2006).

Similarly, Northouse (2013) asserts that leaders with intellectual stimulation involve followers in developing new and different solutions to common problems and conducting work in new ways. The leaders challenge the process and confront old and outdated assumptions, traditions and processes. Further, they involve others in the discussion and stimulate new ways of thinking. The leaders stimulate followers to be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leaders and the organization.

Furthermore, leaders with this form of leadership supports followers as they try new approaches and develop innovative ways of dealing with organizational issues. It promotes followers to think things out on their own and engage in careful problem solving. It involves exciting individual's cognitive ability so that he or she can engage in independent thinking in the course of carrying out job responsibilities (Jung, Chow, and Wu, 2003). On the other hands, intellectual stimulation encourages followers to challenge leaders' decisions and group processes (Bass and Steidlmeieropine, 1999).

c) Individualized consideration

Individualized consideration denotes giving personal attention to members of an organization who seem neglected. Development of followers through coaching, mentoring, and teaching is the central indicator of this subcomponent of transformational leadership approach (Kirkbride, 2006). Datche and Mukulu (2015) add that individualized consideration is the degree to which the leaders attend to each follower's needs, act as their mentor or coach and listen to their concerns. Therefore, it is considered as the first factor of transformational leadership style. A leader with this factor demonstrates high concern for their followers, treats them as individuals, and gets to know well about them and listens to both their concerns and ideas. This approach to leadership deals with fundamental transformational leadership behaviors which treat individuals as important contributors to the organizational success (Hoffman and Frost, 2006).

Similarly, Bass and Riggio (2006) state that individualized consideration is the degree to which leaders attend to followers' needs, act as mentors, enabling them to develop and self-actualize, and listen to follower' concerns. As the authors, this factor involves leaders' ability to understand others' needs, helping, developing and supporting others. In this case, transformational leaders provide the followers with helpful advice relevant to each individual. Leaders with this component give personal attention to subordinates, reflect the behavior of treating each employee as an individual and initiate an interest in the long-term development of each employee.

d) Inspirational motivation

This component of transformational leadership involves setting directions, developing a vision for change, making the vision achievable, and motivating followers for change. It is an approach by which transformational leaders energize their followers by articulating a compelling vision of the future. This component is also typified by communicating high performance expectations (Bass, 2008). In supporting this concept, Barine and Minja (2014) assert that encouraging followers in order to elevate their consciousness of the organization's mission, vision and committing to the vision is a key theme of inspirational motivation. According these authors, developing and communicating organizational vision, encouraging workers and working with them, and giving autonomy are the core values of inspirational motivation.

In addition, Yukl (2010) identifies inspirational motivation behaviors as communicating an appealing vision, using symbols to focus on subordinate's effort, and modelling appropriate behaviors. Leaders also use inspirational motivation to sustain employee motivation towards higher productivity levels (Barrick, Thurgood, Smith and Courtright, 2015). Through inspirational motivation, the leaders encourage the junior level employees to communicate their ideas and opinions and in so doing enhance the amount of exchanges within the organization (Datche and Mukulu, 2015).

2.3.3. Transactional leadership style

Transactional leadership is a process of social exchange where the leaders clearly state what followers should do. Here, tasks should be completed successfully either to receive reward or

avoid punishment. As such successful accomplishment of a given task by workers satisfies the leaders' needs (Van Eeden, Cilliers and Van Deventer, 2008). In this concept there are two key variables. First, transactional leadership is an exchange process. Secondly, workers exert themselves either to receive rewards or avoid punishment. Bass (2008) confirms the above idea that transactional leadership focuses on the exchanges that occur between leaders and followers.

According to Sadeghi and Pihie (2012), social exchanges in transactional leadership allow leaders to accomplish their performance objectives, complete required tasks, maintain the current organizational situation, motivate followers through contractual agreement, direct behavior of followers toward achievement of established goals, emphasize extrinsic rewards, avoid unnecessary risks, and focus on improve organizational efficiency. In parallel to this, transactional leadership allows followers to fulfill their own self-interest, minimize workplace anxiety, and concentrate on clear organizational objectives such as increased quality, customer service, reduced costs, and increased production.

Transactional leadership is related to motivating the employees and making them do the works with the help of external motivators such as organizational rewards (Bass, 2000). This leadership form also pays role of reserving the organization. With this regard, Tengilimoğlu (2005) emphasizes that transactional leader generally works with a focus on continuing the works of the past and transferring them to future. However, Nguni, Slegers and Denessen (2006) suggest that transactional leaders are not interested in people's personal development. Furthermore, Northouse (2012) contends that transactional leadership is frequently positioned as a less efficient one than transformational leadership although each one is complementary to the other. In view of these scholars, transactional leadership style is weak in nurturing the employees professionally or personally.

Transactional leadership is built upon four dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive, and laissez-faire. Contingent rewards are incentives and material that is earned after the completion of a task to stimulate motivation (Breevaart *et al.*, 2014). In supporting this, Bass and Riggio (2006) confirm that there are three forms of transactional leadership: contingent rewards, management-by-exception, in

both active and passive forms and laissez-faire leadership. Above all, transactional leadership concentrates on rewarding workers (Barnes, Christensen and Stillman, 2013).

When seen individually or collectively each of the dimensions has its own attribute. As such the contingent reward is seen as fairly effective in motivating constituents to achieve higher levels of performance. Both active and passive management-by-exception occur when managers intervene and organizational performance is subpar, respectively (Breevaart *et al.*, 2014). Leaders who demonstrate active management-by-exception behavior pay attention to issues that arise, set standards, and carefully monitor behavior. Nevertheless, both the active management-by-exception and the passive management-by-exception are not seen as being as effective and may actually be counterproductive (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

A number of empirical evidences support the relationship exists between transactional leadership and effectiveness in some settings (Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson, 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Zhu, Sosik, Riggio and Yang, 2012). Other evidences, however, indicate that, in most case, it has less effect. For instance, transactional leadership is a directive leadership style where leaders indicate the rules to be applied by their subordinates (Gill, 2010; Hytter, 2014). Such leaders do not use any form of consultative or participative or delegative leadership. Consequently, it is often seen as poor and dictatorial leadership style (Gill, 2010).

In addition, it is considered as weak approach to leadership because it seeks to maintain the status quo; it does not promote organizational change like school that leads to more committed employees (Acar, 2012; Breevaart *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, Khan *et al.* (2011) state that transactional as an approach to leadership in a given institution determines that leaders are authoritative, domineering, action-based, and normally interested in watching out for themselves. In other way, it looks at how followers communicate with their leaders, adhere to leaders' expectations so that they can be awarded, praised, or avoid punishment.

Finally, the laissez-faire leadership style is conceived as passive leadership in contrast to active leadership. It implies an absence of leadership. A leader demonstrating the laissez-faire behavior does not set clear goals or participate in decision-making; instead, he/she makes followers responsible for the work. In addition, he/she makes no attempt to influence followers and even does not provide support for them. This style of leadership is different

from those of democratic and participative that allow autonomy, delegation and intervention when standards are not met (Hamidifar, 2010).

Moreover, laissez-faire is a behavior in which the leader abdicates and empowers employees to make decisions beyond their scope (Breevaart *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, employees are never interfered and never intervened (Harrison, 2018). Antonakis and Atwater (2002) also point out that laissez-faire leadership is of a passive nature. It is hardly possible to say that there is a clearly observable relationship between the leader and the followers. It is a non-transactional kind of leadership style because decisions are not made, actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities are ignored, and authority is unused. A leader that exhibits this form of leadership is perceived as someone who shows no concern at all about others' issues.

When applied to leadership, laissez-faire style describes leaders who allow people to work on their own with freedom to do their work and set their own deadlines without getting involved. The leaders play passive role in social participation and individual decision. It can be damaging if team members do not manage their time well or do not have the knowledge, skills, or motivation to do their work effectively (Goodnight, 2011). This statement shows that laissez-faire leadership style represents the avoidance or absence of leadership. Thus, unless a leader assigns knowledgeable and more skilled followers for specific task, the application of this sort of leadership style may lead to failure of institutional performance.

In general, transactional leadership style is conceptualized as setting up and defining agreements or contracts to achieve specific work objectives, discovering individuals' capabilities, and specifying the compensation and rewards that can be expected upon successful completion of the tasks (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The results of both transactional and transformational leadership styles directly affect employee motivation and job satisfaction and directly impact the firm's performance (Acar, 2012; Breevaart *et al.*, 2014).

When taken to educational settings in Ethiopian context, transactional leadership style is typically applicable particularly in secondary schools because it is related to routine experiences. In this case, most of the principals offer publicly different forms of rewards for the best performer of teachers in professional duties of teaching and students who scored the highest. Actually, the rewards are given once in a year at closing ceremony of the schools.

In contrast, the principals being with other members of schools' management bodies may take necessary measures when things deviate from normal schools' rules and regulations. This indicates that transactional leadership style is accompanied with either rewards or punishments when necessary in the schools. In line with this general nature of this leadership style, the current study; therefore, attempted to assess practical aspects of this leadership style directed towards improvement of school and in turn students' academic achievement in secondary schools of Oromia regional state.

2.3.4. Participative leadership style

In the 21st century opportunities are widened in different organizations for the use of modern information technology such as computer networks and system integration; there is a bottom-up flow of information within the enterprise, and these cross-level, multi-dimensional "employee opinions" play an increasingly important role in leadership decision-making. Improving a company's competitive advantage, sustainable development goal and performance is increasingly dependent on the active participation of the organization's employees in decision-making (Chang, Chang, Chen, Seih and Chang, 2021; Jia, Qiu, and Yang, 2021).

The participative leadership approach began to flourish in the 1980s in the guise of management policy initiatives inspired by the new excellence movement and rise of human resources management (Beardwell and Holden, 1997). The participative leadership style has been widely employed in Western countries as one way of securing employees' commitment to organizations (Lashley, 2000; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). Consequently, as reported by Miah and Bird (2007) and Yukl (2002) the essence of the participative leadership style for organizational effectiveness has been examined through a wide range of empirical studies in the United States and other Western countries.

Participative leadership style is widely defined as a democratic leadership style where method of leadership engages all members of a team in identifying important goals, developing strategies and procedures to achieve set goals (Akpoviroro, Bolarinwa and Owotutu, 2018). As a democratic leadership it involves subordinates in organizational decision-making and management, with the aim of effectively enhancing employees' sense of ownership and actively integrating their personal goals into organizational goals. Therefore, in the daily

leadership process, leaders actively implement “participation management” for their subordinates, such as conveying meaningful values, actively organizing reporting and other flexible promotion strategies (Jing, Jianshi, Jinlian, and Yao, 2017).

Participative leadership is the process of making joint decisions or at least sharing influence in decision-making by the supervisor and his or her subordinates (Somech, 2005). Similarly, Grasmic, Davies, and Harbour (2012) assert that participative leaders promote joint decision-making and eliminate hierarchy among team-members. The leaders are a key source of information for employees to access, and this information will collectively shape employees’ beliefs. That is, from a social information processing perspective, repeated observations of the leader’s style can enable employees to construct participative decision- making behaviors that the leader appreciates and encourages (Odoardi, Battistelli, Montani, and Peiró, 2019).

Participative leadership style gives opportunities to employees to share their creative ideas to improve a critical situation. In this case, a participative leader empowers the employees in order to take part in decision-making so that leader will be able to get followers to be devoted towards goal achievement and consequently improvement of organizational performance (Lamb, 2014). A leader’s behavior encourages followers to collaborate at every step of goal setting and task execution. Among virtual and global teams, participative leadership is a leader’s empowering behavior that utilizes and unites diverse talent (Dickson, Lelchook, de Leque and Hanges, 2012).

In addition, a participative leader creates a sense of responsibility in the employees’ mind by giving them role in decision-making (Sauer, 2011). There are two core characteristics of participative leadership: first, employees are consulted before decisions are made in order to solve problems together; second, employees are given resources to support them in the work process (Lam, Huang and Chan, 2015; Li, Liu, and Luo, 2018). In turn, followers or subordinates of a participative leader are more likely to show good performance, organizational citizenship behavior and various other positive behaviors (Miao, Newman and Huang, 2014). The positive side of participative leadership style is that those leaders do not impose their decisions on employees. Instead, they take suggestions and recommendations from the employees and make decisions on the basis of consensus (Somech and Wenderow, 2006).

Key (2000) highlighted participative leadership style as a managerial approach focusing on the employees as individuals, and on the importance of fostering their contributions to the attainment of organizational success. The subordinates are expected to be well trained, prepared and capable so as to participate actively for the attainment of organizational goals. Numerous findings both from empirical studies and meta-analyses have reported that the participative leadership style improves employees' performance and job satisfaction in the workplace (Tuuli and Rawlinson, 2009). In the 21st century, research shows that employees are starting to make more demands on their employers. They want to be parts of a team and they want more involvement in decision-making (Reihaneh and Hussin, 2009).

The participative leadership style can produce high quality and high quantity work for long periods of time. Many employees like the trust they receive and respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale. Typically, the democratic leader (a) allows employees to establish goals; (b) develops plans to help employees evaluate their own performance; (c) encourages employees to grow on the job and be promoted and (d) recognizes and encourages achievement (Robbin, 1994). Potential benefits of this approach include that it increases the quality of the decisions (Scully, Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1995); contributes to the quality of employees' work lives (Somech, 2002); increases employees' satisfaction and organizational commitment (Smylie, Lazarus and Brownlee-Congers, 1996).

In summary, the related literature compiled and reviewed under this subsection gave due attention to conceptualization of the participative leadership style with a core points of distributing authority and power or empowering employees to make decisions with sharing influence and inevitable risk in a given organization. In this review, many findings of scholars consistently indicated that practices of participative leadership enables improve employees' performance and job satisfaction as they feel ownership of their respective organization that can happen if the leaders exhibit participatory and democratic behaviors and their followers are well trained and competent.

When taken to school context in Ethiopia, where decentralized educational management and leadership is established and under function, participative leadership style has importance particularly for collective decision-making and sharing influence and risks on the school issues. By its very nature educational activities need concurrent responsibilities, in one hand,

and individualized contribution for achievement of school goals, on the other hand. This form of leadership is more viable in such a way that schools normally involve teachers, PTAs, students' council in the process of decision-making on major key issues. For this effect, principals need to have democratic behaviors manifested through empowering these key stakeholders in order to take their respective roles and responsibilities directing toward attainment of the schools' collective goals.

In view of the literature reviewed above, the current study attempted, in few items, first together pertinent evidence from the research participants and then analyze whether the secondary school principals developed collective strategic and annual plans and programs of schools being with the concerned bodies, encouraged participation of parents through PTA's in school affairs per as blue print guide, involved other stakeholders in school matters and students (mainly representative councils) in order to implement properly the structures and procedures established for them to take academic responsibilities and nurture self-disciplined culture in their respective schools.

2.4. An Overview of Qualities of Effective Principals' Leadership

According to Adeosun (2009), the principal is the chief administrative officer who plans, organize, direct, coordinate all resources for effective learning within the school environment. Mintzberg (2010) defines that a good leader is a leader who involves and considers others and makes a decision humbly. Harris, Jones, Adams and Cheah (2019) state that schools, whose students do well in academics have the services of those heads that have developed leadership qualities. An approach that can be applied by a principal is a good indicator of the required qualities. For instance, a study conducted by Polatcan and Titrek (2014) found that improving the quality of education is one of the determining factors of the principal's leadership style.

Different leadership styles have their own contribution to students' learning outcomes. For instance, Achimugu (2013) concludes from his research finding that the three major instructional leadership qualities of principals are: provision of conducive learning environment, regular monitoring of teachers attendance to class and encouraging a good work by giving award for best students. As indicated by another study, effective principals influence a variety of school outcomes, including student achievement, through their

recruitment and motivation of quality teachers; ability to identify and articulate school vision and goals; effective allocation of resources; and development of organizational structures to support instruction and learning (Horng, Kalogrides, and Loeb, 2010).

Effective school leaders are expected to: communicate about instructional matters, pay attention to student results, discuss curriculum and instruction issues, focus on how well learning objectives were mastered in communication with students, teachers, and parents, and to be a visible presence in and around the school (Markos, 2021). "...principals today must be instructional leaders capable of developing a team of teachers who deliver effective instruction to every student" (Wallace Foundation, 2013: 6). In these studies, it is noticed that a central point of effective school leadership is enhancing students' various learning outcomes.

Furthermore, Portin, Knapp, Dareff, Feldman, Russell, Samuelson and Yeh (2009) argue that effective principals work primarily to improve student achievement by focusing on the quality of instruction. They have to define and promote high expectations; coordinate teachers' efforts. In supporting this, national policy (Ethiopian education and training policy) document stipulates that effective principals have a clear vision of how the school could serve its students; align resources and priorities with the vision; and could engage other key stakeholders, within and outside the school, in achieving the goals embedded in the vision (MoE, 2013).

In sum, different studies and sources dealing with qualities of effective principals' school leadership raised various issues targeting at students' academic achievement. For this effect, the principals are given core responsibility of school success. Their duties actually begin with planning on what to be done and measured with successful achievement of students' academic results. Above all, studies support that there is a significant association between quality principals' school leadership and students' learning outcomes.

2.5. An Overview of Education System and Reforms in Ethiopia

Education is universally acknowledged in a vast body of literature as an essential element in the process of national development (UNESCO, 2005). In another related study, it is stated as

that education is conceived as the socially organized and regulated process of continuous transference of socially significant experience from the previous generations to the followings. The main way to receive an education is to take a course of training in the system of educational institutions (Lazarev, 2002).

In Ethiopian context, education is also defined as a process by which a person transmits his/her experiences, new findings, and values accumulated over the years, in his/her struggle for survival and development, through generations. Education enables individuals and society to make all-rounded participation in the development process by acquiring knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes (MoE, 1994). Moreover, education, as a very important factor to human development, is of a high priority in the overall development endeavor of the government (MoE, 2015).

An education system with its high quality is needed for development, industrialization, democratization, and security for today and tomorrow. It is a very important factor for human development (Townsend, 2007). In line with these global and national perspectives, the federal government of Ethiopia has been making sustainable efforts in order to bring about socio-economic development in the country by formulating various policies, strategies, and sector development programs. It is of high priority in all development endeavors of the government, which means there is need for an appropriate direction to set a new process in motion and change the current alarming situation of low education quality in Ethiopia (MoE, 2010).

The education system in Ethiopia is decentralized, led at the federal level by a central Ministry of Education, responsible for basic education, and the newly established Ministry of Science and Higher Education (MoSHE) which is responsible for higher education, and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Both ministries work with Regional Education Bureaus (REBs) at the regional level and *Woreda* Education Offices (WEOs) at the lowest level of the system. The REBs are responsible for the administration and management of basic education, TVET, and teacher-training programs and institutions. The Ministry of Education (MoE) formulates policy and guidelines, which are implemented by the various REBs (MoE, 1994).

The Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs) are among strategies of education and training policy of Ethiopia which are under implementation since 1997/98 with an objective of expanding access to make universal primary education in line with the Education For All (EFA) goals, as a result of which encourageable progress has been observed through school construction in order to increase enrollment in all cycles (MoE, 2015a). In this case, for instance, quantitative data reveal that the total number of secondary schools (9th-12th grades) has risen from 369 in 1996/97 to 3,393 in 2016/17; similarly, the number of students at this level increased from 426,495 to 2,559,177 in the same period which is more than a five-fold increase. Oromia region alone shares 31% in secondary school enrolment. However, challenges remain in the realization of quality of education as per the goal of Education and Training Policy (MoE, 2002; 2017).

Although the FDRE's Ministry of Education has, in September 2019, publicized a draft long-term Education Development Roadmap (2018-2030) intended to transform the education sector which is partially under implementation (MoE, 2018). The recent education system relies on the 1994 education and training policy (ETP) laying emphasis on problem-solving ability and democratic culture. The ETP decentralized power, authority, and the management of services to schools, where the provision of education is the concurrent responsibility of federal, regional, and local governments. It stipulates that the federal government has a lion's share in the provision of post-secondary education and plays central roles in setting standards and providing overall policy guidance, monitoring, and evaluation, and support for the entire sector (MoE, 1994).

With regard to structure, Ethiopian general education, comprising grades 1 to 12, had two broad levels, namely, primary education (1st-8th grades) and secondary education (9th-12th grades). In turn these two categories have four layers/cycles: grades 1-4 is labeled as primary first cycle education and grades 5-8 is primary second cycle education. Similarly, the secondary education was divided into two cycles, each with its own specific goals. Grades 9-10 (secondary first cycle education) which provides general secondary education and after being completed the students had two options; that is, they join either preparatory education (grades 11-12 secondary second cycle) as preparation for university, or join technical and vocational education and training (TVET), on the grounds of performance in the secondary education completion certificate examination (MoE, 1994). Among the four tiers, this study

covers the first cycle of secondary school; that is, grade 9-10 and 12th grade which is structured as general secondary school (grade 9-12) since 2020.

2.5.1. Education Sector Development Programs (ESDP I-V) of Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, the education sector has passed through a series of successive rolling Education Sector Development Programs (ESDP I-V) with a focus on the comprehensive development of education sector over a twenty-year period. The main purpose of the ESDPs is to improve educational quality and expand access to education with special emphasis on primary education in rural and underserved areas (MoE, 2008). In addition, in the formulation of the 1st Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP I, 2010-2015), education was given a special attention in the transformation of the economy from agriculture-led to industry-led activity and thereby supporting the manufacturing sector by supplying the required professionals and problem solving technological innovations (MoE, 2018).

The ETP of 1994 has, to date, been the inspiration for four medium-term Education Sector Development Programmes with the main thrust of improving quality, relevance, equity, and efficiency and to expand access with special emphasis on primary education in rural and underserved areas, as well as the promotion of education for girls in an attempt to achieve universal primary education by 2015 (MoE, 2010). Therefore, ESDPs have been formulated by the FDRE's Ministry of Education as program of action with an aim of realizing the goals of the ETP. Although these programs have their own focuses and unique attentions, they give due attention to improvement of quality of education and enlarge access with sound emphasize on primary education.

Until today, five rolling programs were designed and implemented in line with the objectives and goals of ETP of 1994. In 1997 the FDRE launched the first five-year Education Sector Development Program (ESDP-I, 1997/98 to 2001/02) within the framework of ETP as part of a twenty-year plan for the education sector development by deriving its goals and strategies directly from the ETP with special attention of providing greater access to primary education with enhanced equity, quality, and relevance (MoE, 2005).

Following the end of program action plan of the ESDP I in 2001, the second ESDP (ESDP-II, 2002-2005) was launched with overall goals aligned with priorities of Sustainable

Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG); that is, good quality universal primary education by 2015, meeting qualitative and quantitative demand for manpower. The goals of Education For All (EFA) were also treated within ESDP-II in an integrated manner, through a sector wide approach. Moreover, it aimed at increasing primary enrolment, with quality and equity, was the basic theme of primary education. Strategies were designed to improve gender equity, access to education for children of highly marginalized and pastoralist communities and narrowing the urban and rural gap in access to education, and reducing regional disparities (MoE, 2005).

During span of implementation of ESDP-II, the FDRE's Ministry of Education (2005) has made efforts to deepen decentralization at school level. Consequently, decision-making was shifted from regions and zones to districts/*woredas* and municipalities and further to the school level to improve direct response and service delivery. It was during this period that MoE developed guidelines for the organization of education management, community participation, and school management of finance which is under implementation today in schools. According to the MoE (2010), school feeding was identified as a strategy in ESDP-II to raise and maintain school enrolment in order to increase the demand for education amongst chronically food insecure and vulnerable children.

Nevertheless, during the ESDP-II period, the most prominent and persistent challenges facing the education system were lack of quality education; lack of a sufficient number of qualified teachers; weak programme management and implementation capacity which has contributed to lower budget utilization in civil works and procurement; and inadequate planning and management capacity at lower levels of the organizational structures (ESDP-II, 2005). Moreover, the major problems that have faced ESDP-II were the low levels of net enrollment and the disparities between male and female, regional and urban-rural enrollment gaps (MoE, 2010).

ESDP III (2005/2006 -2010/2011) was designed with overall goal of the education sector to achieve the MDGs and meet the objective of National Development Plan; that is, PASDEP (2005-2010) through supplying qualified and trained work force with the necessary quantity and quality at all levels. The focus of ESDP III, particularly for secondary education (9th-12th

grades), was to expand and meet the demand for trained middle and higher level human power and to reflect the intake capacity of the tertiary level (MoE, 2005).

During ESDP-III, Ethiopia made significant progress, in access of education at all levels of the education system, increased at a rapid rate in line with a sharp increase in the number of teachers, opening new secondary schools and higher educational institutions. However, student achievement has not been sufficiently improved and access to general secondary education (9th and 10th grades) was low (MoE, 2015).

The fourth ESDP (ESDP-IV, 2010/2011-2014/2015) aimed to improve access to quality of basic education, to sustain equitable access to quality secondary education services as the basis and bridge to the demand of the economy for middle and higher level human resources and to allow all adult illiterates to participate in a two-year Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) courses. The priorities, with respect to general education, under this program were related to two major objectives: to improve the quality of general education and to increase access and equity. GEQIP has also become an integral part of ESDP-IV (MoE, 2010).

During implementation period of the ESDP-IV, a focus of education policies was shifted towards priority programs which address the remaining challenges of ESDP-III. The main challenges to be addressed include ensuring student completion and academic achievement, ensuring equitable access for basic education, reaching the marginalized and unreached areas, renewing adult education, strengthening the focus on sciences and TVET and improving management capacities and the strengthening of the capacity for knowledge creation and further improvement of the effectiveness of the educational administration at all levels. In spite of great efforts made under GEQIP, in the period of ESDP-IV, student attainment and learning outcomes have not improved in line with targets (MoE, 2015).

ESDP-V (ESDP-V, 2015/16-2019/20) was the fifth medium-term plan which serves as the central strategy document for educational development in Ethiopia. Carrying on the goals of the previous education sector plan, ESDP-V identified two main goals. The first was to improve access to quality primary education to ensure all children acquire the competencies, skills and values that enable them to participate fully in the development of Ethiopia. A concentrated focus of ESDP-V was on a few selected and important policy priorities:

improving teacher quality, developing core foundation skills, reducing high drop out and repetition rates and ensuring relevance of middle and higher level trainings (MoE, 2015).

ESDP-V also focused on improving teaching and learning; maintaining the momentum of expanding equitable access to quality of general education, the relevance of curriculum content and instructional methods including the use of ICT, establishing TVET institutes in all *woredas*, strengthening tertiary education institutions and providing lifelong learning opportunities. Its priorities were also consistent with those of regional and international agreements such as EFA, the Sustainable Development Goals and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The specific priority programmes, from which the key plan goals of ESDP-V derived, were capacity development for improved management, quality, access, and equity of general education, internal efficiency, Adult and non-formal education, TVET and higher education (MoE, 2015).

2.5.2. General Education Quality Improvement Programme (GEQIP)

The Federal government of Ethiopia has devised a program of the General Education Quality Improvement Programme (GEQIP), in addition to ESDPs, in 2008 so as to address the challenges in quality of education, where the emphasis is placed on enhancing student achievement through better teaching and learning processes. The GEQIP is a World Bank pooled funding mechanism that was designed to create the conditions for improved learning outcomes in primary and secondary education. It has focused strongly on improving equity and access to reduce current rates of drop-out and improve completion and progression to secondary schooling. In another angle, the program mainly seeks to increase investment in key inputs, such as textbooks, teacher training and development, and school infrastructure improvements (MoE, 2008).

In 2009, the government of FDRE and World Bank (WB), as well as development partners including Department for International Development (DFID, Finland and United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF), launched the GEQIP, which covers two four-year programs (GEQIP I and II) to help implement ESDP-IV (2010-2015) and ESDP-V (2015/16-2019/20). The GEQIP II (2013-2018) scheduled to close in December 2019, is aligned with the ESDP-V. The successor to GEQIP-II was launched in December 2018, that is, GEQIP-Equity

(GEQIP-E) was launched with International Development Association (IDA) financing of US\$300 million, Program for Results is a five-year program (2018-2022) (World Bank, 2017).

The GEQIP-E is managed by the WB and focuses on improving the learning outcomes of basic education by addressing the following constraints, identified in the WB's Country Partnership Framework for Ethiopia 2017-2021: internal efficiency (e.g. high drop-out rates during the first four years of schooling); equity (particularly gender and regional disparities); and quality (low learning outcomes) (ibid.).

The GEQIP consists of components of the package, namely, the development of teachers and leaders; curriculum, textbooks and assessment; planning of school improvement and of resource use by schools; the use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and the management and administration program (MoE, 2015). Although it is not to examine directly the implementation of the program, the current study puts fair emphasis, among the others, on the school leadership and school improvement program (SIP) for they are more coupled with its objective of assessing effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in improvement of secondary school in the study area.

In order that, SIP is now a well-established approach to improve school standards under ESDP-V as well as GEQIP with the focus of attention on the four domains: teaching and learning, favorable condition and environment for education, school leadership and management, and community participation. The objectives of the program are: (a) to increase significantly the learning acceptance, results and discipline of students, (b) to ensure good governance and democratic practice in schools accountably and responsibly for its ultimate success, and (c) to build the school leadership and management on decentralization whereby enabling schools to have broader administrative autonomy (MoE, 2011).

Hence, the basic goal of SIP is to perform these four school domains and improve the result of students. Several elements are contained under each of these domains; in turn each element has its own standard characteristics. For this program, a guideline was developed by the FDRE's Ministry of Education and it is under implementation in general education sub-sector (MoE, 2011). The SIP has four stages to be followed during its implementation. These are:

a) School self-assessment

This form of assessment is done in order to collect information that will inform the planning activities with overall purpose to collect information on the situation of the school improvement programme standards framework. The information will then be used to develop a three-year school improvement strategic plan and a one-year school improvement action plan. It provides an important baseline of information that will be measured against annually over the next three years. The school self-assessment is conducted by a school improvement committee composed of teachers, students, parents and the local community.

b) Planning

The overall aim of school improvement planning is to analyze information collected during the self-assessment stage, to identify priority areas for improvement in the school each year for the next three years, and then to list information in a three-year school improvement strategic plan and one-year annual action plan which will be undertaken by the school improvement committee.

c) Implementation

The main purpose of the implementation stage in the school improvement programme is to successfully implement the strategic plan and annual action plan. The school improvement committee is responsible for ensuring that the annual action plan is implemented successfully.

d) Monitoring

Monitoring is performed on the implementation of the annual action plan. *Woreda* education experts, as well as school cluster supervisors, and school improvement committee members are expected to monitor the plan (MoE, 2010). In general, it is highlighted in the SIP guideline that the feature of school improvement is the improvement of students' academic result (MoE, 2011). In line with this, the current study strives to examine the improvement of sample secondary schools' levels and in turn the students' academic achievement as a result of effective practices of principals' school leadership styles in the study area.

International studies also share a lot with the above national policy document. For instance, the improvement cycles of school are an integral part of practices, implementation, and

school/district organizations. Plan-Do-Study-Act-Cycles (PDSA-C) require disciplined effort to do in practice. However, the payoff for continual improvement in know-what and know-how is worth the effort and results in noticeable benefits for teachers and students (Leis and Shojania, 2017; Taylor *et al.*, 2014).

2.5.3. National General Education Inspection Guidelines

In Ethiopian context, school inspection guidelines are the current national education sub-sector policy documents developed by FDRE's Ministry of Education in 2013. The guidelines are under implementation throughout all national regional states of Ethiopia, including Oromia region, across all general education sub-sector. The main objectives of these guidelines include to improve the outcomes and ethics of students at national level by improving the quality and effectiveness of education and to provide information about the implementation and impact of General Education Quality Improvement Programme (GEQIP), particularly the School Improvement Programme (SIP), and other initiatives, to improve the quality of education, and to inform policy makers and educationists (MoE, 2013).

The main focus areas of inspection guidelines are based on the learning environment, the school leadership and management, learning-teaching, partnership between parents and the local community and students' outcomes. The guidelines state that inspection of schools will be carried out in accordance with the national inspection framework once every three years, but for these schools that do not meet or reach the expected standard (level three) will be re-inspected after one year to monitor actions taken and to understand school responses to the process (MoE, 2013, 2015).

These guidelines were referenced in this study due to the fact that school inspection is considered as the process of quality assurance which is used to evaluate the overall performance of a school based on clearly defined standards and criteria (MoE, 2010, 2015). They can be a powerful tool for promoting improvement by establishing the minimum levels of quality that all schools should achieve in terms of input, process and output. After proper inspection is completed, it classifies the school into four levels indicating that: level 1 scoring below 50% is found at early stage, level 2 scoring 50-69.99% is fulfilling its standard, level 3 scoring 70-89.99% met the required standard and level 4 scoring 90-100% is well above the standard (MoE, 2013).

Accordingly, inspection outcome reports conducted at national level indicate that 15.7%, 67.30%, 16.7% and 0.24% of secondary schools are found at level, 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively, whilst, of secondary schools of Oromia region, 12.3%, 67.3%, 20.10% and 0.18% are fallen at level, 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. When compared with the national level, the secondary schools of Oromia region are found at required standard, even slightly above the national ones, in level 3 (20.10%) but below the national at level 1 and 4 (ትምህርት ሚኒስቴር፤ ሚያዝያ፣ 2010). The majority of the secondary schools falling at level 2(67.3%) both at national and regional level need improvement.

In line with this issue, the current research study used these national general education inspection guidelines as one of secondary sources in order to assess the extent to which the practice of principals' school leadership styles promote improvement of level of their respective secondary schools within three consecutive years (2018, 2019 and 2021) upon grounds of school inspection outcome reports done either by woreda inspectors or zone education inspectors.

Although the inspection devotes its effort to level of the school in terms of input, process and output, the inspection outcome reports have significant reflection on practices of principals' school leadership styles (seen as process) for school improvement and students' academic achievement (taken as output). Thus, the school inspection guideline is considered as one of the most imperative secondary sources of information for this study. Accordingly, the required data on school improvement were obtained from WEO school inspection's outcome reports regarding levels of their respective secondary schools.

2.5.4. Principals' school leadership in Ethiopia

The federal government of Ethiopia provided a clear provision in order to professionalize educational leadership and improve quality of the field since it has seized political power in 1991 through translation of the policy into action but not fully realized. This is clearly stated that the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy has indicated that educational management will be democratic, professional, coordinated, efficient and effective (MoE, 1994). The educational management will be decentralized to *woreda* and school level

for more participatory decision-making, implementation and monitoring at lower levels of accountability (MoE, 2005).

The school leadership needs to provide leadership along the direction toward the realization of the vision thereby drawing clear vision and developing implementation procedures in collaboration with school community (MoE, 2011). ESDP V will ensure that management of the education sector is both efficient and effective (MoE, 2015). As part of ensuring an effective quality assurance system is in place, school principals and supervisors will be supported through a professional development programme that focuses on school leadership and management.

The implementation of the decentralization policy has led to significant changes. Decision-making on important issues such as the nomination of teachers and other supportive staff members, the assignment of leadership and principals down to the school level and the use of the budget has descended from the regional to the woreda or sub-city levels. All regions have created the necessary woreda offices. In all regions, woredas have now important autonomy, in the management of material, human and financial resources.

A growing number of *woredas* now prepare their own educational development plans. This practice is also going down to the schools (ESDP-IV, MoE, 2015). Efficient school leadership and management will be established in schools in order to enhance the quality of instruction and thereby improve learning achievements (MoE, 2010). A special Leadership and Management Program (LAMP) were initiated to build capacity of school principals and supervisors in planning and management (MoE, 2015).

2.6. Mediated-effects Model on Students' Academic Achievements

Models have been developed over time in order to provide explanation on how school leadership relates to students' learning outcomes. Among numerous findings of empirical researches, the recent ones indicate that effective school leadership creates conditions that support effective teaching and learning and builds capacity for professional learning and change (Mulford and Silins, 2009; Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe, 2008).

According to Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003), there are four theoretical approaches or models that help for understanding the relationship between the principals' leadership styles and the schools' effectiveness. These are the direct effect-model, mediated effect-model, reversed effect-model and the reciprocal effect-model. The current study focused on mediate effect-model among the others for it is more related to the research study and variables investigated.

As stated above researchers have developed various models to understand the relationship between school leadership and student achievement (Hallinger and Heck, 1996, 1998; Leithwood and Levin, 2005; Pounder, Ogawa, and Adams, 1995). In the earlier studies, these researchers were using models in which the relationship between leadership in schools and outcomes at the student level was measured as a direct causal link. In this approach, school leadership is conceptualized as the primary driver for changes in student learning.

Nevertheless, other researchers (e.g., Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis, 1996; Hallinger and Heck, 1998; Krüger, Witziers and Slegers, 2007; Leithwood *et al.*, 2006; Leithwood and Levin, 2005; Mulford and Silins, 2003; Pounder *et al.*, 1995) started to use mediated-effects models, which hypothesize that leaders achieve their effect on school outcomes through indirect paths. In other words, leadership drives growth in student learning by shaping and strengthening the school's capacity for its improvement. Throughout the years, various potential mediating variables have come to light, including the educational vision and goals, mission of the school, staff motivation, teacher classroom practice, and student engagement. Based on this idea, the researchers have suggested usefulness of mediated-effects models to better understand the impact of leadership on institutional outcomes.

In this respect, a mediated-effects models developed by Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982); Dwyer, Barnett, and Lee (1987) and Dwyer, Lee, Barnett, Filby, Rowan, Alpert and Kojimoto (1985) exhibited that school leadership that of principal is no longer proposed as having a direct influence on learning outcomes but as having an indirect influence through the way it has an impact on instructional organization and culture. One of the first studies testing the relationship among leadership and mediating variables (i.e., four functions of effective organizations - goal achievement, integration, adaptation, and latency) and several measures

of school effectiveness (i.e., student achievement, student absenteeism and staff turnover rates) were conducted by Pounder *et al.* (1995).

According to the findings of Pounder *et al.* (1995) on the path analysis, leadership has an indirect impact on the four functions of effective organizations but the effect of leadership on effectiveness of the organization was mediated by the level of both goal achievement and latency or commitment. Drawing on the Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982) model, Hallinger *et al.* (1996) examined the impact of school leadership on student outcomes and found support for the model. His findings showed that the principal's role in establishing a strong school climate and instructional organization appeared to be precisely the area that strongly predicts school effectiveness.

The theoretical framework for the current study was based on a mediated-effects model of effective schools as discussed by Hallinger and Heck (1998). This mediated-effects model provides a more complex representation of administrator effects within schools than does a simple direct effects or moderated effects approach. It is acknowledged that antecedent variables can have an important causal influence that effect desired outcomes such as student achievement. However, the focus of this study is to examine the relationship between the leadership practices of the principal and school and classroom variables, namely school learning environment and teacher satisfaction.

In this model, the variable of the principal's role is assumed to be both a dependent and an independent factor (*ibid.*). As a dependent factor, the principal is subject to the influence of external antecedent factors such as socioeconomic status, or prevailing external environmental conditions such as technological change. As an independent variable, the principal is considered to be the agent of change, influencing directly the actions of teachers, the learning conditions within the school, and the attainment of outcomes such as teacher job satisfaction and indirectly, student learning outcomes.

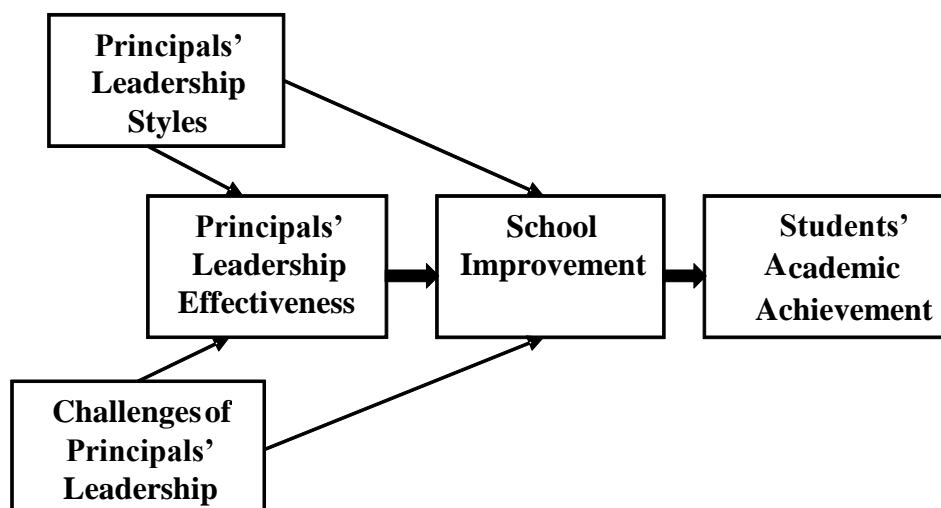
Recently, Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, and Easton (2010) presented a school improvement framework consisting of five core elements: leadership, instructional guidance, professional capacity, parent–community–school ties, and student-centered learning climate. These elements are used to explain how the organization of a school interacts with classroom

life to advance student learning. In other words, as in the earlier studies using mediated-effects models, in this framework the five elements as mediating variables at the school level are distinguished to explain the indirect influence of leadership on school outcomes.

On the basis of framework of mediated-effects models developed and presented by researchers above, the current research study adapted the assumption of the models and attempted to examine effectiveness of principals' leadership styles taking school improvement as the mediating-effect (variable) for the students' academic achievement in the study area. It is obvious that unlike teachers, school principals do not directly intervene in the process of teaching and learning in the classroom rather their primary responsible is creating all possible favorable environments and enabling situations for success of overall school performance. These facts persuaded and inspired the researcher to employ mediated-effect model, among many other types of models, for it is coincided with the researcher's topic under study.

2.7. Conceptual Framework of the Study

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), conceptual framework denotes the researchers' understanding of how the research problem will best be explored; the specific direction the research will have to take, and the relationship between the different variables in the study. Specifically, it lays out the key factors, constructs, or variables, and presumes relationships among them. Based on this broad concept, the researcher constructed a framework for the current study which gives a brief explanation on mediating-effects or factors either hindering or fostering principals' leadership effectiveness in promoting school improvement in general and students 'academic achievement in particular.



Source: Developed by the author

Figure 2. Principals' leadership and mediating- effects on students' academic achievement

As shown in Figure 2, there were some key variables which could contribute to success or failure of school performance. The variables were principals' leadership styles and their effectiveness. These variables together with the then existing challenges of principals' school leadership styles have potential to determine improvement of the school and students' academic achievement.

Regarding principals' leadership styles, Marks and Printy (2003), pointed out that principals who use transformational and shared instructional leadership in integrated form have significant positive effect on academic achievement of students. In addition to this, transformational and transactional leadership styles, which are complementary to each other, increase their final outcomes such as effort, job satisfaction and effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Regarding challenges of principals' school leadership, research findings of Tekalign (2016) depict that weak collaboration among stakeholders, inefficient administrative services, limited commitment of school governing bodies, and inactive participation of parents and local community in school affairs affected implementation of SIP in Ethiopian secondary schools. In relation to this, another study done in Ethiopia shows that poor school organization and management, inadequate teacher training on subject mastery and pedagogical skills,

inadequate school facilities, and insufficient curricular and instructional materials are the key factors attributed to low student achievement (USAID, 2010).

Numerous studies revealed that principals have influence on the academic achievement of students through affecting intermediary variables such as the school's environment (Al-Safran *et al.*, 2013; Johnson, Livingston, Schwartz and Slate, 2000). Additionally, Leithwood and Levin (2004) note that linking leadership to student outcomes in a direct way is very difficult to do. In Ethiopia, School Improvement Program (SIP) with four domains; namely, school leadership and administration, teaching and learning, enabling school environment and community participation targetes at improving students' outcomes including academic achievement (MoE, 2011). Of these domains, the current study placed special emphasis on school leadership and administration or management where the principals have lion's share in facilitating teaching and learning practices which can, in turn, directly affect the students' academic achievement.

Overall, the Figure indicates that effective principals are considered to be the agent of change, influencing directly the actions of teachers, the learning conditions within the school, and the attainment of outcomes such as teacher's job satisfaction and indirectly, student learning outcomes mainly academic achievement. In this case, the principals' school leadership effectiveness can be positively or negatively affected by leadership styles and the prevalent challenges.

These factors will substantially affect school improvement and students' academic achievement. Above all, this framework illustrates that the principals do not have direct effects on students' academic achievement, but through promoting improvement of the schools' levels even though it is not totally applicable as the best academic results can unstructurally be scored in other means without improvement of the schools' standards.

2.8. Summary of Reviews of Related Literature

In this subsection of the chapter, the researcher presented and fairly discussed literatures on the four major theories of leadership; namely, trait, behavioral, contingency and situational theories; similarly, four different styles of school leadership - instructional, transformational, transactional, and participative-relevant to the current study. In doing so, he learned a lot from

the literatures presented in the form of research findings and reviews of longitudinal research works. The review of literature has really helped the researcher to identify different attributes of leaders; convergence and divergence of the scholars' works on the theories and leadership styles revised.

The reviewed literatures showed that the great man and trait as the oldest theories of leadership (being studied between 1930s and 1950s decades) concentrated their foci on characteristics of the leaders that enable researchers to distinguish men leaders from non-leader people and also to identify effective leader from a non-effective one. As the theories clearly and consistently stated, the main way to detect a leader of given organization from other laymen and typical parameter assist to evaluate or judge effective leader is having well understanding of the leader. The personalities to be observed include cognitive abilities, openness, agreeableness and problem solving. The researcher thinks that a leader's personal characteristic or personality does not sufficiently enable to determine effective leader. Therefore, other variables need to be considered thoroughly.

With regard to behavioral theory of leadership, the reviewed literatures demonstrate that the central argument of this theory is that leaders' behaviors are the most determinant factors in identifying effective style of leadership in a given conditions. The researcher highly shares this idea as many different approaches to institutional leadership attribute to effectiveness of a leader in attaining desired institutional goals. For instance, effective application of instructional leadership style could promote students' learning and outcomes than that of other form of approaches as it gives due attention to process of teaching and learning in school settings. This meant right behavior a leader shows determines his/her effectiveness in successfully achieving the desired goals.

The contingency theory of leadership, which is continuation of the behavioral theory of leadership, claims that a person may be an effective leader in certain conditions or environments, but he/she may not be an effective leader in other conditions or environments. This implies that situations in which a leader is acting push him/her apply suitable approach to a prevailing condition. For example, a principal should have a well understanding and knowledge of different leadership styles is capable to apply any of common approaches to leadership in accordance with the prevailing school conditions. This reality implies that

conditions and environments potentially influence a leader whether employ a leadership style or not.

In general, the literatures reviewed taught that each type of leadership styles, mainly production oriented and employee oriented, are important, but its appropriateness is importantly determined by a condition in which an institutional leadership is exercised. Therefore, as this theory, leaders are expected to be well awaked of the organizational condition if want achieve goal set.

Lastly, situational theory of leadership focuses on leadership in situations and needs that a leader is expected to be effective in adapting his or her style to the demands of different situations. This theory of leadership shares a lot of elements with the last two previous theories (behavioral and contingency theory of leadership) in terms of dimensions it treats and variable nature of leadership styles. It places more emphasis on task-oriented and relation-oriented leadership behaviors.

The researcher has learned good lesson that one cannot find a single leadership style that can be fitted to all situations. This indicates that each situation would need its own favorable leadership style. Therefore, it is role and responsibility a leader to distinguish variety of leadership styles' characteristics and practice a suitable one in his or her organization.

Moreover, the situational theory of leadership has a lot to share with the contingency theory of leadership as both of them focus on conditions (situations) and working environments within which the leaders practice an appropriate leadership style. This implies that situations and working environments are potential indicators of which approaches (styles) of the leadership that the leaders should employ at a given time.

Regarding leadership styles, relevant and related literatures were intensively and extensively reviewed and analyzed in all journeys of this research work because school leadership styles were its central business. Among many forms of leadership styles identified and developed by scholars, instructional, transformational, transactional including its avoidance factors (management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire) and participative were widely and thoroughly presented and discussed. Each of these school leadership approaches has its core

focus and nature in overall school improvement. Hence, it is more relevant when these approaches to school leadership were practiced because one form may complete the shortcomings of another one.

Scholars consistently state that transformational leadership style has four main different dimensions (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence); likewise, the transactional leadership style has four components (management by exception-active, management-by-exception both passive and passive and laissez-faire). Hence, any contradicting idea was not observed. However, scholars study leadership models and leadership styles interchangeably. This might sometimes create confusion for researchers and readers. The current study treated the commonly accepted models developed by prominent authors as styles or approaches to school leadership.

Lastly, the reviewed literatures showed that effective principal leadership could be indicated by various quality measuring factors. With this respect, articulation of a clear vision of school, performing management components such as planning, organizing and monitoring, involving others in school leadership and management and promoting students' academic performance are among the main indicators of effective principal leadership. Above all, the review of literatures reveals that the principal's leadership highly focuses on students' academic progress.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter of dissertation includes description of the study area, research paradigm and design, sources of data, sample-size and sampling techniques, instruments of data collection, validity and reliability of research instruments, methods of data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1. Description of the Study Area

This empirical study was designed to be conducted on government secondary schools in six sample zones of Oromia Regional State. According to the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian Constitution (article 47), there were nine regional states and two city administrations: Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa (FDRE, 1995). However, two regional states - Sidama and South east Ethiopia - are currently established. Therefore number of region rose to eleven.

Oromia region alone had 20 zones including Sheger city (newly established) and 19 city administrations. Recently, east Bale zone was established in 2021. Hence, this zone was not included in the sample of the study whose proposal was developed in 2019. The region was the largest and the most populous of the nine regions of Ethiopia with a land area of 363,375 sq. km (about 32% of total area of the country) and its population was about 41 million constituting 37% of the entire population of Ethiopia (UNESCO, 2016).

The administrative capital of the region was Addis Ababa/Finfinne. The region stretched across central Ethiopia and shares boundaries with Kenya, South Sudan and all the other national regional states except Tigray (BoFED, 2013). The region had relatively a large number of educational institutions at different levels. These institutions are 14,470 elementary schools (1st-8th grades), 1137 secondary schools (9th and 10th grades), 384 preparatory schools (11th and 12th grades), 13 Colleges of Teachers' Education and 14 universities (OEB, 2019). This study was conducted on government secondary schools in six sample zones of the Oromia region by taking into consideration its representativeness for the rest zones of the region. The zones were located astronomically between 5⁰-10⁰ North Latitudes and 35⁰ - 43⁰ East Longitudes (Fig.3).

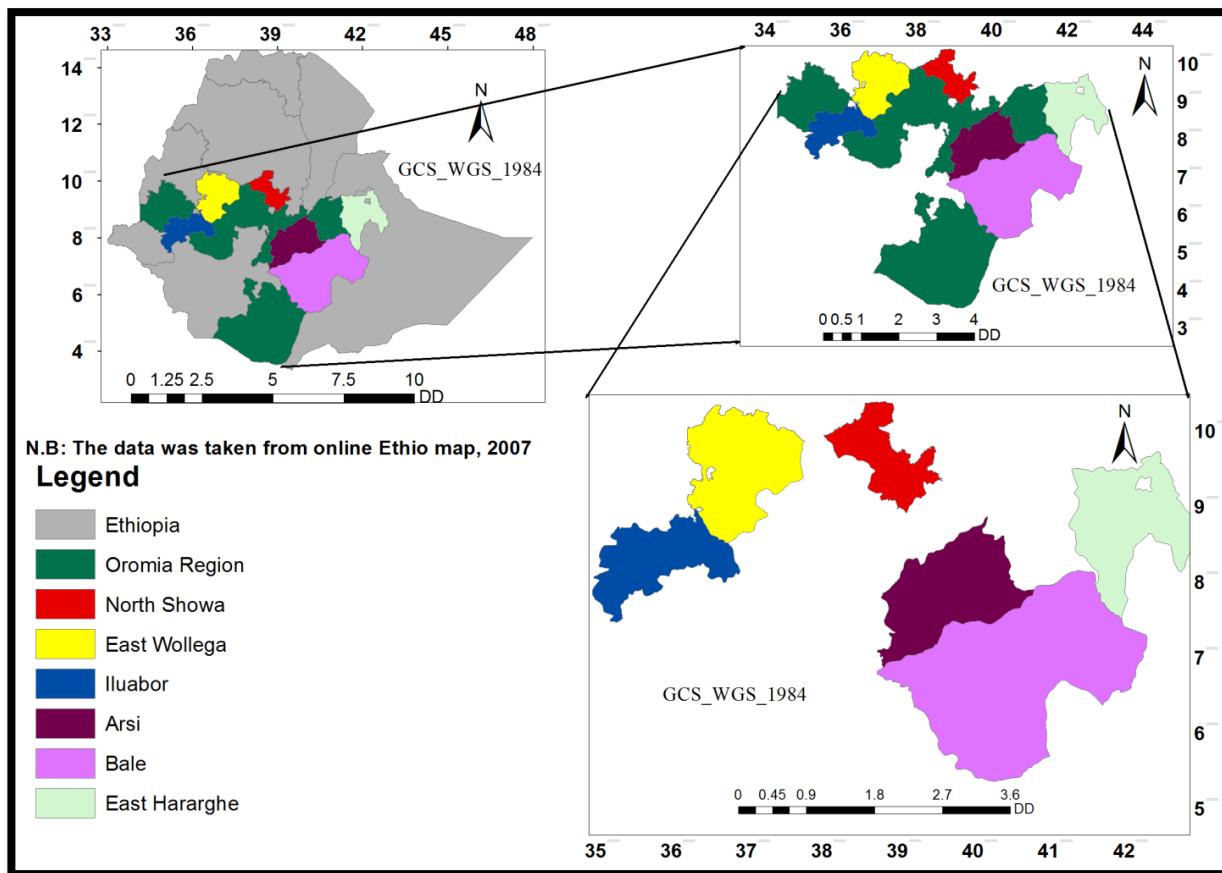


Figure 3. Map of the study area

Source: Own construction using data taken from online Ethiopian map of 2007

3.2. Research Paradigm and Approach

Scholars suggest that researchers must understand the paradigms that guide their methodological decisions in collecting, analyzing and interpreting both quantitative and qualitative data and then reporting findings (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2015; Creswell and Clark, 2011). A research paradigm is conceived as a philosophical position about the world or the nature of reality and how we approach it in order to understand it (Maxwell, 2005) and used to describe a researcher's 'worldview' (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006).

There are a number of research paradigms some of which are complementary to each other while the others are opposite to each other. The most popular ones are Positivism (Bryman, 2012), Post-positivism (Taylor and Medina, 2011); Interpretivism (Bryman, 2012) and

Pragmatism (Creswell, 2007). However, this subsection pays its attention to, among these four paradigms, pragmatism because the researcher held pragmatist assumptions.

According to Creswell and Clark (2011), pragmatism is conceived as pluralistic and oriented towards ‘what works’ and practice. In other words, pragmatism uses multiple methods but the use of the methods should always be guided by research problems. It values both objective and subjective knowledge to meet research objectives. Researchers adopting a pragmatist position have the liberty to choose those research methods or strategies that can best answer their research questions (Creswell, 2007). Other scholars state that pragmatism has often been identified in the mixed methods research literature as the appropriate paradigm for conducting the mixed approaches research (Creswell and Clark, 2011; Johnson and Gray, 2010).

Similarly, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2004) propose that pragmatism is the appropriate philosophy for mixed approaches research. This research paradigm involves using “what works “in order to seek answers to the research question (Creswell and Clark, 2011). In other words, the practical results are considered important (Lancaster, 2005). In line with these ideas, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) point out that combining questionnaires and interviews in a single research study brings together the advantages of breadth and depth associated with these two respective approaches.

Further, pragmatic approach advocates the use of both quantitative and qualitative research methods according to the need and exerts significant influences on the methodology to be used in a research project (Morgan, 2007). In pragmatism, the research problem is viewed as the most important concern (Creswell, 2003). In this case, the adopted data collection methods (interview, questionnaires, observation and articulation/documentation. etc.), narratives (qualitative and quantitative), and the analysis (descriptive, factor, content, thematic and discourse etc.) are deemed to be the most likely factors to provide a deep insight into the research problem (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Thus, pragmatism explicitly hails the foundations for the mixed methods researcher.

In combining quantitative and qualitative data collection, mixed methods research capitalizes on the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research, whilst ameliorating their weaknesses to provide an integrated comprehensive understanding of the topic under

investigation (Scammon *et al.*, 2013; Wisdom *et al.*, 2012; Andrew and Halcomb, 2009). According to these authors, mixed methods research has a potential to combine quantitative and qualitative characteristics across the research process. This approach also allows for two types of data to be gathered simultaneously or sequentially during the data collection (Creswell, 2009).

Based on the abundant literatures reviewed, a philosophical assumption for the current study lays within the pragmatist paradigm, because it enables the researcher employ mixed approaches research in collecting and analyzing data rather than relying only on one of the two methods (quantitative or qualitative). Another basic rationale for adopting pragmatism, among the identified ones, is that it helps the researcher interpret both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study and draw inferences from the results. Moreover, this research paradigm focuses on “action”, the consequences of research and the research questions (Pansiri, 2005). Therefore, the researcher found the pragmatic research paradigm as a suitable methodology for the current research’s topic, objectives, questions and the conditions in which it would be undertaken.

Therefore, the current study utilized the mixed methods research because it focuses on collecting, analyzing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data to provide a better understandings of research problems than either approaches alone because of that one data resources may not be enough, a second method is needed to enhance a primary method and initial results need to be further explained (Bian, 2018).

3.3. Research Design

A research design serves as a logical model that allows a researcher to draw inferences from the research findings and decide on the generalizability of the findings (Abbas and Charles, 2002). It thus guides a researcher in the process of respondents’ selection, data collection, analyzing and interpretation. With this regard, a number of scholars (for instance, Plano and Ivankova, 2016; Terrell, 2012; Wilkinson and Staley, 2019) have listed various types of mixed methods research designs. Among those scholars, Creswell and Clark (2013, 2018) consider three core mixed methods research designs - convergent parallel design, explanatory sequential design and exploratory sequential design - as parsimonious and practical because

they have potential to make researchers understand the best possible options of mixed methods research designs.

In the previous literature, Creswell and Clark (2011) have identified six different types of mixed methods research designs which are commonly used in educational research. These are the convergent parallel design (QUAN + QUAL), the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design, the embedded design, the transformative design and the multiphase design. Nevertheless, the current study employed the convergent parallel design of the mixed methods research where quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently or simultaneously and later compared with the aim of determining convergences, differences and combinations. The assumption of this design in this study is that it can enable the researcher to identify and describe an extent of the current practices of principals' school leadership styles for the sake of promoting school improvement (Bryman, 2008).

The convergent parallel design, following principles of pragmatic research paradigm as a theoretical assumption, is an efficient and popular approach to mixing methods research (Creswell and Clark, 2018). The two different approaches of research; that is, quantitative and qualitative methods are mixed to obtain the triangulated results in application of the convergent parallel design. At first, two types of data sets are collected concurrently, and secondly, they are analyzed separately using quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques (Creswell and Clark, 2018; Schoonenboom and Johnson, 2017; Shorten and Smith, 2017; Wisdom and Creswell, 2013).

According to Creswell and Clark (2018), the integration of quantitative and qualitative data will help a researcher in order to have complete understanding of the one provided by the quantitative or qualitative results alone. Moreover, the authors described that integration of the two data are performed in two different ways. The ways are: (a) by presenting findings of the quantitative study followed by the qualitative study or vice versa and/or (b) by transforming the qualitative data into counts and integrating the transformed qualitative data set into quantitative data. The current study followed the first method for its suitability and simplicity in writing up the results.

Creswell and Clark (2018) support that the convergent parallel design can be useful in certain conditions including that it can be applied when a researcher has limited time; needs rich information in quantitative and qualitative data sets from the participants, and has the required skills to handle the mixed methods research. In addition to other good aspects it has, the researcher took advantages of the first two conditions and chose this design which is the most popular one used to compare the results of quantitative and qualitative data side by side in a discussion section of the study.

The design has also helped the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously; with the purpose of merging the results of the two methods of research. This is because the design is an efficient in that both types of data are collected during one phase of the research at roughly the same time. To do so, there are four possible stages for mixing the two data sets: at the level of design, during data collection, during data analysis, and during data interpretation (Creswell and Plano, 2011).

Another basic rationale for using the convergent parallel design is that one data collection form supplies strengths to offset the weaknesses of an another form, and to get a more complete understanding of a research problem results from collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. In addition, it enables researchers to give equal priority to both quantitative and qualitative data (QUAN + QUAL) and see them as approximately equal sources of information in the study (Creswell and Plano, 2011; Plano and Ivankova, 2016).

Based on the literatures pertinently reviewed above, the researcher believes that the convergent parallel design is suitable for the nature of this research topic under study, which requires extensive description, investigation of facts and information. Therefore, he chose the design of the mixed methods research as it helps in the process of comparing, relating and combining results of both quantitative and qualitative data and interpreting together in all possible ways.

3.4. Sources of Data

For purpose of this study, relevant and related data were collected from both primary and secondary sources.

3.4.1. Sources of primary data

Primary data, required for purpose of this research work, were collected from principals, heads of the departments (HoDs) and supervisors, parent-teacher associations' (PTAs) representatives and students 'councils' representatives (SCRs) of the sample secondary schools and SIP focal experts who were serving in education offices of the sample zones of the ORS during the research work. From these sources, the primary data were collected with the help of questionnaires, semi-structured interview guides (mixture of both structured and unstructured), focus group discussions and document analysis.

3.4.2. Sources of secondary data

The data, regarding effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in promoting school improvement and students' academic achievement, were gathered from available sources of information. As secondary sources, the study used different annual reports and abstracts of Federal Democratic of Republic Ethiopian MoE and OEB and students' grade reports of GESLCE in 10th and 12th (university entrance examination of 2021) grades for three years (2018, 2019 and 2021) were taken from National Education Assessment and Examination Agency (NEAEA), Addis Ababa. While inspection reports on secondary schools' levels or standards were collected from both the sample zones and *Woreda* education offices. These relevant sources helped to enrich the study and to substantiate the data collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interview guides and focus group discussions.

3.5. Population, Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

Oromia, which is one of eleven National Regional States of Ethiopia, has currently 21 zones, 19 city administrations. From nine of these national regional states, the researcher purposely selected Oromia region because he has been working in the region, particularly in its east part which is very close to Haramaya University.

This study was undertaken by taking some of the zones of the region. For this effect, the researcher selected representative sample zones by clustering the region into five geographical locations (by his own decision) on the basis of assumption that cluster sampling is where the whole population is divided into clusters or groups and then a random sample is taken from these clusters (Wilson, 2010).

The researcher preferred cluster sampling to other techniques because it is more suitable in selecting the target research sites which were scattered over large geographical areas as it saves time and money (Davis, 2005; Gay, Millis and Aisasian, 2012). In addition, gathering the required data from a large and widely dispersed population poses administrative problems (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Therefore, the researcher did not apply any statistical formula in order to draw representative sample from the target sites of the study (20 zones of Oromia).

Accordingly, the five clustered zones were: north Oromia (north Shewa, west Shewa, Horo Goduru Wollega and east Wollega), west Oromia (Jimma, Iluababor, Kelem Wollega, and west Wollega), south Oromia (Bale, Guji, west Guji, and Borena), east Oromia (east and west Hararghe) and central Oromia (south west Shewa, east Shewa, west Arsi and east Arsi). From the clusters, the researcher took six zones by applying simple random sampling technique. The randomly selected zones were: east Wollega, Bale, east Hararghe, north Shewa, east Arsi and Iluababor (see Fig.3).

Oromia region had total of 1041 government and 96 public secondary schools; 1,041 principals, about 2,070 vice principals and 48,606 teachers (OEB, 2019). In the sample zones, there were 306 government secondary schools. With the help of information gathered from *Woreda* education offices of the sample zones, the researcher identified 142 of these schools had principals with work experience above three years. These schools were purposely selected as target population for the study.

Out of the 142, 80 secondary schools were selected proportionally by using random sampling technique. This sampling technique is relevant and suitable for a target population whose member is less than 1000 (Gay, Millis and Aisasian, 2012). For this basic reason the researcher did not apply any statistical formula for selecting the required size of sample from the accessible population.

Moreover, the researcher, considering cost of time and finance, believed that the size of randomly selected secondary schools (80) were adequate representative of the rest ones so that it enabled the researcher to gather information required in order to conduct survey study. Another basic reason for the using of simple random sampling technique was that the schools

were homogenous in many aspects such as they were being financed by government and educational services were being provided for the same grade level (9th and 10th grades and since 2020 structured as 9th - 12th grades).

Table 1. Summary of target secondary schools and the determined sample size

| No | Name of the sample zone | Government Secondary Schools | | | Sampling technique used |
|-------|-------------------------|------------------------------|-------------|------|--|
| | | Total | Sample size | % | |
| 1. | East Wollega | 64 | 17 | 27 | Purposive followed by simple random sampling |
| 2. | Bale | 56 | 15 | 27 | |
| 3. | East Hararghe | 56 | 15 | 27 | |
| 4. | North Shewa | 44 | 11 | 25 | |
| 5. | East Arsi | 43 | 11 | 25 | |
| 6. | Iluababor | 43 | 11 | 25 | |
| Total | | 306 | 80 | 26.1 | |

Source: Oromia Education Bureau, 2019

With regard to the respondents, 80 principals of the sampled government secondary schools and one of the two vice principals, who served for three years and above in the schools were taken by using random sampling technique as representative sample of this study. In such manner, 160 principals were made respondents of this research work. The main reason for taking more experienced principals was that implementation of strategic plan of school improvement program (SIP) was being actually evaluated every three years in Ethiopia (MoE, 2011).

Hence, the intention of this study was to investigate effectiveness of the principals in enhancing improvement of the schools within three years. Moreover, different studies support that a principal can become effective after three years of work experiences. For instance, the study conducted by Horng, Klasik, and Loeb (2009) reveals that a greater time spent on organizational leadership and management activities is associated with positive school outcomes measured. Similarly, Clark, Martorell and Rockoff (2009) argue that effective principals can make significant improvements during their first few years and their effectiveness definitely increases over time.

In an another case, the researcher employed simple random sampling technique and selected three of the four heads of departments of social sciences, natural sciences, languages and mathematics which were organized in each of the sample secondary schools. The basic

reasons for taking heads of the departments were that the researcher believed that these respondents had more experiences and rich information about the status of their respective secondary schools' levels (standards) and students' academic achievement in relation to apt school leadership styles practiced by their principals. Furthermore, they were the primary actors of school-based leadership in general and in the process of teaching and learning in particular. For these reasons the teachers of the sample secondary schools were represented by the heads of the four departments.

This study covered 38 *Woredas* - six, seven, seven, six, five and seven in east Wollega, Bale (the former one), east Hararghe, north Shewa and Iluababor zone and east Arsi, respectively - in which the principals served for three years and above within the sample zones. As stated in current administrative structure of Ethiopia, each *Woreda* had one SIP focal expert and equally one secondary school supervisor. To draw adequate sample size from the accessible population, the researcher employed random sampling technique and selected 15 focal SIP experts out of 38 and 15 secondary school supervisors out of 38 by proportionating number of secondary schools and that of the interviewees.

The selection of these interviewees was based on assumptions that they were relatively small in number and their formal position and responsibilities were very important to fully describe the practices of the principals' school leadership styles for the success of school improvement and they had also detailed information about prevailing challenges that hindered effectiveness of the principals and success of the schools.

Finally, for the focus group discussion, the researcher employed the purposive sampling technique and took total of 36 informants; that is, 18 PTAs' representatives and equally 18 SCs representatives from the six sample zones where the secondary schools were situated as a cluster taking into consideration the proximity of the schools so as to minimize costs of time and transport and, inversely, to increase an access for the invited discussants. In general, 466 respondents were drawn as sample in order to participate in this research study as summarized and presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of total samples and size of research participants

| No | Respondents | Target population | sample size | % | Sampling techniques used |
|-------|-----------------------|-------------------|-------------|------|--------------------------|
| 1. | Heads of departments | 320 | 240 | 75.0 | Simple random |
| 2. | Principals | 240 | 160 | 67.0 | Simple random |
| 3. | Supervisors | 38 | 15 | 39.5 | Simple random |
| 4. | SIP focal experts | 38 | 15 | 39.5 | Simple random |
| 5. | PTAs' representatives | 80 | 18 | 22.5 | Purposive |
| 6. | SCs' representatives | 80 | 18 | 22.5 | Purposive |
| Total | | 796 | 466 | 44.3 | |

Source: *Woreda* Education Offices of the sample zones of Oromia region, 2019

3.6. Instruments of Data Collection

This research study, devoting to assess effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in promoting school improvement and students' academic achievement, employed both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments and techniques. In this regard, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) identified that questionnaires, semi-structured interviews (individual and group), and document analysis are among several types of instruments for data collection. The current study adopted these instruments because of their appropriateness in collecting adequate data.

3.6.1. Questionnaire

This study employed structured questionnaire as one of the main data gathering instruments from predetermined respondents (principals and heads of the departments). The researcher made use of this technique of data collection for reasons that it is simple to administer and relatively inexpensive to analyze the data collected. In addition, the questionnaire is unbiased because the researchers do not come in contact with the respondents so that the respondents have full freedom and enough time to offer proper responses (Singleton and Straits, 2010).

In this study, 160 principals and 240 heads of departments (HoDs) were given questionnaires consisting 52 questions and the same content. The principals were expected to honestly evaluate themselves (self-rating) whether they effectively practiced the three appropriate school leadership styles for promotion of school improvement while the HoDs were to express their own perception through evaluating their principals' effectiveness in practicing

the school leadership styles. To do so, these respondents were given adequate times and then they personally filled in the survey questionnaires.

This study employed questionnaires developed by the researcher (self-made items) from a wide range review of related literatures. In addition, fewer items, regarding transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, were adapted from questionnaire items used by Mesfin (2017) in his dissertation research that he conducted in Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges in Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People Regional State of Ethiopia.

The self-developed questionnaires consisted of the four common factors of transformational leadership style (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration); four components of transactional leadership style (contingent reward, management-by-exception active, management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire or passive avoidance) (Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004). It is important to notice that the researcher margined an idealized attribute (charisma) to the idealized influence because of the fact that the qualities distinguishing transformational leaders are generally known as the "Four I's"(Bass, 1990).

The other questionnaire items for the instructional leadership style (pedagogical and curriculum issues) were also developed by the researcher based on the comprehensive review of related literature of this study in a manner they gear to research topic under study, the basic research questions, and objectives of the research and enable to sufficiently measure effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles. All of the questionnaire items consisted of 5-point Likert's rating scales; namely, strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree (see Appendix "A" and "B"). Then, a pilot study was conducted, as presented under section 3.7.2, so as to keep reliability of the instrument.

3.6.2. Semi-structured interview guide

This study used almost equally structured and unstructured interview guide (semi-structured) as another principal tool in order to extract information upon in-person interview (face-to-face) basis between the interviewee and the interviewer in accordance with guiding questions for a more in-depth understanding of leadership practices of the principals. The main reason

for applying this tool is that the semi-structured interviewing is perhaps the most common interview method used in qualitative inquiry (Dawson, 2007). In usage of this tool, the individual interviewer allowed participants to share information and ideas through questions and responses, resulting in communication with meaning and purpose.

The current study focused on semi-structured interview rather than applying solely either of the two formats (structured and unstructured) because of the fact that it allows respondents to express themselves at length (Creswell, 2009) and it is highly effective for the establishment of rapport, boosting response rates and data quality (Berg, 2004). The interview helped to collect perception from the research participants so as to substantiate or disprove the data that were collected via the questionnaires, focus group discussions and document analysis.

Accordingly, the researcher designed seven questions on background information of the respondents and 14 general guiding questions (see Appendix “C”) in Afan Oromo for interviewees to avoid misunderstandings that they might encounter because of the English language. The questions were translated from English to Afan Oromo corresponded to the original English version through help of professionals of the two languages. Then, the interview was conducted with 15 SIP focal experts and 15 secondary school supervisors through face-to-face technique.

In the process of interview, the oral interview was supported by mobile voice recorder in order to minimize loss of information because the researcher/interviewer focuses on keeping the respondents on the targeted points and to be free from being busy by writing down what the interviewees were saying. Moreover, using the recorder allows sufficient time to focus in detail and think about the next question and how to ask it in light of the respondents’ previous responses (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011; Seidman, 2013). The recorded data were organized based on similarity of responses given by the interviewees.

3.6.3. Focus group discussion

Focus group discussion (FGD) was another instrument used to collect qualitative data from predetermined key informants, who were believed to have better understanding and information on the issue under investigation and different from the interviewees. Lune and Berg (2017) state that the FGD would be a useful attempt to have participants with common

experiences together to examine a particular subject of interest, and it is known as an effective way to gather knowledge from all kinds of people.

A FGD is frequently used as a qualitative approach to gain an in-depth understanding of social issues. The method aims to obtain data from a purposely selected group of individuals rather than from a statistically represented sample of a broader population (Tobias, Nibedita and Christina, 2018). Moreover, a FGD is considered a low-cost method whose flexible format allows the facilitator to explore unanticipated issues. It enables rapid collection of multiple perspectives on the topics under investigation, thus generating more information faster than in individual interviews (Wagner, 2012).

Many scholars suggest different number of members of person who take part in a group discussion. For instance, Dummet, Hagens and Morel (2013) state that FGD is a qualitative data collection method that engages 6 to 12 people who have shared characteristics pertinent to the specific discussion topic and is led by a trained facilitator. The discussion is facilitated using a semi-structured interview guide to foster active participation and in-depth discussion among the discussants. It encourages the participants to talk to one another, discuss and build upon or challenge each other's opinions.

While others contend that commonly focus group members consists of 10 to 12 people (Baumgartner, Strong, and Hensley, 2002); between 6 to 10 (Powell and Single, 1996) and between 6 to 8 participants (Krueger and Casey, 2000), including a moderator. The variety of focus group sizes comes from the target that focus groups can involve appropriate members to produce various information offered. These literatures indicate that focus groups discussions will involve minimum 6 and may not be more than 12 members. Moreover, it is noticed that there is not the exact cut-point for number of participants to take part in focus group discussions.

The current study employed the FGD as it helps collect some comprehensive qualitative data from predetermined key informants -18 PTAs' representatives and 18 SCs' representatives - that substantiated the data gathered via the rest three methods discussed earlier. For this effect, seven general (guiding) questions were designed for group discussion which held among 6 to 9 discussants (which was fallen within the suggested ranges) in each of the sample

zones of Oromia region. In order to get sufficient information, the questions were prepared structurally by English language and then translated into Afan Oromo language in order to exchange ideas freely among the discussants.

3.6.4. Document analysis

Document analysis was another secondary data gathering tool which served as a vital source of information that assisted to understand the extent to which the school leadership was practiced effectively and improved school performance over the past three years (2018, 2019 and 2021). Document analysis is important because it is unobtrusive method that provides stable data that can be reviewed repeatedly (Yin, 2003). Practically, it helped the researcher to consolidate data gathered through other techniques and to know what the trend looks like in real life practices of school leadership in the study area.

The relevant documents observed to enrich the current study include Ethiopian education and training policy implementations, quality education intervention strategies like GEQIP, School Improvement Program (SIP), National professional standard for school principals, annual performance evaluation reports and feedbacks on school improvement; inspection reports on secondary schools' levels and students' academic results. The study placed a strong emphasis, among the referenced and observed documents, on school inspection reports on improvement of secondary schools' levels and students' academic results.

The data on school inspection reports regarding levels (standards) of the sample secondary schools were obtained from *Woreda* education offices (WEOs) and Zone education offices (ZEOs). School inspection in Ethiopian case is the process of quality assurance which is used by trained experts to evaluate an overall performance of a school based on clearly defined standards and criteria (MoE, 2015). It is considered as a powerful tool for promoting improvement by establishing the minimum levels of quality that all schools should achieve in terms of input, process and output. The inspection classifies the school into four levels indicating that: level 1 scoring below 50% is found at early stage, level 2 scoring 50-69.99% is considered as on the way of fulfilling its standard, level 3 scoring 70-89.99% fulfilled the required standard and level 4 scoring 90-100% is highly standardized (MoE, 2013).

Students' academic results of General Education School Leaving Certificate Examination (GESLCE) in 10th grade (in 2018 and 2019) and university entrance examination in 12th grade (in 2021) in English and mathematics for the three years were taken from NEAEA. In current Ethiopian secondary schools system, English and mathematics are usually considered as compulsory subjects in both social and natural science streams. Hence, special attention is rendered to the subjects in the school improvement program (MoE, 2011). This implies that students showing better academic performance in both subjects are most likely expected to score the best results in the other academic subjects.

This was the main reason why the researcher took and analyzed the students' academic results of national examination of the two compulsory subjects. However, the recent data (of 2020 year) were not found because of structural change of education system in Ethiopia, that is, preparatory (11th and 12th grades) and secondary (9th and 10th grades) schools were merged together and national examination was not given for the secondary school students.

3.7. Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument

Validity and reliability of research and its results are important elements to provide evidence of the quality of research in the organizational field.

3.7.1. Validity of research instrument

Validity is a measuring instrument which actually measures the property what it is supposed to measure (Ajai and Sanjaya, 2009). Creswell (2009) also adds that research validity denotes the extent to which the instrument is used to measure what a researcher actually supposed to measure. Therefore, validity enables a researcher to consider whether or not the research design, instruments of data collection and procedures accurately assess the variables that the research process is intended to measure (Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

In the qualitative research, there is more of focus on validity than reliability due to the fact that reliability plays a minor role in qualitative research; because of this an inquirer places more emphases on the value of his or her subjective interpretations (Creswell and Clark, 2018). Nevertheless, validity is better evidenced in quantitative research studies than in the qualitative ones since there is diversity within qualitative research methods and techniques.

Hence, there are no universally accepted criteria to assess validity in qualitative studies (Junior, Abib and Hoppen, 2019).

However, five criteria of validity are proposed for qualitative research by Paiva, Leão, and Mello (2011). The criteria are: triangulation, the construction of a research writings, a clear, rich and detailed description of the research performed, surprise and feedback of informants. Accordingly, the researcher made all possible efforts to maintain face and content validities of the instruments; namely, semi-structured interview guides and general questions designed for focus group discussion used in this study.

To this end, the researcher gave the instruments (semi-structured interview guides and general questions prepared for FGD) to colleagues and the advisory committee in order to get their comments and suggestions on comprehensiveness, operationalization and clarity of the items and language; adequacy and relevance of the instrument. As a result, almost all critical comments and valuable suggestions were forwarded mainly by the committee and then the researcher carefully revised and improved the instrument in the area of general instructions and notices, clarity, thematic organization and functions, grammatical mistakes and partitions of the items and insertion of fewer omitted important terms.

3.7.2. Reliability of research instrument

Basically, reliability pertains to the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study (Joppa, 2000). On the basis of this assumption, the researcher made an effort to maintain reliability of the instruments (questionnaires) by conducting a pilot study prior to the actual data collection task on three government secondary schools of east Hararghe zone of Oromia which were out of the sampled ones. The secondary schools were Ugaz, Kersa and Deder. In this pilot study, the designed questionnaires' questions were filled in by 39 respondents.

Table 3. Results of reliability of pilot tested questionnaires items

| <i>No</i> | Styles of leadership and challenges | <i>No</i> of respondents (9 principals and 30 teachers) | No. of items used | Cronbach's Alpha |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|---|-------------------|------------------|
| 1 | Transformational | 39 | 10 | .82 |
| 2 | Instructional | 39 | 16 | .89 |
| 3 | Transactional | 39 | 9 | .68 |
| 4 | Challenges of school leadership | 39 | 12 | .84 |
| | Total | 39 | 47 | .94 |

Source: Computed from survey result, 2020

As demonstrated in the Table 3, the computed Cronbach's Alpha (α) results obtained from the pilot tested instruments were (.94) for all of the three leadership styles and the existing challenges of school leadership with a considerable variation. When seen individually in terms of reliability coefficient(r), the Alpha values were .82 (transformational leadership style), .89 (instructional leadership style), .68 (transactional leadership style including its passive avoidance factors) and .84 (existing challenges of practices of the school leadership styles). It is very important to notice that laissez-faire leadership style was merged or combined with transactional school leadership style as its passive form or one of the four dimensions (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Breevaart *et al.*, 2014; Smith, Eldridge, and DeJoy, 2016).

Overall, reliability coefficients of the pilot study undertaken indicate that the designed quantitative data collection instruments for this study fulfilled the standard set for internal consistency reliability, but the reliability coefficient of items prepared for transactional leadership style was considered as less acceptable or questionable, because scholars in the field agree upon that reliability coefficient (r) of pilot test .75 or above indicates appropriate instrument having internal consistency reliability coefficient (Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2008; George and Mallery, 2009).

To improve the internal consistency reliability coefficient of questionnaire items designed for the transactional leadership style, number of item was increased from 9 to 12 (See appendix "A" and "B") and checked risen to .72 Cronbach's Alpha value. Having this statistical confidence in the instrument, the researcher administered the final questionnaires to the respondents (principals and heads of the departments) of the sample secondary schools.

3.8. Methods of Data Analysis

As described under section 3.6, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interview guides, focus group discussions and document analysis so as to adequately answer the basic research questions. Accordingly, the study employed mixed methods research data analysis techniques.

3.8.1. Methods of quantitative data analysis

Prior to proceeding quantitative data analysis, the questionnaires, which were personally filled in and returned by the respondents, were checked for completion, edited, coded and entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Software) 22.0 version for it is capable to hand multitude of data and gives its wide spectrum of statistical procedures purposefully designed for social sciences (Martin and Acuma, 2002).

First of all, data with respected to demographic variables of the respondents were summarized, presented and analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. Similarly, mean rating scores and standard deviations were employed to analyze the quantitative aspects of the data using SPSS Software. For interpretations of the results, the researcher applied cut-points of rating scales suggested by Rosemay (2003). The cut-points provide 5-point Likert's rating scales together with means values by intervals. Accordingly, the intervals are: if a computed mean score ($M = 1.00-1.50$), strongly disagree; if $M = 1.50-2.50$, disagree; if $M = 2.50-3.50$, undecided/medium, if $M = 3.50-4.50$, agree, and if $M = 4.50-5.00$, it indicates strongly agree.

On the other hand, the researcher employed parametric statistics which are the most common type of inferential statistics and calculated with the purpose of generalizing the findings of a sample to the population it represents. The inferential statistics used in this study were: independent samples t-test and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r).

The independent samples t-test was used widely in order to find out difference in mean scores rated by the two groups of respondents (principals and heads of departments). According to Ajai and Sanjaya (2009), the independent samples t-test is commonly used when making comparisons between the means of two samples of respondents. In supporting this, Burnham (2021) states that an independent samples t-test is used to evaluate whether the means of a

given variable differ significantly across two groups. This test is much more applied in actual research study than the one-sample t-test. Prior to applying this inferential statistics, the following four assumptions should be satisfied.

1. Score should be quantitative.
2. Scores are independent of each other between and within groups.
3. Scores are sampled from normally distributed population with equal variance.
4. No outliers within groups.
5. Relative importance of violation of these assumptions.

As described under subsection 3.2, this study followed mixed methods approach focusing on pragmatic research paradigm, the characteristics of the respondents were not related to one another and no outliers and violation were considered in the data. Because of these basic reasons, these assumptions were more satisfied; therefore, the independent samples t-test was employed principally to check whether there was a significant difference between mean scores of the two groups of respondents.

The study made use of product moment correlation coefficient (r) to examine an association existed between the schools' levels and students' academic achievement at the .05 level of statistical significance. According to Ahmed (2015), Pearson correlation is widely used in statistics to measure the degree of the relationship between linear related variables. A correlation coefficient indicates the degree to which variation in one variable is described by a straight line relation with another variable. Application of the correlation relies on some underlying assumptions. The variables:

1. Are assumed to be independent,
2. Have been randomly selected from the population,
3. Are normal distribution,
4. The relationship between the two variables is linear.

Since these underlying assumptions were adequately satisfied by the nature of variables of the current study, the researcher used bivariate correlation in order to measure strength and direction of relationship observed between the two variables aforementioned. In this case, Gay, Millis and AisAsian (2012) suggested cut-point for strength of correlation that may exist

between two variables. Accordingly, coefficient between +0.35 and -0.35, between +0.35 and +0.65 or -0.35 and -0.65 and between +0.65 and 1.00 or -0.65 and -1.00 shows weak, moderate and strongly correlation, respectively.

3.8.2. Methods of qualitative data analysis

The qualitative data were collected by the help of semi-structured format of interview guides and focus group discussions. Since these data were collected in the form of texts, there was no any statistical test of significance employed in this study. Hence, the qualitative data were presented and analyzed in descriptive ways to triangulate with the results of the quantitative analysis.

3.8.2.1. Analysis methods of semi-structured interview results

The data were gathered from focal experts of SIP and supervisors of secondary schools through face-to-face basis. The data were organized and checked for their usefulness and quality to be incorporated in the analysis. Then, the transcripts were read and re-read by the researcher himself. Prior to extracting and narrating the results obtained, each of the interviewees was represented by the title he or she was responsible for. Accordingly, the secondary school supervisors (N = 15) as: S1, S2, S3...and S15 and SIP focal experts (N = 15) as: E1, E2, E3...and E15. Finally, the results were analyzed using narrative method in a manner they either substantiate or disprove the results of quantitative data.

3.8.2.2. Analysis methods of results of focus group discussions

Since discussions and conclusions made by the discussants are highly subjective, there is no a best approach used to analyze them. Nevertheless, Krippendorff (2004) suggests that the most common analysis of results focus group discussion is content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts.

Analyzing and interpreting reports of focus group discussions are conducted typically through two-step approach: First, look at what people in the group literally said. A researcher performing the initial step of the analysis will report what the majority of participants agreed. Second, interpret what people said in an integrated and theoretical way (Silverman, 2006; Wong, 2008). This, in turn, often relies on identifying patterns, regularities and themes;

identifying differences and similarities within the data and between different sources of data and making comparisons between different groups involved in the topic (Bromley, 2003).

In the current study, analysis of results of FGD relied on transcripts of the discussions and summaries of the conclusions drawn from the participants. The results were presented and analyzed in a manner they support or disprove the results of quantitative data by paraphrasing just following presentation of the interviewees' views. Therefore, the results were related, where possible, to the quantitative data analyses and interpreted together.

3.9. Ethical Consideration

According to Fouka and Mantzorou (2011), research ethics is important in our daily life research endeavours and it requires that researchers should protect the dignity of their subjects and publish well the information that is researched. Moreover, Farrimond (2013) adds that ethical issues in scholarly study are the most important matters. Ethical issues need to be considered in the primary research and but using secondary data sets because there are ethical issues relating to fair and unbiased selection of sources and analysis. Hence, the level of attention on ethical issue in research has both increased and broadened in response to society's expectation of greater accountability (Held, 2006; Zegwaard, Campbell, and Pretti, 2017). Fleming (2018) also highlights that it is important to consider the fundamentals of ethical research that involves human participants.

Prior to beginning the data collection, a formal letter from Haramaya University, department of educational planning and management has been delivered to the sample zones' education offices and secondary schools by the researcher in order to get permission from their esteemed offices. This is because cornerstone of ethical research is 'informed consent' (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Then, the researcher reached on an agreement with research participants on the objectives of data to be collected. All participants are offered the opportunity to remain anonymous, all other information is treated with restrict confidentiality (Bell, 2004).

Based on these theoretical frameworks and the purpose of the current study, the researcher contacted the research participants in order to keep prior permissions to administer all types of data collection instruments. Towards this end, the researcher provided the respondents with

all necessary respects and gave them full assurance that the information they gave were used strictly for personal academic purpose; that is, for completion of this doctoral degree in Educational Leadership and Policy Studies. Furthermore, all references/sources used for the study were acknowledged well for that matter, any communication with the concerned bodies were accomplished at their voluntarily consent without harming and threatening the personal and institutional well-being.

Hammersley and Traianou (2012) pointed out five commonly recognized principles of research ethics: minimizing harm, respecting autonomy, protecting privacy, offering reciprocity, treating people equitably. In line with these principles, the inquirer believed that the research process should not pose any physical or psychological threat or risk to the participants (the sample secondary schools principals, heads of departments, supervisors, SIP focal experts, representatives of PTAs' members and representatives of students' councils) during the time of the provision of responses to the questionnaire items, the semi-structured interview guides and focused group discussion and collection of secondary sources of data (inspection reports of the sample secondary schools' levels and students' academic results). The completed questionnaires and recorded information were kept well in a secure location and accessible only to the researcher in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants' survey results (ILTA, 2016).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter of the dissertation deals with presentation, analysis and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data collected from predetermined respondents and sources. Instruments employed to collect the data were questionnaires, semi-structured interview guides, focus group discussions and document analysis. Findings of the quantitative and qualitative data were presented separately and then merged possibly at the end and analyzed together. For this effect, efforts were made to display the quantitative data by using tables followed by the computed values of independent samples t-test which made results of the study clearer and more precise, so that it could be easily understandable by any reader of this research study.

4.1. Return rate of survey Instruments and Demographic Variables

4.1.1. Return rate of survey instruments

The relevant data required to conduct this research study were collected from the sample individual secondary schools and respective *Woreda* education offices.

Table 4. Return rate of survey questionnaires

| No | Name of zone | Target sample | | Actual sample | | Return rate in percent | |
|-------|---------------|---------------|------|---------------|------|------------------------|------|
| | | Principals | HoDs | Principals | HoDs | Principals | HoDs |
| 1. | East Wollega | 34 | 51 | 32 | 48 | 94.1 | 94.1 |
| 2. | Bale | 30 | 45 | 29 | 43 | 96.6 | 95.5 |
| 3. | East Hararghe | 30 | 45 | 30 | 43 | 100 | 95.5 |
| 4. | North Shewa | 22 | 33 | 22 | 32 | 100 | 96.9 |
| 5. | East Arsi | 22 | 33 | 22 | 33 | 100 | 100 |
| 6. | Iluababor | 22 | 33 | 22 | 33 | 100 | 100 |
| Total | | 160 | 240 | 157 | 232 | 98.5 | 97.0 |

Despite the researcher made all efforts, fewer respondents did no return the questionnaires. As indicated in Table 4, 157(98.5%) of the principals and 232(97.0%) of the heads of departments (HoDs) filled in and returned the questionnaires. This made, on average, the return rate of the survey questionnaires' data 97.8%. All of the returned questionnaires' items were found useful and used for actual data analysis through application of SPSS software version 22.0.

4.1.2. Demographic variables of respondents

The surveyed data consisted of two parts of questionnaires' items that were administered separately to the principals and HoDs. The first part dealt with demographic variables of the respondents consisting of seven items for both the secondary school principals and HoDs. In this part no a basic research question was designed and analyzed, but the researcher believed that those background information had significant reflections on results of the study. For instance, especially for the principals being male or female, found at or below the required level of education, professionals or not in school leadership could make difference in results of this research study.

On the other hand, the second part covered 52 questionnaires' items which were categorized thematically into three main parts with the objectives of addressing basic research questions. Moreover, data on demographic variables of secondary school supervisors and SIP focal experts were also filled out during the interviews process. However, demographic variables' data of FGD participants (discussants) - representatives of PTAs' members and representatives of SCs - were excluded because of their less importance as they were not part of professional school leadership and management. However, this did not mean that their participation in this empirical study was undermined.

Accordingly, the first part of questionnaire items covered by the survey aimed at picking out relevant demographic variables of the principals on: name of their *Woreda* and secondary schools, sex, age, education level, and total service years they worked as principals in the current secondary school only, field of qualification, position seized as a principal or vice principal. Similarly, demographic variables of the HoDs and interviewees consisted of: name of their *Woreda*/secondary school, sex, age, educational level, total of years they served, field of qualification, and name of the official unit in which they served. The items tied to the demographic variables of these research participants are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Demographic variables of the respondents and descriptive statistics

| Variable | Respondents | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------|------|------|------|-------------|------|-------------------|------|
| | Principals | | HoDs | | Supervisors | | SIP focal experts | |
| | N | % | n | % | n | % | N | % |
| Sex | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 145 | 92.4 | 206 | 88.8 | 15 | 100 | 13 | 86.7 |
| Female | 12 | 7.6 | 26 | 11.2 | - | - | 2 | 13.3 |
| Total | 157 | 100 | 232 | 100 | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |
| Age | | | | | | | | |
| 20-30 | 13 | 8.3 | 48 | 20.7 | - | - | - | - |
| 31-40 | 120 | 76.4 | 146 | 62.9 | 8 | 53.3 | 12 | 80.0 |
| 41-55 | 22 | 14.0 | 37 | 15.9 | 6 | 40.0 | 3 | 20.0 |
| Above 55 | 2 | 1.3 | 1 | 0.4 | 1 | 6.7 | - | - |
| Total | 157 | 100 | 232 | 100 | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |
| Level of educ. | | | | | | | | |
| BA/BSC | 83 | 52.9 | 174 | 75 | 2 | 13.3 | 14 | 93.3 |
| MA/MSc | 74 | 47.1 | 58 | 25 | 13 | 86.7 | 1 | 6.7 |
| Total | 157 | 100 | 232 | 100 | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |
| Work experience | | | | | | | | |
| 3-5 | 94 | 59.9 | 2 | 0.9 | 2 | 13.3 | 10 | 66.7 |
| 6-10 | 56 | 35.6 | 47 | 20.3 | 5 | 33.3 | 4 | 26.7 |
| 11-20 | 7 | 4.5 | 149 | 64.2 | 8 | 53.3 | 1 | 6.7 |
| Above 20 | - | - | 34 | 14.6 | - | - | - | - |
| Total | 157 | 100 | 232 | 100 | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |
| Field of special | | | | | | | | |
| EdPM | 5 | 3.2 | - | - | - | - | 3 | 20.0 |
| S/leadership | 48 | 30.6 | - | - | 10 | 66.7 | 1 | 6.7 |
| Other subjects | 104 | 66.2 | 232 | 100 | 5 | 33.3 | 11 | 73.3 |
| Total | 157 | 100 | 232 | 100 | 15 | 100 | 15 | 100 |

As can be seen from Table 5(a), 92.4%, 88.8%, 100%, and 86.7% of the principals, the HoDs, supervisors and SIP focal experts who took part in this study were males, respectively. From these statistical results; therefore, one can convincingly conclude that participation of female in the educational/school leadership and management was meager against that of male respondents in the study area.

Despite the fact that age of the respondents (Table 5-b) ranged between 25 and 60, about 76.4%, 62.9%, 53.3% and 80% of the principals, the HoDs, and supervisors and SIP focal experts were respectively found between 31-40 years of age. These results indicated that participants of this study were matured enough in their ages. The results also imply that age is an essential characteristic in leading and managing an institutional or its unit and teaching in a classroom, because it reflects levels of maturity of the respondents. In this study, the majority

of the respondents can be categorized under active and productive manpower so that they could take responsibility of their respective duties and might perform well.

With regard to educational levels attained by the research participants (Table 5-c), results of the survey data demonstrated that slightly more than half of the principals (52.9%), a great majority of the HoDs (75%) and SIP focal experts (93.3%) were bachelor's degree holders, whereas 86.7% of the sample secondary school supervisors were qualified in Master's degree. As a principle of national professional standards of Ethiopia (MoE, 2015), principals and supervisory personnel should be Master's degree holders and qualified in educational leadership and management or school leadership. However, the current study indicated that the standards set were not yet reached by most of the principals and few of the supervisors in the secondary schools.

As shown in the Table 5(d), 59.9% and 66.7% of the principals and SIP focal experts had got 3-5 years of working experience in their respective duty, respectively. Likewise, 64.2% and 53.3% of the HoDs and supervisors had developed 11-20 years of working experience in their respective duty, respectively. Comparatively, only 14.6% of the HoDs have gained teaching experiences above 20 years. The results of these survey data revealed that the respondents, working in the secondary schools and education offices, were relatively well experienced with a significant variation.

Finally, Table 5(e) depicts that 66.2% of the principals were not professionals (not qualified in school or educational leadership field of study), whereas 33.8% of the principals and 66.7% of the supervisors were qualified in educational planning and management and/or school leadership or educational leadership and management. The majority of SIP focal experts (73.3%) were qualified in non-school leadership or other disciplines. From these results, one could infer that the principals might face difficulty in promoting improvement of overall school performance as they lacked theoretical knowledge of various school leadership styles and related skills that could help them to lead and manage effectively and realize the established goals of their respective government secondary schools.

4.2. Results of the Substantive Data

Prior to the analyses of the data collected, it is very important to describe clearly the procedures to be followed in the process of both quantitative and qualitative data presentation, analyses and interpretation. The quantitative data were quantitatively analyzed by employing means and standard deviations. Here, the researcher found means and standard deviations (the most commonly used measure of central tendency) were the appropriate descriptive statistics for questionnaires' items filled in through rating on 5- point Likert's rating scales (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree) and enabled him to compare mean scores rated by the two groups of respondents (principals and heads of the departments).

Following presentation and analysis of the means values, independent samples t-tests were used in order to check whether there was a significant statistical difference between the means scores of the two groups of respondents. Moreover, for the first basic research question of this research study, the norms set by Bass and Avolio (2000) were used by many other researchers to identify the dominant leadership styles (among the transformational, instructional and transactional leadership styles including its passive avoidance) practiced in the study area. Here, the developed norms do not include instructional leadership style but the researcher used them for the same purpose.

On the other hand, the qualitative data, gathered with the help of semi-structured interview guides and focus group discussions, were analyzed by narrating and paraphrasing in the manner they supplement one another. At the end, the quantitative and qualitative results were merged and interpreted together where it was appropriate and possible. It is important to notice that the term "level" was used rather than "standard" throughout the study while describing the sample secondary schools' statuses (qualities) because it has been widely used in national (Ethiopia) education policy document, especially in school inspection guidelines.

4.2.1. Identification of dominant school leadership style

An attempt was made to identify the school leadership styles practiced by the principals in the sample government secondary schools. This was done by comparing mean scores of the respondents on the implementation of the three relevantly studied school leadership styles with a purpose of addressing the first basic research question, "*What are the dominant school*

leadership styles (transformational, instructional and transactional leadership) of the principals in the study area?" To this effect, the respondents were requested to indicate levels of their agreements about the implementation of these leadership styles in their respective secondary schools. Accordingly, their views in the forms of both descriptive and inferential statistics are depicted in Table 6.

Table 6. Identification of dominant leadership styles practiced in the study area

| No | Types of leadership styles studied | N | Mean (std.dev.) | t-value | p-value |
|----|-------------------------------------|-----|-----------------|---------|---------|
| 1. | Transformational | 397 | 3.65 (1.11) | 1.19 | .311 |
| 2. | Instructional | 397 | 3.58 (1.06) | 1.58 | .181 |
| 3. | Transactional and passive avoidance | 397 | 3.39 (1.48) | 1.74 | .145 |

* The mean difference is statistically significant at the .05 level.

Bass and Avolio (2000) have established norms (as cited in Mesfin, 2017) to identify the dominant leadership styles among transformational, transactional and laissez faire, but the researcher applied the norms for instructional leadership style for the same purpose too. The norms state that for a leadership style to be identified as a dominant, its mean should be greater than 3.0. In line with this establishment, aggregate mean rating scores of the respondents were compared as displayed in Table 6.

The mean values of the respondents were greater than the demarcating average point (3.0) in all of the three leadership styles. Comparatively, the principals adopted transformational leadership style with mean value of 3.65 which is greater than means of the rest two leadership styles. Therefore, transformational style of leadership was identified as the most dominant leadership style of the principals in the study area. This result did not mean that the dominant leadership style (transformational) was practiced to the maximum extent and realized the desired changes in schools' levels and, in turn, students' academic performance alone, but it has been compared with the rest two leadership styles in order to identify a leadership style, among the targeted ones, which more characterizes the principals in the study area. This finding was consistent with that of Mesfin (2017) that transformational leadership was a dominant leadership style of College deans.

4.2.2. Practices of the school leadership styles

As stated in the previous subsection (4.2.1), this study found that transformational, instructional and transactional were ranked the first, second and third dominant school leadership styles, respectively as weighted by implementation in the study area. Detail analyses were conducted as per rank of these leadership styles by merging most of the questionnaires' items of transformational and transaction styles in accordance with their themes while other items of instructional leadership style and challenges of school leadership were treated individually.

The analyses were done in order to examine whether these leadership styles have been effectively implemented so as to bring about the anticipated levels or standards (level 3 and 4) of the sample secondary schools. In doing so, the study was devoted to answer the second basic research question, *“To what extent do the principals practice the leadership styles for promotion of the secondary schools improvement?”*

4.2.2.1. Practices of transformational school leadership style

The quantitative data analyses, based on mean scores of the principals and heads of the departments (HoDs), were conducted with an objective to find out whether this leadership style was implemented to a maximum extent in order to improve the schools' levels. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Practices of factors of transformational leadership and results of statistical analyses

| Factors of the leadership style | M(SD) | M(SD) | t-value | p-value |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| | Principals | HoDs | | |
| a. Idealized influence | 3.91 (0.89) | 3.82 (1.00) | 0.93 | .569 |
| b. Inspirational motivation | 3.74 (1.09) | 3.60 (1.17) | 1.19 | .237 |
| c. Intellectual stimulation | 3.59 (1.17) | 3.41 (1.24) | 1.46 | .192 |
| d. Individualized consideration | 3.65 (1.14) | 3.50 (1.14) | 1.21 | .247 |
| Grand mean | 3.72(1.07) | 3.58(1.14) | 1.19 | .311 |

Note: Principals = 157; Heads of Departments (HoDs) = 232

As statistical results display in Table 7(a), mean scores of the principals (M = 3.91, SD = 0.89) and the HoDs (M = 3.82; SD = 1.00) revealed that implementation of idealized influence was above the medium point (M = 2.50-3.50). Here, the principals' (self-raters')

rating score was little bit higher than that of the HoDs (raters). The aggregate mean value of the two groups of respondents ($M = 3.87$) indicated that this dimension was implemented to optimal extent.

The computed independent samples t-test result, $t(357.7) = 0.93$, $p = .569$ verified that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents, because the p-value is greater than 0.05 level of statistical significance. The result of this inferential statistics implies that level of agreement of the two groups on practices of the dimension of transformational leadership style was the same. In other words, the result indicated that the principals behaved in way they became role model for their staffs.

Overall, the grand mean value of the respondents enables one to deduce that the principals were relatively effective in practicing this factor (idealized influence) of transformational style of leadership to a great extent in the sample secondary schools. This result supported a finding of Leonard, George, Peter and Michael (2016) that idealized influence had a positive and significant effect on performance of staff in Kenya.

As can be seen in Table 7(b), the results that principals and HoDs rated at ($M = 3.74$; $SD = 1.09$) and ($M = 3.60$; $SD = 1.17$), respectively, pointed out that inspirational motivation for staffs' members (both academic and administrative) was being carried out above the medium point. In comparison, a slight difference was observed between mean values of the two groups of respondents; that is, the principals' level of agreement was higher than that of the heads of departments.

However, the computed t-test result, $t(349.7) = 1.19$, $p = .237$ demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores rated by respondents of the two groups. Overall results depicted that the principals, more or less, performed what expected of them in day-to-day activities of school leadership and management and the results also seem to suggest that a lot is left to boost a potential of staffs members for more betterment of the school.

Table 7(c) portray that mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.59$; $SD = 1.17$) and HoDs ($M = 3.41$; $SD = 1.24$) revealed that the principals rated themselves on practical implementation of

intellectual stimulation above the medium point (2.50-3.50), but the raters did as a medium. Grand mean value ($M = 3.55$) indicated that the respondents agreed for implementation of this subdimension of the transformational style of leadership. Moreover, the computed t-test result, $t(347.9) = 1.46$, $p = .192$) supported that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents.

Overall, grand mean value of the respondents depicted that effectiveness of the principals in implementing elements of intellectual stimulation such as challenging assumptions and taking risks of school leadership was found above average, but the results seem suggest still strong extra efforts are needed so as to realize improvement of sample secondary schools. This current finding supported views of Ogola, Sikalieh and Linge (2017) that intellectual stimulation leaders continuously impart, exemplify, promote and acquire new resourceful ideas for solving problems from all organizational followers.

It is portrayed in Table 7(d) that the mean scores of principals ($M = 3.65$; $SD = 1.14$) and HoDs ($M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.14$) showed that the principals practiced individualized consideration above medium point in their respective secondary schools. These results also showed that the principals rated themselves higher than what their raters did. This variation in mean scores might result from that the principals exaggeratedly evaluated their performance when compared with the rating score of the raters and/or understanding of the raters on accomplishment of the dimension was lesser.

However, the calculated t-test result, $t(335.4) = 1.21$, $p = .247$) verified that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents. This implies that respondents of the two groups equally perceived practical implementation of the factor. The grand mean value of the two groups ($M = 3.56$) indicated that practices of considering the staffs members individually was higher than the medium point in context of the study area.

In addition, the interviewees were asked, *“How do you describe the ways that the principals give professional advices for the teachers?”* As a result, most of them gave negative responses. One of the interviewees, for instance, (E4) said, “The principals hardly give professional advices which help the teachers to have a right direction [guidance] of

performing teaching practices effectively. However, most of the teachers did respect and performed their professional duties by themselves". This finding concurred with that of Long, Yusof and Kowang (2014) depicting that the individualized consideration leader may also respect and celebrate individual contribution that each follower can make to the team.

In sum, when the mean scores of the two groups of respondents were combined and analyzed, the results depicted that implementation of idealized influence ($M = 3.87$; $SD = 0.95$), inspirational motivation ($M = 3.67$; $SD = 1.13$), and individualized consideration ($M = 3.58$; $SD = 1.15$) were considerably higher than the medium point ($M = 2.50-3.50$) while intellectual stimulation ($M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.21$) was implemented to medium point. Overall, the rating scores of the four factors of transformational leadership style were lower than the expected maximum mean score ($M = 5.00$).

From these mean values; therefore, one can certainly reach on conclusion, firstly, that idealized influence was practiced best when compared with the rest three sub-dimensions of transformational leadership style and, secondly, the principals were more characterized by idealized influence or charismatic leadership style. In other words, the principals were relatively effective in adopting the idealized influence.

This finding also indicated that individualized consideration was ranked third in terms of practical implementation. This implies that the principals were little bit weaker at exhibiting behavior of individualized consideration in the study area. This was because the result did not practically support idea of Datche and Mukulu (2015) stating that individualized consideration is considered as the first factor of transformational leadership style and Northouse (2013) contends that high score in individualized consideration is the most indicative of strong transformational leadership style. However, the current study showed its practical implementation was relatively weaker.

4.2.2.2. Practices of instructional school leadership style

This form of leadership style was the second most relatively practiced approach to leadership in the study area just next to transformational school leadership style (refer to section 4.2.1). The respondents were requested to reveal levels of their agreements about the practical

implementation of this style of school leadership in their respective secondary schools. Accordingly, their views are depicted in Tables 8.

Table 8. Practices of components of instruction leadership and results of statistical analyses

| Items | M(SD) | M(SD) | t-value | p-value |
|---|------------|------------|---------|---------|
| | Principals | HoDs | | |
| 1. Communicate vision of the school | 3.93(0.89) | 3.80(0.94) | 1.36 | .174 |
| 2. Formulate goals of the school | 3.80(1.01) | 3.72(0.08) | 0.74 | .461 |
| 3. Allocate resources | 3.68(1.03) | 3.50(1.15) | 1.53 | .127 |
| 4. Stimulate professional discussion | 3.73(1.09) | 3.59(1.13) | 1.24 | .214 |
| 5. Motivate staffs | 3.93(1.02) | 3.71(1.10) | 2.01 | .045 |
| 6. Establish working conditions | 3.81(1.05) | 3.59(1.12) | 1.97 | .050 |
| 7. Coach and mentor teachers | 3.57(1.08) | 3.34(1.07) | 2.78 | .039 |
| 8. Monitor process of teaching and learning | 3.74(1.07) | 3.37(1.17) | 3.25 | .001 |
| 9. Evaluate teaching quality | 3.55(1.14) | 3.44(1.17) | 0.99 | .319 |
| 10. Provide opportunities for professional growth and development | 3.64(1.09) | 3.56(1.09) | 0.73 | .464 |
| 11. Involve teachers in decision making | 3.60(1.08) | 3.52(1.12) | 0.68 | .495 |
| 12. Make teachers to share experiences | 3.59(1.09) | 3.42(1.16) | 1.46 | .145 |
| 13. Strengthen parent-community-school relationship | 3.45(1.06) | 3.22(1.09) | 2.09 | .037 |
| 14. Build a collaborative school learning culture | 3.50(1.13) | 3.34(1.18) | 1.33 | .184 |
| 15. Encourage staffs to evaluate their own tasks progress | 3.52(1.19) | 3.25(1.15) | 2.16 | .032 |
| 16. provide moral supports | 3.71(1.09) | 3.53(1.14) | 1.64 | .103 |
| Grand mean | 3.67(1.07) | 3.49(1.05) | 1.58 | .181 |

Note: Principals = 157; Heads of Departments (HoDs) = 232

As can be seen from the Table 8, the principals performed items 1-6, 8, 10, 11 and 16 above medium point (2.50-3.50), but they did items 7, 9, 12-15 to the medium level. In all of components of instructional school leadership, the principals' self-evaluation mean scores were higher than that of the HoDs. However, for items 1-4, 9-12, 14 and 16, the computed t-test results, $t(344.7) = 1.17$, $p = .269$) indicted that was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of respondents of the two groups implying that their views were the same regarding the practices of these leadership activities. However for items 5, 6, 7, 8, 13 and 15, t-test results, $t(343.1) = 2.$, $38p = .034$) assured that there was statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the groups.

Moreover, the related question “*Do the principals of your secondary school articulate clear and shared vision of the schools and communicate it to the staffs effectively?*” was given to

interviewees. As a result, most of the participants agreed for presence of the vision in annual plan, but they were not sure whether the principals articulated the vision by themselves and they communicated it to the staffs effectively. In this case, one of the interviewees (E4) expressed his view, “Each of our secondary schools principals has a vision that is directly copied from *Woreda* education offices which, in turn, is often taken from Oromia Education Bureau. Even most of the principals do not communicate the vision particularly to the academic staff effectively.”

From the interview participants, the lesson learned was that the principals failed in having their own (self-developed) and individual school-based vision and informing the staffs who maintain it. This weakness might lead, in turn, to a failure in bringing the schools up to the required levels (standards) in the long run. This result supported, to some extent, these of the quantitative part.

Similar agenda was given for the discussants; as a result, they concurrently agreed upon that actually many principals in the sample secondary schools had incorporated vision together with objectives and goals in their annual plans and communicated to the staffs per year. However, these initial and imperative activities of school leadership have not been practiced well. Overall, results obtained from these primary sources (interviewees and discussants) seem to suggest that implementation of these core issues in school leadership need further efforts to improve the school performance.

This finding, to a lesser extent, shows practicability of a recent national education policy document which stipulates that effective principals have a clear vision of how the school could serve its students; align resources and priorities with the vision; and could engage other key stakeholders, within and outside the school, in achieving the goals embedded in the vision (MoE, 2013). The finding also coupled with claim of Stewart-Banks, Kuofie, Hakim and Branch (2015) that those successful leaders in an educational organization like school have a clear vision of the future of their organization, which steers the process of teaching and learning.

Regarding item 3, in order to get a complete picture, the interviewees were asked, “*Do the principals allocate available school resources sufficiently and fairly for different activities?*”

Consequently, a great majority of the participants concurrently agreed upon that most of the principals allocated available resources. In contrary to this response, one of the interviewees (S3) asserted, "The principals, to some extent, allocate the available resource for many different activities of schools, but they lack transparency, particularly on procedure of financial resource utilization." On the way, almost all of the interviewees claimed that there was shortage of resources in many secondary schools.

Similarly, participants of focus group discussion reached on conclusion that most of the principals allocated available resources, but resources were insufficient in many secondary schools which might have become the main obstacles for fruitful performance of various schools activities. In addition, the discussants reported that the principals were not transparent and accountable sometimes. Lessons learned from the responses of interviewees and discussants not only indicated equitable distribution of available resources for different activities of the school, but also scarcity of the resources was there and lack of transparency on part of the principals was observed.

The results of statistical analysis and these of the qualitative ones (responses of the interviewees and discussants) supported one another. This finding was inconsistent with study of Tekalign (2016) that concluded that practice of resource allocation of the schools was below average. However, the current result was more aligned practically with a national education policy principle which states that the principals are expected to identify and allocate resources equitably to address the unique academic, physical and mental health needs of all students (MoE, 2013).

In addition to quantitative result on component of item 4, the interviewees were requested to forward their views on involvement of teachers, PTAs and students in decision-making in some key issues of the schools. The respondents stated that involvement of these stakeholders was not satisfactory. Moreover, one of the interviewees (S4) said, "Almost all of the principals do not involve teachers, PTAs and students in decision-making activities. In every decision, only the management committee is responsible and takes part in the issues." From these responses, one can notice that without active participation of these stakeholders, especially teachers in the decision-making, school improvement could not be fully realized.

This is because they were a driving force for improvement of academic performance of students.

The discussants were provided with the same issue and as a result of which they concurrently consented that decisions are normally made during academic staff's meetings. While in certain secondary schools the principals did not include the teachers in decision-making on schools' issues. Furthermore, they stated that sometimes principals made decision alone so that the teachers might feel as if they were irresponsible for any problem prevailing in their schools. In general, collective decision-making activity among these key stakeholders was rare in our secondary schools. Overall, it was observed that responses of the interviewees and discussants were almost concurrent.

Analyses of the quantitative results showed that the two groups of respondents reported as the duties were performed above medium point, whereas the interviewees and discussants asserted that the performance was not this much satisfactory. This contradiction might imply that the respondents (key school leaders) did not want to expose their weakness although the problem, especially the lowest level of involvement of PTAs in school affairs, was very common throughout Oromia region in school settings. As such, the result of qualitative datum was consistent with the finding of Yohannes (2019) which states that principals engage teachers in decision-making and take their opinion into consideration only sometimes.

With respect to item 5, a related question was raised for the participants of interview. Correspondingly, nearly half of the interviewees believed that the principals have been motivating their staffs, but one of them (S15) said, "The principals barely motivate the staff members to perform effectively their professional duties." In comparison, the qualitative result partly supported the quantitative one. From the whole results, one can deduce that the principals inadequately motivated the staffs so that it could not enable them to exert more efforts for success of their professional duties.

Regarding component of item 13 (strengthening relationship), the interviewees were requested to describe the ways the principals involve parents and local communities in school leadership and students learning activities. The lesson learned from most of the participants

evidenced that the weakest parent-community-school relationship existed. With this regard, one of the interviewed participants stated his views:

Almost in all of our secondary schools, the principals do not involve the parents and community in school leadership affairs. The PTA is organized just for formality in all the secondary schools. The principals call the members of PTA to sign on school grant and to participate in ceremony of school closing program at the end of the year. Therefore, their participation in school management is found at a lower level (E9).

In supporting this idea, another interviewee added:

In case of our secondary schools, the involvement of parent and local community in school leadership and student learning activity is below the expected. This may be emanated from a weak commitment and awareness of the principals in inspiring and retaining active participation of these stakeholders, on one hand, and negative perception of parents about the government school, on the other hand (S8).

Moreover, the same issue was raised for FGD participants; as a result, they reached on consensus that the presence of a good relationship among the school leadership, students' parents and local community was very essential for betterment of school performance. However, participation of these stakeholders was inadequate. The reason might be the principals lacked knowledge or interests of involving the stakeholders and the parents as well as the local community did not give due attention to their school affairs.

From the above lessons it was explicitly noticed that the results of the interviewees and discussants supported one other and confirmed the quantitative result. Overall, the results of data analyses, especially the qualitative part showed a wider practical gap of the national expectation stating that principals engage parents and community members in the educational process and create conducive environment where community resources support student learning, achievement and well-being (MoE, 2013).

This finding was consistent with the study of Tekalign (2016) which concluded that lack of collaboration of parents and local community negatively affected the implementation of school improvement programme in secondary schools. However, the current finding was in contrast with that of Daing (2015) which argues that principals' days are filled with activities

of handling relations with parents and community, dealing with the multiple crises and special situations that are inevitable in schools.

Concerning item 15, the interviewees were requested to reflect their views regarding the principals' duty of encouraging their respective staffs to evaluate themselves. As a result, most of the participants asserted absence of the duty. In this case, one of them (E5) stated his view, "The majority of the principals in our secondary schools do not encourage their staffs to evaluate regularly their own duties for the achievement of the school goals, because most of them lack confidence and skills to do so."

This result contradicted with that of the quantitative (showing the task was accomplished above average) one regarding level of performance of the principals. From the joint results of quantitative and qualitative data analyses; therefore, one can conclude that the principals did not implement the duty to a maximum extent in the study area. This implies the principals were not effective in practicing the task and hence additional efforts are needed to enhance improvement of the schools in the future.

4.2.2.3. Practices of transactional school leadership style

As done in the previous sections (4.2.2.1 and 4.2.2.2), the respondents were requested to depict levels of their agreements about implementation of components of transactional leadership style in the study area. As a result, their views are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. Practices of components of transactional leadership and results of statistical analyses

| The components | M(SD) | M(SD) | t-value | p-value |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|------------|---------|---------|
| | Principals | HoDs | | |
| a. Contingent reward | 3.73 (1.10) | 3.50(1.15) | 2.08 | .172 |
| b. Provision of the rewards | 3.50 (1.38) | 3.13(1.41) | 2.56 | .011 |
| c. Management-by-exception active | 3.78 (1.07) | 3.48(1.21) | 2.49 | .014 |
| d. Passive avoidant factors | 2.91 (2.20) | 3.10(2.14) | -1.55 | .265 |
| Grant means | 3.48(1.44) | 3.30(1.48) | 1.74 | .145 |

Note: Principals = 157; HoDs = 232

As can be seen from Table 9(a), mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.73$; $SD = 1.10$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.15$) revealed that the principals practiced different activities related to motivation as contingent reward. The mean values of the two groups of respondents indicated that overall performance level of the contingent reward was above the medium point

($M = 2.50-3.50$), but it cannot perhaps bring about the desired progress of schools' levels and students' learning outcomes, mainly the academic ones, as the principals did not accomplish the tasks to the full extent.

Furthermore, an independent samples t-test was run in order to determine if there was a significant difference between levels of agreements of the two groups of respondents. As a result, the test, $t(345.8) = 2.08$, $p = .172$) demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of principal and HoD respondents. The result of this inferential statistical suggests that the level of agreement of the respondents was the same (rated at agree scale) about implementation of the component of the transactional school leadership style.

From the responses given, one could learn that the principals practiced components of contingent reward such as informing the teachers about inevitability of reward for the best performers and providing the staff with assistance in exchange to a very minimal extent.

This study attempted to measure effectiveness of the principals in the area of motivation deserved for better performance in the process of teaching and learning. As shown in Table 9 (b), mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.50$; $SD = 1.38$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.13$; $SD = 1.41$) indicated that the principals rewarded the teachers who best achieved goals of teaching practices. In this analysis, the principals' level of agreement was higher than that of their raters.

Moreover, the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(341.1) = 2.56$, $p = .011$) verified that there was statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents implying that their views on provision of the rewards to the teachers were meaningfully different. Overall, the performance of reward provision was found medium, but it could not adequately encourage the teachers to exert their full potentials in order to promote students learning outcomes (mainly academic results). In this case, Kagolel and Mukadi (2021) support that motivation to teachers was positively related to students' academic performance.

In addition, regarding provision of fair rewards for the deservers, one of the interviewees (S13) described, “Some of the secondary schools principals give rewards in a friendly manner for those teachers who performed best.” Another interviewee (E15) stated, “I think our secondary schools did not well develop a culture of motivating the best performers. This may come from lack of practices of continuous monitoring and evaluation which enable to identify weaknesses and strengths of the employees’ performances.”

From this finding; therefore, it can be inferred that provision of rewards (more of the extrinsic ones) for academic staff was insufficient and not uniform among the sample zones and secondary schools. Moreover, the reward was not performed as per outlined by Federal Democratic Republic Ethiopian (FDRE) Ministry of Education (MoE) stipulating that secondary schools consistently provide both formal and informal recognition to staff and students for achievement, improvement and effort (MoE, 2015). In comparison, practice of reward provision in Ethiopia (67% -mean converted) was better than that of South Africa where only 22% of the principals usually reward committed educators for their efforts (Shuti, 2019).

The study also made an attempt to assess effectiveness of the principals in providing their teachers with relevant information on management- by- exception active, which is one of the dimensions of transactional leadership style and having insight into about issues of the schools they lead. As indicated in the Table 9(c), mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.78$; $SD = 1.07$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.48$; $SD = 1.21$) showed that the principals informed their teachers about standards that they should have as professionals and the principals were also conscious of inevitable school problems with possible solutions.

The mean values of the two groups of respondents depicted that the principals’ level of agreement was greater than that of the HoDs implying that exaggeration of performance on part of the principal respondents was observed when viewed in light of a real schools’ statuses on the ground. Moreover, as shown in the same Table, the computed t-test result, $t(359.7) = 2.49$, $p = .014$) confirmed that there was statistically significant difference between the mean scores of respondents of the two groups. In general, the principals accomplished the task above the medium point, but they are still expected to perform their responsibilities to the maximum extent so as to bring about the desired changes in overall school improvement.

Lastly, as indicated in the Table 9(d), mean scores of the principals ($M = 2.91$; $SD = 2.20$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 2.14$) showed that the principals practiced elements of management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire to some extent, but a significant mean difference was observed between the two groups of respondents. However, the calculated t-test result, $t(323.4) = -1.55$, $p = .265$) supported that there was no statistically significant difference between means scores of the two groups.

The average mean value of the two group of respondents ($M = 3.01$), with respect to management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire, was fallen within range of medium point ($M = 2.50-3.50$). This result implies that more than half of the principals of the sample secondary schools exhibited management-by-exception passive and laissez-faire characteristics. As this result, the principals might be considered as ineffective leaders as they did not make optimal attempt to influence followers (staffs) and even they did not provide pertinent professional supports for their staffs' members.

In addition to the quantitative results obtained so far from the two groups of respondents with respect to practicing the three appropriate school leadership styles, a general question "*Do you believe that methods (styles) of leadership that the principals apply enable them to promote improvement of school and students' academic results?*" was given to the participants of the interview (supervisors).

As a result, more than half of the interviewees concurrently stated their views that the styles of leadership that the principals used could not enable them to improve the secondary schools and students' academic results. One of the interviewees, for instance, (S8) asserted his view, "I do not believe that the principals purposely and properly applied the important school leadership styles for overall improvement of the school performance. This is because the principals have left responsibility of improving schools' levels for the government as well as parents."

Another participant (S5) stated that, "I could not identify any style of leadership that is purposely applied by the principals in our schools, because most of them did not take courses of school leadership". The result implies that there was a significant practical and knowledge gaps on part of the principals in the study area.

In sum, from the results of quantitative analyses presented in sections (4.2.2.1- 4.2.2.3), it can be concluded that the principals practiced transformational and instructional school leadership styles above the medium point ($M = 2.50-3.50$) and transactional leadership style was practiced moderately, whereas most of the qualitative results indicated that practical implementation of the three appropriate school leadership styles was below the expected. Here, contradicting results were found between the quantitative and qualitative analyses. Therefore, there is call for conducting further researches in the future.

In other words, the joint results (quantitative and qualitative) indicated that the principals have not yet reached the maximum level of performance in school leadership in the study area. The current finding is consistent with that of Jabe (2021) which concludes that school leaders' practices on instructional leadership (which was the second practiced leadership styles in the study area) were unsatisfactory.

Finally, inspection reports were gathered in order to analyze effectiveness of leadership styles practiced by the principals for improvement of the sample secondary schools' levels (standards). Accordingly, the aggregate data are depicted in Table 10.

Table 10. Level of the sample secondary schools within three consecutive years

| No | Name of the Zone | Level and number of school in 2018 | | | Level and number of school in 2019 | | | Level and number of school in 2021 | | |
|---------|------------------|------------------------------------|------|------|------------------------------------|------|------|------------------------------------|------|------|
| | | Lev1 | Lev2 | Lev3 | Lev1 | Lev2 | Lev3 | Lev1 | Lev2 | Lev3 |
| 1. | East Wollega | - | 10 | 7 | - | 10 | 7 | - | 10 | 7 |
| 2. | Bale | - | 15 | - | - | 15 | - | - | 15 | - |
| 3. | East Hararghe | 1 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 12 | 2 |
| 4. | North Shewa | - | 9 | 2 | - | 9 | 2 | - | 9 | 2 |
| 5. | East Arsi | - | 11 | - | - | 11 | - | - | 11 | - |
| 6. | Iluababor | - | 11 | - | - | 11 | - | - | 11 | - |
| Total | | 1 | 68 | 11 | 1 | 68 | 11 | 1 | 68 | 11 |
| Percent | | 1.3 | 85 | 13.7 | 1.3 | 85 | 13.7 | 1.3 | 85 | 13.7 |

Source: Education offices of the sample zones of Oromia region, 2020 and 2022

As shown in Table 10, 68(85%) of the sample secondary schools were found at level 2 for the four years (2018-2021). This implies that these schools did not yet meet their standards (level 3 and 4); therefore, they still need improvement in terms of inputs, process and outputs in the future. On the other hand, only 11(13.7%) of these schools were found at the required standards (level 3). Unfortunately, 1(1.3%) of these schools stood at level one that can be

closed or removed from education service giving system because the current level of the school was found under standard as stated in principle of national school inspection (MoE, 2013).

This result was coincided with a national evaluation report stating that the progress was underway, but the standards generally remained below the expected levels (MoE, 2015). Furthermore, it agreed with statement of numerous researchers, for instance, Joram, Gabriele and Walton (2020) and OECD(2017a) that thinking about how schools have remained largely the same over many generations of students, one could argue that teachers and schools have stagnated, resolved to continue doing what they have always done.

It is obvious that the end goal of school leadership, school improvement program and school inspection in Ethiopian general education system including secondary school is to see students' learning outcomes (principally academic results) improved sustainably. Therefore, in view of the current study, a typical mirror image of improvement of school level was progress of students' academic achievement. Aggregate academic scores of the students in compulsory subjects are presented in the Table 11.

Table 11. Percent of average results of students' academic achievement by zone

| No | Name of the Zone | Average results in 2018 | | Average results in 2019 | | Average results in 2021 | |
|---------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | English | Mathematics | English | Mathematics | English | Mathematics |
| 1. | E/Wollega | 87.4 | 95.1 | 89.5 | 92.6 | 35.3 | 55.4 |
| 2. | Bale | 69.5 | 72.4 | 71.9 | 74.8 | 33.1 | 38.2 |
| 3. | E/Hararghe | 75.8 | 79.4 | 78.3 | 79.9 | 38.4 | 47.9 |
| 4. | N/Shewa | 73.6 | 76.9 | 72.9 | 76.2 | 34.1 | 52.2 |
| 5. | East Arsi | 82.1 | 72.6 | 78.2 | 74.8 | 29.3 | 37.7 |
| 6. | Iluababor | 62.0 | 63.1 | 66.7 | 68.7 | 33.3 | 42.9 |
| Grand average | | 75.1 | 76.6 | 76.3 | 77.8 | 33.9 | 54.7 |

Source: National Education Assessment and Examination Agency, 2020 and 2022

As can be seen from Table 11, the highest academic result was relatively scored in English and Mathematics in 2019. In comparison, east Wollega zone scored the highest average results in the subjects followed by east Hararghe and north Shewa zones. In contrast, the lowest average academic results were observed in Iluababor zone. This implies that there was a significant variation in students' academic achievements of the two subjects among these six sample zones of Oromia region.

Overall average results of the students' academic achievements showed tendency of fluctuating rather than becoming improved over time within three consecutive years of assessment. This implies that school improvement, which is mainly measured by academic result, was not yet reached the required level (level 3 and 4). Therefore, the result of analysis revealed that the schools' levels could not potentially serve as a principal, among other contributing factors, preconditions for continuous improvement of the students' academic achievement in all of the sample secondary schools as well as zones.

This finding was consistent with the report of national strategic plan document stating that student achievement has not sufficiently improved; in despite of a lot was invested in quality of inputs like teachers, textbooks, buildings and related infrastructures, national learning assessments show deteriorating trends in student achievement (MoE, 2015). This implies that effectiveness of the principals' school leadership in using available resources, practicing the appropriate leadership styles and promoting the schools' levels and in turn students' academic achievement was not up to the expected (progress of the sample schools' performance was not observed over years).

4.3. Association of Schools' Levels and Students' Academic Achievement

Computation was done on Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) between the levels of the sample secondary schools and students' academic achievements in the two compulsory subjects for the three years (2018, 2019 and 2021). The purpose of this computation was to test whether these variables were significantly correlated or not by answering the basic research question, "What relationship does exist between levels of secondary schools and students' academic results?" Accordingly, results were presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Results of correlation between schools' levels and academic achievements

| Year of assessment | Correlation coefficients of compulsory subjects | |
|--------------------|---|-------------|
| | English | Mathematics |
| 2018 | -.130* | .020 |
| 2019 | .091 | -.009* |
| 2021 | .283** | .258** |

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

In Table 12, the computed correlation coefficient(r) revealed that there was correlation between schools' levels and students' academic achievement in both subjects in 2021; in English in 2018 and in mathematics in 2019. However, there was no correlation between the schools' levels and students' academic achievement in mathematics in 2018, and in English in 2019. Overall, the results indicated that the two variables were weakly correlated because correlation coefficients (r) were found between +0.35 and -0.35 (Gay, Millis and Aisasian, 2012). This implies that the schools levels did not serve as potential preconditions for sustainable improvement of students' academic results in the study area.

4.4. Factors Affecting Practices of Principals' School Leadership Styles

Pragmatically, school principals and educational leaders are problem solvers and facilitators. In particular, the principals are expected play a significant role in promoting teacher job performance in secondary schools (Miller, 2016; Williams-Boyd, 2002). However, the current study assumed that the principals' school leadership practices were not free of limiting factors that could in turn hinder their effectiveness in promoting improvement of school and students' academic achievement in the study area.

For this effect, the respondents were requested to show levels of their agreements about the existence of diverse factors affecting implementation of school leadership styles and addressing the last basic research question;” *What are the major challenges that affect the effectiveness of the principals' leadership styles for school improvement and students' academic achievement?* The results of data analyses are presented in Tables 13.

Table 13. Factors affecting school leadership styles and results of statistical analyses

| Items | M(SD) | M(SD) | t-value | p-value |
|---|-------------|------------|---------|---------|
| | Principals | HoDs | | |
| 1. lack of capacity building | 3.53(1.18) | 3.66(1.08) | -1.11 | .267 |
| 2. weakness in SIP planning | 3.47(1.07) | 3.55(0.99) | -0.73 | .464 |
| 3. weakness in monitoring and evaluating teaching quality | 3.43(1.07) | 3.54(1.01) | -1.01 | .312 |
| 4. unwise use of resources | 3.41(1.07) | 3.54(1.01) | -0.96 | .337 |
| 5. low communication, participation and commitment | 3.48 (1.20) | 3.53(0.99) | -1.04 | .301 |
| 6. lack of curriculum inputs | 3.69 (1.11) | 3.64(1.11) | 0.39 | .691 |

Note: principals = 157; HoDs = 232

As can be seen from Table 13 (item 1), mean scores of principals ($M = 3.53$; $SD = 1.18$) and the heads of the department (HoDs) ($M = 3.66$; $SD = 1.08$) depicted that there was lack of capacity to be built for the principals in the priority areas of basic knowledge and skills in instructional, transformational and others school leadership styles. As mean values of the two groups of respondents, the capacity built in order to elevate ability and competence of the principals in school leadership was below medium point ($M = 2.50-3.50$), which can be obtained by subtracting the remaining mean value from 5.0 (the maximum value of Likert's scale used). Moreover, the calculated t-test result, $t(314.2) = -1.11$, $p = .267$ supported that there was no statistically significant difference between mean scores of respondents of the two groups, because the p-value is greater than 0.05 level of significance.

Moreover, the same issue was given for the respondents who participated in FGD (discussants) and their responses depicted that the roles and responsibilities of *Woreda* education offices (WEOs) heads or zone education offices (ZEOs) in capacitating the principals with pertinent leadership skills and competencies through different methods like continuous professional trainings (on-job or in-service trainings) were very limited in most of the sample secondary schools.

The holistic result of both data analyses (quantitative and qualitative) revealed that the performance of capacity building for the principals by the concerned bodies was insufficient in order to promote improvement of the schools. This finding was congruent with that of Markos (2021) that lack of training (on knowledge and skills) in educational management is one of the factors that affect effectiveness of school leaders. However, it did not agree with finding of Tekalign (2016) reporting that the practice of capacity building for secondary school principals was above the middling point. In addition, the finding did not practically support statement of Theodosiou and Karagiorgi (2017) that training and development in school management and leadership is very important together with practicing leadership in schools.

As shown in the Table 13 (item 2), mean scores of principals ($M = 3.47$; $SD = 1.07$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.55$; $SD = 0.99$) indicated that the principals together with SIP committee had weakness in developing both a three-years school improvement strategic plan and one-year/annual action plan. The results imply that failure in these core school leadership

activities could be considered as one of the main challenges of practice of promoting improvement of school by the principals in the study area.

However, the computed t-test result, $t(309.9) = -0.73$, $p = .464$ indicated that statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the respondents of the two groups was absent implying that the respondents had the same awareness of the issues under investigation. Moreover, the discussants supported that there was weakness of the school principals together with SIP committee in properly developing three years strategic plan of SIP and a one year school improvement action plan.

Table 13 (item 3) portrays that mean scores of principals ($M = 3.43$; $SD = 1.07$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.54$; $SD = 1.01$) indicated that the principals lacked activities of effectively monitoring and evaluating the quality of teaching and learning process through observation, use of relevant data, analysis, and timely feedback. However, the computed t-test result, $t(321.5) = -1.01$, $p = .312$ indicated that statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the respondents of the two groups was absent implying that the respondents had the same awareness of the issues under investigation.

In addition to the quantitative analyses, data were collected from participants of focus group discussion in order to gain better information on issues under investigation. As a result, the participants confirmed that there was weakness in evaluating teachers' classroom teaching activities. The discussants concluded that actually the duty of evaluating teachers' performances was conducted by the school supervisors (the external ones), school supervision committee (internal) and/or the principals, but it lacked quality and continuity. This finding supported an evaluation report of FDRE's Ministry of Education highlighting that SIP monitoring and evaluation system is not yet well established (MoE, 2015).

Resources in any form such as human and material are the most important preconditions for a success or failure of a school leadership and management. With this regard, relevant quantitative and qualitative data were collected from the research participants. As shown in the Table 13 (item 4) mean scores of principals ($M = 3.41$; $SD = 1.07$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.54$; $SD = 1.01$) showed that the principals did not utilize available school resources properly. As the mean values of the two groups of respondents indicate, level of agreement of

the HoDs was slightly higher than that of the principals. This difference seems to suggest that the principals did not want to expose their weakness. However, the computed t-test result, $t(292.1) = -0.96, p = .337$) demonstrated that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents.

Furthermore, the same issue was raised to the discussants; correspondingly, they reached on a conclusion that improper utilization or wastage of resources was observed in many of their respective secondary schools. In this case, both quantitative and qualitative analyses came up with convergent results, that is, there was a variation in improper utilization of the resources among the sample zones and/or within their secondary schools. From these results; therefore, one can conclude that unwise utilization of the available school resources by the principals, in the majority of the schools, was one of the main challenges that might negatively affected improvement of the schools' levels and, in turn, students' academic achievement in the study area.

Data regarding school-related relationship between and among the principals and other key stakeholders such as PTAs, students' parents and local community were gathered and analyzed (Table 13, item 5). The results were presented in quantitative and qualitative forms. In this case, the mean scores of principals ($M = 3.48; SD = 1.20$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.53; SD = 0.99$) revealed that communication existed between the principals and stakeholders, level of participation of parents in school affairs and commitment demonstrated by the principals and the local community on school leadership and management were found at a lower level.

In other words, the two groups of respondents rated at agree scale ($M = 3.50-4.50$). This meant that the respondents recognized weight of the problems similarly. In addition, the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(335.1) = -1.04, p = .301$) verified that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the respondents of the two groups, because the p-value is greater than 0.05 level of significance.

Moreover, the interviewees were requested to forward their views on the tasks of the principals aforementioned. As a result, one of the interviewees (E8) asserted her view, "Commitments demonstrated by the principals and local community on improvement of schools' levels were the weakest." Similarly, after discussed on the same issue, the

discussants reported that communication network existed between the schools and stakeholders, commitments of the principals and the local community for overall improvement of the school performance was very weak. In this case, responses of the interviewees and discussants were convergent.

In general, the results of qualitative analyses adequately supported those of the quantitative ones. From the joint results of data analyses; therefore, it is safe to infer that lack of strong commitment on part of principals as well as the local community could be considered as one of the main hindrances of effective school leadership styles for promotion of school improvement and students' academic achievement in the study area.

Locally, this finding was similar to that of Yohannes (2019) and Markos (2021) that effectiveness of the principals to promote a culture of open communication with families was the lowest. It was also consistent with a finding of Tekalign (2016) which concluded that there was lack of school leadership commitment in implementation of the school improvement programme.

Internationally, the current finding was in agreement with a study conducted in Indonesia by Abdulrasheed, Nyako, Bello and Joda (2016) that government policies failing in directing responsibilities of school leaders, school management does not work well, lack of community participation, and lack of government funding are the core problem in leadership and management in schools in several countries including Indonesia.

As indicated in the Table 13 (item 6), mean scores of the principals ($M= 3.69$; $SD = 1.11$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.64$; $SD = 1.11$) showed that there was an acute shortage (73.4% - by converting the mean of the two means) of curriculum inputs like textbooks, furnished and sufficient classrooms and the required standard facilities. The mean values also indicated that the two groups of respondents witnessed presence of the shortage of the resources identically. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test result, $t(335.5) = 0.39$, $p = .691$) confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups as the p-value is greater than 0.05 level of statistical significance.

In addition, the interviewees were requested to give realistic information on status of the necessary curriculum inputs. Consequently, the interviewed groups asserted the shortage of the curriculum inputs was the prevailing challenge almost in all of the schools. Similarly, all of the discussants agreed upon that their schools not only had shortage of the required curriculum materials, but they also had facilities with low standards.

In this sense, Garland (2013) further contends that for effective school improvement process to occur, within the school academic environment there must be provision of required learning aids such as attractive school physical environment, well painted classrooms, adequate chairs, laboratory, library, pedagogical centers, electric power, internet access, water sources and toilets.

The results of quantitative and qualitative analyses supported one another in confirming that shortage of the required resources was the main obstructions of overall improvement in most of the sample secondary schools. From these joint results; therefore, one can conclude that shortage of these inputs and standard facilities could hamper effectiveness of the principals' school leadership styles in order to not transform the school to the required levels (level 3 and 4), in turn, improving students' academic results sustainably. This finding did not coincide practically with a statement of Adamu (2015) that classroom building with adequate furniture, small class population and the use of instructional materials has positive impact on the performance in Nigeria.

Table 14. Challenges of school leadership and results of statistical analyses (continued)

| Items | M(SD) | M(SD) | t-value | p-value |
|--|------------|------------|---------|---------|
| | Principals | HoDs | | |
| 7. inactive participation of parents | 3.89(0.91) | 4.00(0.82) | -1.27 | .207 |
| 8. low commitment of students | 3.85(0.85) | 3.88(0.89) | -0.31 | .756 |
| 9. lack of the required facilities | 3.73(1.05) | 3.79(0.95) | -0.64 | .521 |
| 10. weakness in practices of structures | 3.59(1.06) | 3.67(0.92) | -0.79 | .431 |
| 11. low leadership and management commitment | 3.37(1.15) | 3.55(1.05) | -0.70 | .483 |
| 12. absence of attractive learning env'ts | 3.56(1.18) | 3.59(1.09) | -0.25 | .800 |

Note: principals = 157; HoDs = 232

In the Table 14 (item 7) it is indicated that the mean scores of principals ($M = 3.89$; $SD = 0.91$) and the HoDs ($M = 4.0$; $SD = 0.82$) revealed that inactive participation of parents in school affairs hindered their students learning activities and outcomes. Furthermore, the

calculated independent samples t-test result, $t(310.9) = -1.27, p = .207$) confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups.

When coming to evaluating students' role and responsibility for continuous improvement of academic performance, the respondents indicated levels of their agreements to the current status of the issue (Table 14, item 8). Towards this, the mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.85; SD = 0.85$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.88; SD = 0.89$) depicted that students' efforts and commitment for regular class attendance and improvement of their academic achievements were far below the expected.

As can be noticed from these mean values, the respondents rated at agree scale ($M = 3.50-4.50$) for weaker role and responsibility taken by the students. Respondents of the two groups evidenced the issue almost equally. Furthermore, the Table shows that the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(346.8) = -0.31, p = .756$) confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups of respondents.

Consistently, the interviewees were requested to show their views on commitment of students for progress of academic results. The responses they gave supported that the students' personal readiness to take their own academic responsibilities became lower and lower since the recent past years. Similarly, one of the interviewees (S7) stated, "Majority of students in our secondary schools is arbitrary in their class attendance due to family pressure in favor of home-related works."

Another interviewee (S10) added, "More than 50% of students do not attend their lessons in appropriate manner rather they are highly dependent on others in taking or getting answers of national examination through different means such as receiving messages via mobile cell phone and exam sheets with answers." In supporting this, one of the interviewed groups (E8) again asserted, "Many of the students in our secondary schools prefer cheating to preparing themselves to do examination independently". These views taught us that irresponsibility of the students for continuous academic performance became one of the key challenges of quality of education in the study area.

As indicated in the Table 14 (item 9), mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.73$; $SD = 1.05$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.79$; $SD = 0.95$) showed that there was shortage of required standard facilities in the school which enable teachers to perform their tasks and allow students to properly attend their education. The mean values also indicated that the two groups of respondents witnessed presence of the shortage (75.2%, by converting mean of the two groups) of the facilities. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test result, $t(312.3) = -0.64$, $p = .521$) confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. Similarly, all of the discussants confirmed that their secondary schools had facilities with low standards.

Regarding practice of empowering students in relevant affairs of their respective secondary schools, the respondents forwarded their perceptions (Table 14, item 10). As such the mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.59$; $SD = 1.06$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.67$; $SD = 0.92$) revealed that structures such as student councils and classroom meetings that enable the students to develop a sense of responsibility and self-disciplined culture were not properly implemented.

In addition, as indicated in the same Table, the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(301.9) = -0.79$, $p = .431$) supported that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores rated by respondents of the two groups. The results of descriptive analysis imply that most of the students, who were the primary beneficiary of school improvement, were affected by the dysfunction of these school managerial issues.

It is shown in Table 14 (Item 11) that mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.37$; $SD = 1.15$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.55$; $SD = 1.05$) depicted that commitment of the principals and school community in practicing school leadership and management was low in level. Here, HoDs more agreed on presence of the weak commitment than the principals. However, the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(311.3) = -0.70$, $p = .483$) verified that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, indicating that the respondents recognized magnitude of commitment paid almost in the same way.

Finally, the respondents were requested to rate their perception of circumstance of tangible school situation. According to Balog (2018), learning environment is composed of some components that influence the student's learning outcomes. These components include;

people; teaching materials, technical tools, and learning resources; curriculum, training, and instruction, and physical environment/learning space. In this sense, Table 14, item 12 portrays that mean scores of the principals ($M = 3.56$; $SD = 1.18$) and the HoDs ($M = 3.59$; $SD = 1.09$) depicted that learning environments in the sample secondary schools were not physically attractive. This meant that the environments lacked the pertinent components mentioned earlier.

Moreover, the computed independent samples t-test result, $t(315.1) = -0.25$, $p = .800$) verified that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, indicating that the respondents recognized status of the environments almost in the same way. This finding was not practically in agreement to ideas that learning climate is a key organizational construct of all major leadership and school organizational theoretical frameworks (Hitt and Tucker, 2016) and students in the process of socialization require a healthy environment and models so as to increase their performance (Gilavand, 2016). This was because the sample secondary schools encountered shortage of these qualities.

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main objective of this study was to assess effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in promoting school improvement and students' academic achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia national regional state, Ethiopia. The study was guided by and aimed to address the following four basic research questions.

1. What are the dominant secondary school leadership styles (transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and instructional) of the principals in the study area?
2. To what extent do the principals practice the leadership styles for the secondary schools improvement?
3. What relationship does exist between levels of the secondary schools and students' academic achievement?
4. What are the major challenges that affect the effectiveness of the principals' leadership styles for improvement of the secondary schools and students' academic achievement?

The study used pragmatic research paradigm and convergent parallel design of the mixed methods research. The study involved principals and one of their vices, teachers (who were represented by heads of departments), supervisors and SIP focal experts, representatives of PTAs and students' councils. In order to incorporate these respondents in the study, clustering, simple random and purposive sampling techniques were employed.

The relevant and related data (quantitative and qualitative) were collected from both primary and secondary sources with the help of questionnaires, semi-structure interview guides, focus group discussion and document analysis. The quantitative and qualitative data collected were analyzed descriptively and qualitatively by using means and standard deviations and content analysis, respectively. Moreover, the study used inferential statistics; namely, independent samples t-test and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r). Above all, this chapter of the study presents major findings, conclusions and finally forwards recommendations emanated from the findings of the study.

5.1. Summary of the Major Findings

The analyses of descriptive statistics revealed that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (ranged between 87%-100%) were males and their ages were found between 31-40 intervals of year as well. The results of the survey data also demonstrated that number of the research participants who held bachelor's degree ranged between 52.9% and 93.3%, whereas about 87% of the secondary school supervisors were qualified in Master's degree. With regard to profession, about 60% and 64% of the secondary schools principals and HoDs developed work experiences of 3-5 and 11-20 intervals of years in their respective duties, respectively. Finally, 2/3rd of the principals and 1/3rd of the supervisors were not professional school leaders since they were certified in other fields of studies.

The results of quantitative data analyses indicated that transformational school leadership style was relatively the most dominant leadership style of the principals as weighted by its implementation followed by instructional and transactional school leadership styles. The principals practiced the transformational and instructional school leadership styles above the medium point. However, the practices of these school leadership styles did not progress levels of the secondary schools within 2018-2021 years. Specifically, out of the 80 sample secondary schools 1, 68 and 11 was/were stayed at level 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

The results of Pearson correlation analyses revealed that levels of the schools were correlated positively and weakly with students' academic results in both compulsory subjects in 2021. The same results were found between the schools' levels and English in 2018 and mathematics in 2019. In contrast, the schools' levels were not associated with English in 2019 ($r = .091$) and mathematics ($r = .020$) in 2018. The study also depicted that average (scored 2.0 and 50% and above points) results of the students in the compulsory subjects has become decreasing with a slight fluctuation within the three years instead of showing progress year to year.

The combined results of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses had identified multifaceted challenges in relation to inputs, processes and outputs that have potentially affected practices of principals' leadership styles and in turn overall improvement of the schools performances. The main challenges were: inactive participation of parents in school

affairs, low commitment of students for academic results, lack of the standard facilities and curriculum inputs, weakness in practices of structures and lack of capacity building for principals.

5.2. Conclusions

The current study assessed whether practices of leadership styles of the principals promoted improvement of secondary schools' levels and learning outcomes mainly the academic ones. Accordingly, conclusions were made on the basis of major findings.

The results of survey data revealed that 92.4% of the principals who participated in this study were males. This implies that females were underrepresented in principalship position in the study area. The study also showed that 52.9% of the principals held bachelor's degree implying that nearly half of the principals were under qualified in reference to a principle of national professional standards of principals in Ethiopia (MoE, 2015) stipulating that all secondary school principals should hold master's degree. When professional fields were considered, 2/3rd of the principals were not professionals of school leadership and management. This under qualification and non-professionalism of these prominent school leaders affected negatively overall betterment of the schools performances, because they most likely lacked ability, basic knowledge and skills pertinent to the profession of school leadership and management.

The finding of this study depicted that transformational leadership style was the most dominantly practiced followed by the instructional and transaction school leadership styles in the study area. Therefore, an adoption of the dominant leadership style was relevant as the great majority of the sample secondary schools need sustainable improvement until they reach on the required standards (level 3 and 4).

The results of joint analyses of the principals' and HoDs' responses revealed that the components of transformational and instructional school leadership styles were implemented significantly above medium point, whereas practice of the transactional one was medium. However, improvement of the secondary schools was lagging or very weak as no changes were observed in levels of the schools within the four years (2018-2021). This was because 86.3% of the sample secondary schools (80) were below the required levels. This implies,

even though the principals adopted the most appropriate school leadership styles, their effectiveness in promoting improvement of the schools and then students' academic achievements were not up to the expectations.

The result of correlation analysis depicted that there was a weak positive correlation between the schools' levels and students' academic achievement in 2021. In contrast, the schools' levels had negative association with English in 2018 and mathematics in 2019. This varying direction of correlation between the two variables implies that objectives of school improvement, whose mirror image is the students' academic progresses mainly through effective principals' school leadership and management, were not consistent and yet met in the study area.

However, in some of the target zones of Oromia region - east Wollega, east Hararghe and north Shewa zones - where a considerable number of the secondary schools met the required standard (level 3) their students' academic performances were found better than the rest ones. From these findings; therefore, the study concluded that improvement of the schools in terms of their levels, was mediating effect for students' academic achievement in the study area.

The findings of the study identified that the secondary schools principals have been working in multifaceted challenges. The challenges include inactive participation of parents in school affairs, low commitment of students for improvement of academic results, lack of the standard facilities and curriculum inputs, weakness in practices of structures, lack of capacity building for principals, absence of attractive learning environments of the schools and weakness of the school principals together with committee in properly developing three years strategic plan of SIP and a one-year school improvement action plan.

These and other challenges were prevailing generally in the form of inputs, processes and outputs in the sample secondary schools. Hence getting optimal effectiveness in school leadership styles from the principals was really very inconvenient. From these evidences; therefore, it can be inferred that these prevailing challenges had potentially affected the effectiveness of the principals' in fully practicing apt school leadership styles in order to sustainably promote improvement of the schools' levels or standards in general and students' academic achievement in particular in the study area.

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were suggested to be practiced primarily by secondary schools principals as they are expected to play central roles and take responsibilities in school leadership, other school leaders and stakeholders at different levels aiming at enhancing improvement of the schools and in turn students' academic results.

a) For the secondary schools principals

The principals need to make extra committed efforts to fill the practical gaps observed in school leadership and management activities, particularly implementing the dimensions of the appropriate school leadership styles to the greatest extent. As starting point, they should prepare organized and participatory strategic and annual plans and implement them properly in order to realize improvement of the schools' levels. The results of this study demonstrated that participation of parents in school affairs was unsatisfactory. Therefore, the principals should take seriously a task of inspiring and sustaining these stakeholders as priority area for success of the school improvement.

The principals have to monitor and evaluate the quality of teaching and learning process regularly and effectively and give timely feedback to their teachers. These key managerial and leadership activities should be accompanied by provision of adequate rewards for the best performers of the staff. To this effect, the principals should upgrade and update their knowledge and skills of school leadership and management by self-initiative efforts and using opportunities forwarded by OEB and MoE.

The principals should strengthen communication network and relationship they have with PTA's members and *kebele* education and training board so that they can collectively solve various school related problems and bring about the desired changes on schools' levels and students' academic results. Moreover, the principals should develop their own sense of ownership for the school they lead and pay due attention to attainments of teaching-learning process rather than taking the responsibility of school leadership as a bridge for financial benefits and to other positions as noticed from researcher's personal experiences in his working area.

The principals should make the school environments conducive in order to attract feeling and elevate moral of teachers and students so that they will stay in the school and perform their own duties. As the finding revealed, in most of the secondary schools, efforts of the students were very low due to their background in the lower grades and negative attitudes towards taking their own responsibilities. Therefore, the principals together with teachers and parents should shoulder the load of shaping students' attitudes of dependency and reverse inattention they acculturated from their seniors.

b) For parents and local communities

The decentralized administrative system of education in Ethiopia has paved the way for local community, mainly PTAs and *kebele* education and training board to exercise their school administrative duties and responsibilities so as to sustainably improve schools' levels and students' learning outcomes. However, the joint results of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses showed that involvement of parents and the local community in school affairs stood at lower and an inactive degree.

These key stakeholders should not leave the responsibilities of school leadership and management only to the schools principals and teachers. Therefore, they should be re-oriented, trained and motivated by the concerned bodies so that they could actively and effectively participate in planning, monitoring, and evaluating activities of the schools and bring about the desired improvement in many aspects of their respective secondary schools.

c) For *Woreda* education office heads

As the past experiences widely evidenced, schools principals were being assigned in most cases on the basis of personal affiliation they had with the nearest higher officials or political loyalty and nepotism. Therefore, the *Woreda* education offices (WEOs) heads should assign professionals, masters' degree holders, competent, committed and experienced leaders on the basis of merit and open competition and then work on capacity building for the principals, who seized the positions in this manner, through formal education and short-term and long-term professional trainings. Moreover, the WEO heads are expected to arrange programs to follow-up and provide the school leaders, mainly the principals, with pertinent professional and technical supports.

School leadership and management activities call for collaboration of various stakeholders; for this reason, the WEO heads have to create awareness for the key stakeholders of education policy, strategies and goals and programs so that they understand their roles and responsibilities well and help schools to achieve their goals. Particularly the heads should strengthen participation of local community in various school endeavors made for promotion of improvement of the schools and students' learning outcomes and positively influence government to fulfill the necessary inputs, facilities and standards. They should promote females to compete and come to school principalship because as the finding indicated their participation was found at the lowest level in the study area.

d) For zone education offices

As they are the nearest responsible bodies to the *Woreda* education offices (WEOs), zone education offices (ZEOs) should provide the secondary schools principals under their jurisdiction with pertinent professional and technical supports such as need assessment or research-based in-service as well as on-job professional trainings in collaboration with nearby universities on effective school leadership approaches and capacity building for the sake of continuous improvement of the schools with special emphases on students' learning outcomes. The ZEOs should also conduct effective and continuous supervision together with *Woreda* education offices on performance of the principals' school leadership and management and render timely feedbacks on performance.

e) For Oromia Education Bureau

As the study showed, a great majority of the sample secondary schools (85%) stood at level 2 which means they are under standard but considered as under fulfilling their standards. For this effect, there is a strong need for continuous improvement of the schools through sufficient provision of necessary inputs and standard facilities. Therefore, the bureau should provide the schools in each *Woreda* with all pertinent educational materials, technical and professional supports. Furthermore, the bureau should develop and forward policy and guidelines on profession of school leadership and/or management to support the principals to serve the schools with full professional confidence and guarantee rather than being assigned on the basis of political willingness of the *Woreda* education office heads and/or political officials.

5.4. Implications for Future Research

This study placed special emphasis on effectiveness of principals' leadership styles in promoting school improvement and in turn students' academic achievement in government secondary schools of Oromia region. Obviously, school leadership is a dynamic and intensive activity which needs synergy of other leaders and key stakeholders at different levels. Hence, the researcher genuinely recognized that principals' effectiveness could not alone fully realize the desired continuous change in schools' levels and students' academic results. For this to happen; therefore, further future research calls for to be conducted on effectiveness of the other school leaders, mainly of secondary school supervisors and *Woreda* education office heads.

Since this study relied only on 80 government secondary schools excluding those of the public, private and government in city administrations within six sample zones of Oromia regional state. This led to make generalization of the findings only to the secondary schools of the region with high confidence. In another case, the study analyzed General Education School Leaving Certificate Examination (GESLCE) and university entrance examination results of English and mathematics for three successive years (2018, 2019 and 2021). Therefore, the future study should employ large sample size of secondary schools in Oromia and the rest regions with respect to principals' school leadership effectiveness with the same research methods. In line with this, more longitudinal analyses of academic achievement of the two compulsory and other subjects should be conducted with aim of obtaining more valuable information on its progress in relation to improvement of the schools' levels. If so, the result of the future study will be generalized to the government secondary schools across the country.

Finally, based on the findings of the study the following model was developed that could help researchers, academicians and practitioners who would be interested to undertake further research on effectiveness of the principals leadership styles in improvement of secondary schools' levels (standards) and in turn students' academic achievement.

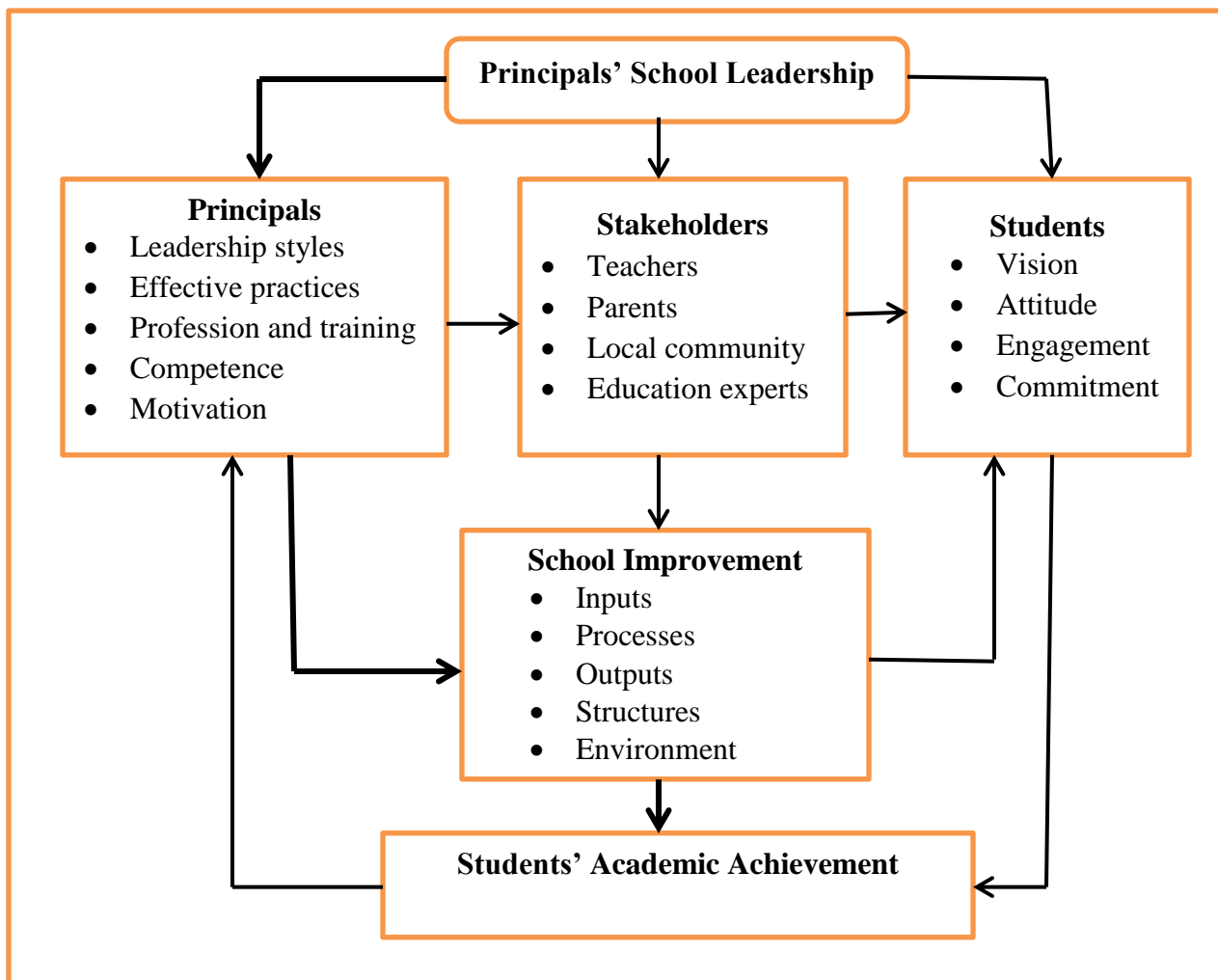


Figure 4. Model of principal school leadership and student academic achievement
Source: Developed by researcher

Figure 4 illustrates integrated efforts and involvement of various stakeholders in school leadership, improvement and students' academic achievement. As the findings of the study revealed, effectiveness of the principals' leadership styles in promoting overall school performance could largely be determined by the principals' practices of the leadership approaches and strong involvement and contributions of other concerned bodies (stakeholders).

As shown by thick arrows, the principals are given central roles and responsibilities in the journey of improving overall performance of the school, but they do not alone bring about the desired progressive change in schools' levels (standards). Therefore, the stakeholders, favorable learning environments and students should play great roles for improvement of the schools and in turn students' academic achievement.

The model also indicates that the principals together with the schools' stakeholders are expected to improve the schools as a result of which students' academic achievement is inevitable improved structurally. However, there will be wide opportunities that considerable number of students could score the best results by self-efforts and cheating (based on the past experiences). Hence, school improvement as mediated-effect is not fully functional in current contexts of Oromia regional state. In another angle, the principals could be motivated to a great extent to practice leadership styles if students' academic results are successfully and sustainably achieved.

REFERENCES

- Abbas, T. and Charles, T. 2002. *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*.
- Abdulrasheed, O., Nyako, M.A., Bello, A.S and Joda, F. 2016. Analysis of lecturers on factors affecting quality of training in teacher education, *Journal of Social Sciences and Research*, 2(12): 195-198.
- Acar, A.Z. 2012. Organizational culture, leadership styles and organizational commitment in Turkish Logistics Industry. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58: 217-226.
- Achimugu, L. 2013. Principals' instructional leadership qualities that enhance effective teaching and learning of chemistry in secondary schools from perspectives of students and teachers. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 6(14): 319-7064.
- Adamu, N. 2015. Impact of learning environment on the performance of students in Social studies in Junior Secondary Schools in Taraba State, Nigeria. Master Degree Thesis, School of Postgraduate Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.
- Adeosun, O.D. 2009. Strategy for effective promotion of academic and moral excellence in secondary schools in Nigeria, The Nigeria principal; *Journal of All Nigeria Conference of principals secondary school (ANCOPSS)*: 17-26.
- Aguswara, Wirasti, W. and Rachmadtullah, R. 2017. The influence of the principal's leadership style and organizational climate on the performance of early childhood education teachers. *Jurnal Pendidikan Usia Dini*, 11(2):369-385.
- Ahmed, M.Z. 2015. Correlation and regression analysis.pp.5. Assumption of correlation, Ankara, Turkey.
- Aina, S. 2011. *Rudiment of Educational Management*. 2nd Edition: fountain training consult, Lagos, Nigeria.
- Ajai, S.G. and Sanjaya, S.G. 2009. *Statistical Methods for Practice and Research*, 2nd Edition: A guide to data analysis using SPSS.
- Akpoviro, K.S., Bolarinwa, K.I. and Owotutu, S.O. 2018. Effect of participative leadership style on employee's productivity. *Business Trends*, 8(2): 48-58.

- Allen, N., Grigsby, B. and Peters, M.L. 2015. Does leadership matter? Examining the relationship among transformational leadership, school climate, and student achievement. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 10(2): 1-22.
- Al-Safran, E., Brown, D. and Wiseman, A. 2013. The effect of principal's leadership style on school environment and outcome. *Research of Higher Education Journal*, 22:1.
- Amanchukwu, R.G. Stanley, G.J. and Ololube, N.P. 2015. A review of leadership theories, principles and styles and their relevance to educational management. *Management*, 5(1): 6-14.
- Anantha, R.A. 2017. Moderating influence of school culture on the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational health of secondary school teachers in Malaysia. *Journal of Economics, Management and Sustainability*, 2(1): 19-35.
- Andrew, S. and Halcomb, E. 2009. *Mixed Methods research for Nursing and the Health Sciences*, London; England, Wiley-Blackwell.
- Antonakis, J. and Atwater, L. 2002. Leader distance: A review and proposed theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13(6): 673-704.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., and Sivasubramaniam, N. 2003. Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(3): 261-295.
- Astin, Alexander, W. and Astin, H. S. 2013. Engaging higher education in social change. *Kellogg Foundation, Battle Creek*, 1–113. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TCBB.2013.17>.
- Avolio, B. 2010. *Full Range Leadership Development*. London: Sage.
- Avolio, B. and Bass, B. 1998. You can drag a horse to water but you can't make it drink unless it is thirsty. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(1): 393-399.
- Avolio, B. and Bass, B. 2004. *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (third edition manual and sampler set). Mind Garden, Inc.
- Avolio, B., Walumbwa, F. and Weber, T. 2009. Leadership: Current Theories, Research, and Future Directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60: 421-449.
- Avolio, B.J. and Yammarino, F.J. 2002. *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead*, Elsevier Science, Oxford.

- Avolio, B.J., Richard, R., Hannah, S.T., Walumbwa, F.O. and Chan, A. 2009. A meta-analysis review of leadership impact research: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(8): 764 -784.
- Bahadur, W., Amir, B., Waheed, Z. and Abdul, N. 2017. Multiple-oriented leadership behavior and school performance: A multiple-case study. *Malaysian Online Journal of Educational Management*, 5(2):25-41.
- Balena, V. 2015. Instructional leadership skills of grade level chairpersons and teaching performance of faculty members in selected elementary School: Towards a proposed leadership training program”, MAEd. Thesis, Quezon City, Philippines.
- Balog, N. 2018. Impacts of the learning environment on developer’s progress. Accessed on 19 December 2021 from <https://www.codingdojo.com/blog/impacts-of-the-learning-environment>).
- Barber, M. and Mourshed, M. 2007. *How the world’s best-performing school systems come out on top*, McKinsey and Company, Social Sector Office Applications. New York: The Free Press.
- Barine, K. and Minja, D. 2014. *Transformational Corporate Leadership*. New York: Integrity publishing.
- Barreto, A. 2009. Transformational leadership for enterprise management based on the management of knowledge and innovation. Venezuela: University of Zulia, Maracaibo.
- Bauer, T. 2016. 23 different ways to conceptualize leadership. The Digital Transformation People. Retrieved on 3 March 2023.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. 1964. *The Managerial Grid*. Houston: Gulf publishing Company.
- Barling, J., Christie, A. and Hopton, C. 2011. Leadership. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Vol 1: Building and Developing the Organization*. APA Handbooks in Psychology, pp. 183-240, American Psychological Association.
- Barrick, M., Thurgood, G., Smith, T. and Courtright, S. 2015. Collective organizational engagement: Linking motivational antecedents, strategic implementation and firm performance. *Academy of management journal*, 58(1): 111-135.

- Barnes, J.N., Christensen, D.S. and Stillman, T. 2013. Organizational leadership and subordinate effect in Utah's certified public accounting profession. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 29(5): 1567-1582.
- Bass, B.M. 1998. Transformational leadership: Industrial, Military, and Educational Impact. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bass, B.M. 2000. The future of leadership in learning organizations. *Journal of leadership and organizational studies*, 7(3): 18-40.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. 1994. *Improving Organizational Effectiveness-Through Transformational Leadership*, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, California.
- Bass, B. and Avolio, B. 1994. Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 17(3): 541-554.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. 1990. *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Bass, B.M. and Steidlmeier, P. 1999. Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2):181-217.
- Bass, B M. and Riggio, R.E. 2006. *Transformational Leadership*, 2nd Edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bass, B.M. 1985. *Leadership beyond Expectations*. New York: Academic Press.
- Bass, B.M. 1990. Bass and Stogdill Handbook of Leadership: *Theory, Research, and Managerial Applications*. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. 2002. Cognitive, social and emotional intelligence of transformational leaders. In Riggio, R.E., Murphy, S.E. and Pirozzolo, F.J. (eds), *Multiple Intelligences and Leadership*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: 105-118.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. 2000. *Manual for Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire: Sampler set*. Redwood City: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., Jung, D.I. and Berson, Y. 2003. Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2): 207-218.
- Bates, C. 2016. A methodology study of Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership theory. *Int J Adv Eng Technol Manage Appl Sci*, 3(11): 42-48.

- Baumgartner, T., Strong, C. and Hensley, L. 2002. Measurement issues in research. *Conducting and Reading Research in Health and Human Performance*, McGraw-Hill, New York, NY, 329-350.
- Beardwell, I. and Holder, L. 1997. *Human Resource Management Contemporary Perspective*, 2nd Edition. Pitman Publishing Limited.
- Belay Sitotaw and Melaku Masresha. 2019. Education quality challenges in Ethiopian secondary schools. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioral Science*, 31(2): 1-15.
- Bell, J. 2004. *Doing Your Research Project: A guide for First-Time Researchers in Education and Social Science*. UK: Open University Press.
- Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. 1985. *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Berg, B.L. 2004. *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Boston: Pearson.
- Berhanu Belayne. 2016. The transformational leadership roles of principals at Ethiopian secondary schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa.
- Berson, J. 2003. An examination of the relationships between leadership style, quality and employee satisfaction and environments.
- Blake, R. and McCause, A. 1991. *Leadership Dilemmas - Grid Solutions*. Houston: Gulf Publishing.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. 1964. *The Managerial Grid*. Houston: Gulf publishing Company.
- Blanchard, K.H. 2008. Situational leadership. Adapt your style to their development level. *Leadership Excell*, 25(5): 19.
- Blanchard, K., Zigarmi, D., and Nelson, R. 1993. Situational leadership after 25 years: A retrospective. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1): 22-36.
- Bian, H. 2018. *Office for Faculty excellence. Mixed methods Research*. Assessed from <https://www.scribd.com/document/216825927/>. Mixed methods Research.
- BoFED (Bureau of Finance and Economic Development) and Japan International Cooperation Agency. 2013. *Manual for Planning, Budgeting, Monitoring and Evaluation and Information Management*, Oromia, Finfinne/Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Bogler, R. 2005. Satisfaction of Jewish and Arab Teachers in Israel. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 145:19-34.

- Bolívar, A., López, J. and Murillo, F.J. 2013. Liderazgo en las instituciones educativas (leadership in educational institutions). *Una revisión de líneas de investigación. Revista Fuentes*, 14:15-60.
- Bolman, L.G. and Deal, T.E. 2003. *Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice, and Leadership*, 3rd Edition. Jossey-Bass.
- Bossert, S.T., Dwyer, D.C., Rowan, R. and Lee, G.V. 1982. The instructional management role of the principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(3): 34-64.
- Brauckmann, S. and Pashiardis, P. 2011. A validation study of the leadership styles of a holistic leadership theoretical framework. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 25(1):11-32.
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A., Hetland, J., Demerouti, E., Olsen, O.K. and Espevik, R. 2014. Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee engagement. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 87(1): 138-157.
- Bromley, H. 2003. Glossary of Qualitative Research Terms. London: King's College, University of London.
- Bryk, A., Sebring, P., Allensworth, E., Luppescu, S. and Easton, J. 2010. *Organizing schools for Improvement: Lessons from Chicago*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Bryman, A. 1996. Leadership in Organizations. In Clegg, S., Hardy, C. and Nord, W.R. (eds.). *Handbook of Organization Studies*. London: Sage, pp. 276-292.
- Bryman, A. 2008. *Social Research Methods*, 3rd Edition. London: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. 2012. *Social Research Methods*, 4th Edition. Oxford university press.
- Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, G. and Uhl-Bien, M. (Eds.). 2011. *Handbook of Leadership*. London, UK: Sage.
- Burnham, R.B. 2021. The independent-samples t-test. pp.332 and 333. *Assumptions for use of independent-samples t- test*. Sage publications, Inc.
- Burns, J.M. 1978. *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row Press.
- Bush, T. 2003. Leadership and management development in education. pp.10-20. *Models of educational leadership and management*. Sage publication.
- Bush, T. 2007. Educational leadership and management: Theory, policy and practice. *South African Journal Education*, 27(3): 391-406.

- Bush, T. 2011. *Theories of Educational Leadership and Management*, 4th Edition. London, Sage.
- Chaganti, R., Cook, R.G. and Smeltz, W.J. 2002. Effects of styles, strategies, and systems on the growth of small businesses. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 7(2): 175-192.
- Chand, S. 2018. Great Man Theory and Trait Theory of Leadership. Your Article Library. Retrieved from <http://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/leadership/great-man-theory-and-trait-theory-of-leadership/28004>.
- Chandra, A. 2010. *Leadership and Management*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Chang, Y.Y., Chang, C.Y., Chen, Y.C., Seih, Y.T., and Chang, S.Y. 2021. Participative leadership and unit performance: evidence for intermediate linkages. *Knowl. Manag. Res. Pract.* 19: 355-369.
- Charbonnier, V.A., Akremi, A.E. and Vandenberghe, C. 2010. A multilevel model of transformational leadership and adaptive performance and the moderating role of climate for innovation. *Group and Organization Management*, 35(6): 699-726.
- Cherry, K. 2018. *Situational Leadership Theory*. Retrieved from: <https://www.verywellmind.com/what-is-the-situational-theory-of-leadership-2795321>.
- Chi, N. and Huang, J. 2014. Mechanisms linking transformational leadership and team performance: The mediating roles of team goal orientation and group affective tone. *Group and Organization Management*, 39(3): 300-325.
- Clark, D., Martorell, P., and Rockoff, J. 2009. School principals and school performance (Working Paper No. 38). Washington, DC: Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research
- Coetzee, I. and White, C. 2004. *Human Resource Management for Master's Degree Students in Education*. Pretoria: Ithuthuko Investments (Publishing).
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2007. *Research Methods in Education*. New York: Madison Avenue.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2011. *Research Methods in Education*, 7th Edition. London: Routledge.
- Cooper, J.F. and John, N. 2004. "Leadership Effectiveness." encyclopedia of leadership. Ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE, 2004. 845-54. SAGE.

- Creswell, J.W. 2003. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J.W. 2007. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*. California: Sage publication.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approach*, 3rd Edition. CA: Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications, Inc.
- Creswell, J.W. 2013. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J.W. 2015. *A concise Introduction to Mixed Methods Research*. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark, V.I. 2011. *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. and Plano Clark, V. 2018. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*, 3rd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Daft, R.L., Kendrick, M. and Vershinina, N. 2010. *Management*. Cengage Learning Emea, UK.
- Daing, C. 2015. Harmonization of instructional leadership skills of department heads and teachers' rating of a public school based on results-based performance management system, unpublished MAEd. Thesis, Quezon City, Philippines.
- Daley, G. and Kim, L. 2010. *A Teacher Evaluation System that Works*. Working Paper, National Institute for Excellence in Education, Santa Monica, California.
- Danielson, C. 2010. Evaluations that help teachers learn. *Educational Leadership*, 68(4): 35-39.
- Datche, A. and Mukulu, E. 2015. The effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement: A survey of civil service in Kenya. *Issues in Business Management and Economics*, 3(1):9-16.
- Davis, D. 2005. *Business research for decision making*, Australia, Thomson South-Western.
- Dawson, C. 2007. *Practical research methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research techniques and projects*. How to Books Ltd.

- Day, C., and Sammons, M. 2016. Successful school leadership. Education development trust. University of Nottingham.
- Day, C., Gu, Q. and Sammons, P. 2016. The impact of leadership on student outcomes: How successful school leaders use transformational and instructional strategies to make a difference. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 52:221-258.
- Day, D.V. and Antonakis, J. 2012. *The Nature of Leadership*, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N., and Lincoln, Y. 2011. *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Derue, D.S., Nahrgang, J.D., Wellman, N. and Humprey, S.E. 2011. Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64: 7–52.
- Dessalegn Feyisa, Bekalu Ferede and Frew Amsale. 2015. Principal's perceived leadership effectiveness and its relationship with academic achievement among students in secondary school. *Journal of Education*, 11(12): 1129-1137.
- Diaz-Saenz, H.R. 2011. *Transformational Leadership*. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson and M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. pp. 299-310.
- Dickson, M., Lelchook, A.M., de Leque, M.S. and Hanges, P. 2012. Project GLOBE: Global leadership and organizational behavior education. In Snook, S., Nohria, N., & Khurana, R. (Eds.). *The handbook of teaching leadership* (pp. 433-452). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- DuBrin, A.J. 2016. *Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills*, 8th edition, engage learning, MA, Boston, Massachusetts.
- Dummet, C., Hagens, C. and Morel, D. 2013. *Guidance on Participatory Assessments*. Baltimore: CRS.
- Dwyer, D.C., Barnett, B.G. and Lee, G.V. 1987. The School Principal: Scapegoat or the last great hope? In ASCD Yearbook, *Leadership: Examining the Elusive* (pp. 30-46). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Dwyer, D.C., Lee, G.V., Barnett, N.N., Filby, B., Rowan, B., Alpert, B. and Kojimoto, C. 1985. *Understanding the principal's contribution to instruction: Seven principals, seven stories* (Vols. 1-7, methodological appendix). San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

- EDA (Emmanuel Development Association). 2010. *Five Year Strategic Plan: 2010-2014*. . EDA, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Farrimond, H. 2013. *Doing ethical research*. Basingstoke UK, New York, US: Palgrave Macmillan.
- FDRE (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia). 1995. *The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopian Constitution* (August 21, 1995), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Fiedler, F.E. 2006. The contingency Model: *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. In Levine, J.M. and Moreland, R. L. (Eds.).
- Fleming, J. 2018. Recognizing and resolving the challenges of being an insider researcher in work-integrated learning. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning*, 19(3): 311-320.
- Flocy, J. 2017. Responsible leadership: A behavioral perspective. Unpublished doctoral dissertation submitted to Lee Kong Chain, School of Business. Where?
- Fouka, G. and Mantzorou, M. 2011. "What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing?" *Health Science Journal*, 5 (1): 3-14.
- Gabriel, Y. 2015. The caring leader-What followers expect of their leaders and why? *Leadership*, 11: 316-334. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715014532482>
- Garland, R. 2013. *School Improvement Planning: Implementation Guide*. North Carolina: State Board of Education Department Public Instruction.
- Gay, R.L., Millis, E.G. and Aisasian, A. 2012. *Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and Application*.pp201-223. *Correlational research* (ed.). Pearson Education, Inc. New Jersey.
- George, B. 2003. *Authentic Leadership: Rediscovering the Secrets to Creating Lasting Value*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- George, D., and Mallery, P. 2009. *SPSS for Windows, Step by Step*, 8th Edition. Delhi, Patparganj: Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt. Ltd., Licensees of Pearson Education in South Asia.
- Ghorbani, M., Zare, Z.G. and Haghani, F. 2016. Situational leadership in clinical education of nursing students. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 5(4): 8-19.

- Gilavand, A. 2015. Investigating the impact of environmental factors on learning and academic achievement of elementary school students: Review. *International Journal of Medical Research and Health Sciences*: .360-369.
- Gill, R. 2010. *Theory and Practice of Leadership*. London: Sage.
- Gill, R. 2011. *Theory and Practice of Leadership*, 2nd Edition. London: Sage
- Grint, K. 2005. *Leadership: Limits and Possibilities*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Glover, D. and Lae, S. 2000. *Educational Leadership and Learning*. London: Open University Press.
- Goff, D.G. 2003. What do we know about good community college leaders: *A study in leadership trait theory and behavioral leadership theory* (Report No. JC 030 281)? Tampa, FL: Hillsborough Community College. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED476456).
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A. 2002. *Primal Leadership: Realizing the Power of Emotional Intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gomes, A. 2014. *Transformational Leadership: Theory, Research and Application to Sports*. New York, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- Goodnight, R. 2011. *Laissez-faire Leadership*. Encyclopedia of Leadership. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Gordon, J.R. 1991. *A Diagnostic Approach to Organizational Behavior*. Allyn and Bacon, USA.
- Graeff, C.L. 1997. Evolution of situational leadership theory: A critical review. *Leadership Quarterly*, 8(2), 153-170.
- Grasmic, L., Davies, D.G. and Harbour, P. 2012. Participative leadership: Perspectives of community college presidents. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 36 (2): 67-80. DOI: 10.1080/10668920802421496.
- Greenfield, W.D. 2004. Moral leadership in schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(2):174-196.
- Griffin, R.W. 1990. *Management*, 3rd Edition, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, USA.
- Griffith, J. 2004. Relation of principal transformational leadership to school staff job satisfaction, staff turnover, and school performance. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42, 333-356.

- Grint, K. 2011. *A History of Leadership*. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson and M.Uhl-Bien (Eds.).*The SAGE Handbook of Leadership*. pp. 3-14, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hallinger, P. 2003. Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33: 329-352.
- Hallinger, P. 2005. Instructional leadership and the school principal: A passing fancy that refuses to fade away. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4(3): 1-20.
- Hallinger, P. 2007. Research on the Practice of Instructional and Transformational Leadership: Retrospect and Prospect. In the Leadership Challenge-Improving Learning in Schools. ACER Research Conference, Australia.
- Hallinger, P. 2010. A review of three decades of doctoral studies using the principal instructional management rating scale: A lens on methodological progress in educational leadership and management. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 20(10): 1-36.
- Hallinger, P. 2011. Developing a knowledge base for educational leadership and management in East Asia. *School Leadership and Management*, 31(4): 305-320.
- Hallinger, P. and Bryant, D.A. 2013a. "Accelerating knowledge production on educational leadership and management in East Asia: a strategic analysis". *School Leadership and Management*, 33(3): 202-223.
- Hallinger, P. and Heck, R.H. 1996. Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980–1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32: 5-44.
- Hallinger, P. and Heck, R.H. 1998. Exploring the principal's contribution to school effectiveness: 1980–1995. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 9:157-191.
- Hallinger, P., Bickman, L. and Davis, K. 1996. School context, principal leadership and student reading achievement. *Elementary School Journal*, 96: 527-549.
- Hallinger, P., Wang, W.C., Chen, C.W. and Liare, D. 2015. *Assessing instructional leadership with the principal instructional management rating scale*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Harris, A., Jones, M., Adams, D., and Cheah, K. 2019. Instructional leadership in Malaysia: a review of the contemporary literature. *School Leadership and Management*, 39(1): 76-95.

- Hammersley, M. and Traianou, A. 2012. *Ethics and educational research*. Retrieved from <https://www.bera.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/Ethics-and-Educational-Research.pdf>.
- Hamidifar, F. 2010. A study of the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction at Islamic Azad University. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 109(2): 45-49.
- Hargis, A. 2011. Roles and responsibilities of a transformational leadership superintendent: A case study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation.
- Harris, A. and Jones, M. 2015. International comparisons; Critiques, culture and context. *Leading futures: Global perspectives on educational leadership*. SAGE publisher London.
- Harrison, C. 2018. *Leadership Research and Theory*. In: *Leadership Theory and Research*. Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- Held, V. 2006. *The ethics of care: Personal, political, and global*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hermann, S. and Egri, C.P. 2002. *Triangulation in Action*. In Parry, K.W. and Meindl, J.R. (eds.).
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. 1969a. Life-cycle theory of leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, 23:26-34.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. 1988. *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources* (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. and Johnson, D.E. 2001. *Management of Organizational Behavior*, 8th Edition. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Hitt, D.H. and Tucker, P.D. 2016. Systematic review of key leader practices found to influence student achievement: A unified framework. *Review of Educational Research*, 86: 531-569.
- Hoffman, Y. and Frost, B. 2006. Multiple intelligence of transformational leaders: An empirical examination. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1):37-51.
- Hopkins, D. 2005. *Instructional Leadership and School Improvement*. London: Routledge.
- Hornig, E., Kalogrides, D. and Loeb, S. 2010. *Principal Preferences and the Unequal Distribution of Principals Across Schools (Working Paper No. 36)*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research.

- House, R.J. 1971. A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16: 321-338.
- House, R.J. and Aditya, R.N. 1997. Social scientific theory of leadership. *Journal of Management*, 23(3): 409-473.
- Hoy, W.K. and Tarter, C.J. 2004. Organizational justice in schools: No justice without trust. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 18(4):250-259.
- Hoy, B. and Miskel, R. 1991. *Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice*. New York: Random House.
- Huber, N.S. 2002. Approaching leadership education in the new millennium. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 1(1): 25-34.
- Hussin, S. & Waheed, Z. 2016. Rising to Prominence and Excellence: A Conceptual Model of School Transformation. 10th Conference: International Technology, Education and Development, In NTED 2016 (pp. 3221-3231). At: Valencia, Spain.
- Hytter, A. 2014. *Lecture: Leadership Theory: A critical Review*. 2FE017 Leadership Theories. Linnaeus University.
- ILTA (International Language Testing Association). 2016. *Codes of Ethics*. Retrieved from http://www.iltaonline.com/images/pdfs/ilta_code.pdf
- Jabe Bekele Hirgo. 2021. Instructional leadership effectiveness in preparatory schools of Hadiya Zone in Southern Nation Nationalities and Peoples Regional Government, Ethiopia. *International Journal for Innovative Research in Multidisciplinary Field*, 7(5): 2455-0620.
- Jamal, A. 2014. Leadership styles and value systems of school principals. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 2(12): 1267-1276.
- Jandaghi, G., Matin, H. and Farjami, A. 2015. Comparing transformational leadership in successful and unsuccessful companies. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 2(6): 357-372.
- Januar, M.A. 2015. Ideal Principal Leadership. *Jurnal Dimensi Pendidikan dan Pembelajaran*, 3(2):1-4.
- Jia, S., Qiu, Y., and Yang, C. 2021. Sustainable development goals, financial inclusion, and grain security efficiency. *Agron*, 11:2542. doi: 10.3390/agronomy11122542
- Jing, Z., Jianshi, G., Jinlian, L., and Yao, T. 2017. A case study of the promoting strategies for innovation contest within a company. *Sci. Res. Manage.* 38:57-65.

- Johnson, B. and Gray, R. 2010. 'A History of Philosophical and Theoretical Issues for Mixed Methods Research', in Tashakkori, A., Teddlie, C. (Eds): SAGE Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research, 2nd edition, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Johnson, B., Onwuegbuzie, A. and Turner, L. 2004. Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Research*, 33 (7): 14-26.
- Johnson, J.P., Livingston, M., Schwartz, R.A. and Slate, J R. 2000. What makes a good elementary school? A critical examination. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 93 (6): 339-353.
- Joppa, F.Y. 2000. *Treatment for Sexually Abused Children and Adolescents*. American Psychologist, 55: 1040-1049.
- Joram, E., Gabriele, A.J. and Walton, K. 2020. What influences teachers' 'buy-in' of research? Teachers' beliefs about the applicability of educational research to their practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 88:1-12.
- Judge, T.A. and Piccolo, R.F. 2004. Transformational and transactional leadership: A metanalytic test of their relative alidity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5): 755-768.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R. and Gerhardt, M. G. 2002. Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 765-780.
- Jung, D, Chow, C. and Wu, A. 2003. The role of transformational leadership in enhancing organizational innovation: Hypotheses and some preliminary findings. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(4-5): 525-544.
- Junior, H.P, Abib, G. and Hoppen, N. 2019. Validity in qualitative research: A processual approach. *Article in Qualitative Report*, 24(1). <http://dx.doi:10.46743/2160-3715/2019.3443>
- Kagole1, B.K. and Mukadi, M. 2021. Effective educational leadership and its impact on students' academic performance in Morogoro municipality, Tanzania. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 9(8).
- Khan, M., Ramzan, M., Ahmed, I. and Nawaz, M. 2011. Transactional, transformational and laissez faire styles of teaching faculty as predictors of satisfaction, and extra effort among the students: Evidence from Higher Education Institutions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, 194: 130-135.

- Kaiser, R.B., Hogan, R. and Craig, S.B. 2008. *Leadership and the Fate of Organizations*. American Psychologist, 63(2): 96-110.
- Kaleem, S.2021. Impact of principals' leadership style on schools' climate, teachers' performance and academic achievement of the students in Southern Districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in Pakistan.
- Karamat, A. U. 2013. Impact of leadership on organizational performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Applied Sciences, Finland.
- Kellerman, B. 2012. *The End of Leadership*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Kelly, C. and Shaw, J.J. 2009. Comprehensive Leadership Development: A Portrait of Programs. In M.D. Young, G.M. Crow, J. Murphy and R.T. Ogawa (Eds). *Handbook of Research on the Education of School Leaders*. New York: Routledge, Taylor and Francis.
- Kest, R. 2006. Principles of leadership: Leadership management. *Futurics*, 30(1/2): 52-71.
- Key, S. 2000. The effect of culture on management style: A comparison of U.S. and Indonesian managers. *Journal of Transnational Management Development*, 5(3): 23-46.
- Kirkbride, P. 2006. Developing transformational leaders: *The Full Range Leadership Model in Action, Industrial and Commercial Training*, 1: 23-32.
- Kirkpatrick, S.A. and Locke, E.A. 1991. Leadership: do traits matter? *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2): 48-60.
- Krejcie, R.V. and Morgan, D.W. 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30: 607-10..
- Kraft, M. H. 2018. Antecedents and perspectives of ambidextrous leadership. *Marketing and Management of Innovations*, 4:5-13.
- Krippendorff, K. 2004. Reliability in content analysis. *Human Communication Research*, 30: 411-433.
- Krishnan, V.R. 2005. Transformational leadership and outcomes: Role of relationship duration. *Leadership and Organization Journal*, 26(5/6): 442-457.
- Krueger, R. and Casey, M. 2000. *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*, 3rd Edition. Sage Publications London.

- Krüger, M. and Scheerens, J. 2012. Conceptual Perspectives on School Leadership. In J. Scheerens (Ed.), *School Leadership Effects Revisited: A Review and Meta-Analysis of Empirical Studies*. pp. 1–30, Berlin, Germany: Acid-Free Paper.
- Krüger, M.L., Witziers, B. and Slegers, P.J. C. 2007. The impact of school leadership on school level factors: Validation of a causal model. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 18(1): 1-20.
- Lai, M., Wang, L. and Shen, W. 2017. Educational leadership on the Chinese mainland: A case study of two secondary schools in Beijing. *London Review of Education*, 15(2), 317-328.
- Lam, C.K., Huang, X., and Chan, S.C. 2015. The threshold effect of participative leadership and the role of leader information sharing. *Acad. Manage. J.* 58: 836-855.
- Lamb, R. 2014. How Can Managers Use Participative Leadership Effectively? Available online: <http://www.task.fm/participative-leadership> (accessed on 2 December 2021).
- Lancaster, G. 2005. *Research Methods in Management: A Concise Introduction to Research in Management and Business Consultancy*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Larocque M., Kleiman, I. and Darling, M. 2011. Parental involvement: The missing link in school achievement. *Preventing School Failure*, 55(3): 115-122.
- Lashley, C. 2000. Empowerment through involvement: A case Study of TGI Friday's restaurants. *Personnel Review*, 29(6):791-815.
- Lazarev, V.S. 2002. *On the Activity Approach to the Design of the Objectives of General Education*, Izvestiya RAO, No. 2, Moscow and Ryazan, Russia.
- Leis, J.A. and Shojania, K.G. 2017. A primer on PDSA: Executing plan-do-study-act cycles in practice, not just in name. *BMJ Quality and amp; Safety*, 26(7): 572-577.
- Leithwood, K. and Jantzi, D. 2006. Transformational school leadership for large-scale reform: Effects on students, teachers, and their classroom practices. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17: 201-227.
- Leithwood, K. and Levin, B. 2004. *Assessing School Leader and Leadership Programme Effects on Pupil Learning: Conceptual and Methodological Challenges*, London, Department for Education and Skills.
- Leithwood, K. and Levin, B. 2005. Assessing school leader and leadership programme effects on pupil learning (Research Report 662). London, UK: Department for Education.

- Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Harris, A. and Hopkins, D. 2006. Successful school leadership: What it is and how it influences student learning (Research Report 800). London, UK: Department for Education.
- Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D. and McElheron-Hopkins, C. 2006. The development and testing of a school improvement model. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17: 441-464.
- Leonard, N., George, K., Peter, L. and Michael, N. 2016. Effect of idealized and inspirational motivation of staff performance in State Owned Enterprises in Kenya. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 8(30): 2222-2839.
- Li, G., Liu, H., and Luo, Y. 2018. Directive versus participative leadership: dispositional antecedents and team consequences. *J. Occup. Organ. Psychol*, 91: 645-664.
- Long, C., Yusof, W. and Kowang, T. 2014. The impact of transformational leadership style on job satisfaction. *World Applied Science Journal*, 29(1): 117-124.
- Lorsch, J.W. 2010. *A Contingency Theory of Leadership*. In N. Nohria, and R. Khurana (Eds.), *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice*, (pp. 411-432), Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.
- Lowe, K., Kroeck, K. and Sivasubramaniam, N. 1996. Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ Literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3): 385-425.
- Lune, H., and Berg, B.L. 2017. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*: Pearson.
- Luo, A. (2020 June 19). What is discourse analysis?
- Lunenburg, F.C. and Ornstein, A.C. 2013. *Eğitim yönetimi* (Çev. Arastaman, G.). Ankara: Nobel Yayınları.
- MacBeath, J. and Dempster, N. 2009. *Connecting Leadership and Learning*, London, Routledge.
- Mackenzie, N. and Knipe, S. 2006. Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, 16(2): 193-205
- Mangin, M. and Dunsmore, K. 2015. How the framing of instructional coaching as a lever for systemic or individual reform influences the enactment of coaching? *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 51(2): 179-213.
- Markos Mekuria. 2021. Effectiveness of school leaders in leading their schools in Kambata zone, Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Education Studies*, 1(1): 2789-2875.

- Marks, M. Helen and Susan, M. Printy. 2003. Principal leadership and school performance: An integration of transformational and instructional leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 39(3): 370-397.
- Marshall, K. 2012. Let's Cancel the Dog-and-Pony Show. *Phi Delta Kappa*, 94(3): 19-23.
- Martin, K. and Acuma, C. 2002. SPSS for *Institutional Researcher Bucknell Lewisburg*. Pennsylvania University Press.
- Martinez, P.G. 2003. "Paternalism as a Positive form of leader - Subordinate exchange: Evidence from Mexico", *Management Research: Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management*, 1 (3):227-242.
- Maxwell, J.A. 2005. *Qualitative research design: An interpretive approach*. Sage Publications.
- Mesfin Molla. 2017. Evaluating the perceived effectiveness of the leadership styles of deans in Ethiopian Governmental Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges in Southern Nations, Nationalities, People's Regional State of Ethiopia, unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa.
- Miah, M.K. and Bird, A. 2007. The impact of culture on HRM styles and firm performance: evidence from Japanese parents, Japanese subsidiaries/joint ventures and South Asian local companies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(5): 908-923.
- Miao, Q., Newman, A. and Huang, X. 2014. The impact of participative leadership on job performance and organizational citizenship behavior: distinguishing between the mediating effects of affective and cognitive trust. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(20): 2796-2810.
- Miller, P. 2016. *Cultures of Educational Leadership: Global and Intercultural Perspectives*; Springer: Berlin, Germany.
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Source Book*, 2nd Edition. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- MoE (Ministry of Education). 1994. *Education and Training Policy*, Transitional Government of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2002. *Education Sector Development Program II (ESDP II) 2002/2003-2004/2005, 1994-1997 E.C*, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

- _____. 2006. Decentralized Management of Education in Ethiopia, A Reference Manual, September 2006, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2008. General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2010. Education Sector Development Program IV (ESDP IV) 2010/2011-2014/2015 2003 E.C- 2007 E.C, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2011. Revised School Improvement Program (SIP) manual. Addis Ababa: Ministry of Education Printing Press, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2013. Ministry of Education's National General Education Inspection Guidelines, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2015. Education Sector Development Program V (ESDP V). 2015/16-2019/20 2008-2012 E.C, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2017. Education statistics annual abstract 2009 E.C. (2016/17), Education Management Information System (EMIS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- _____. 2017. Ethiopian Education Roadmap Development Process, 2018-2030: Secondary and Preparatory Education, Empirical Survey.
- _____. 2018. Ethiopian Education Development Roadmap, Draft for Discussion, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- ትምህርት ሚኒስቴር (ሚያዝያ፣ 2010)፡ የአጠቃላይ ትምህርት ኢንስፐክሽን የመጀመሪያ ዙር የትምህርት ቤቶች አፈጻጸም ደረጃ ትንተና.
- Mintzberg, H. 2010. Developing Leaders? Developing Countries? *Oxford Leadership Journal*, 1 (2): 1-10.
- Mohammed, N.I and Piyali, B.J. 2019. A review on managerial grid of leadership and its impact on employees and organization. *International Journal of Research*, 6(10): 2348-6848.
- Morgan, D. 2007. 'Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained: Methodological implications of combining qualitative and quantitative methods'. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1):48-76.
- Mourshed, M., Chijioke, C. and Barber, M. 2010. How the world's most improved school systems keep getting better. McKinsey and Company.
- Mulford, B. 2008. The Leadership Challenge: *Improving Learning in Schools*. Australian Education Review: ACER Press.

- Mulford, B. and H. Silins. 2009. *Revised models and conceptualization of successful school principalship in Tasmania. In successful school principalship in Tasmania*(ed.). B. Mulford and B. Edmunds, 15783. Launceston, Tasmania: Faculty of Education.
- Mulford, B. and Silins, H. 2003. Leadership for organizational learning and improved student outcomes-what do we know? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33: 175-195.
- Munoz, K. 2013. High school principals as transformational leaders: A phenomenological approach to examining leadership style and practice. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation.
- Nettles, S.M. and Herrington, C. 2007. Revisiting the importance of the direct effects of school leadership on student achievement: The implications for school improvement policy. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 82(4): 724-736.
- Neumerski, C.M. 2013. Rethinking instructional leadership, a review: What do we know about principal, teacher, and coach instructional leadership, and where should we go from here? *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 49(2): 310-347.
- Ngaithe, L., K'Aol, G., Lewa, P. and Ndwiga, M. 2016. Effect of idealized influence and inspirational motivation on staff performance in State Owned Enterprises in Kenya. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 8(30): 6-13.
- Nguni, S., Slegers, P. and Denessen, E. 2006. Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17(2): 145-177.
- Nimisha, B. and Musa, S. 2018. Leadership styles of school administrators and teacher effectiveness: A metanalysis. *International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews*, 5: 2349-5138.
- Nimisha, B. and Musa, S. 2018. Leadership styles of school administrators and teacher effectiveness: A metanalysis. *International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews*, 5: 846-853.
- Northcraft, G.B. and Neale, M.A. 1990. *Organizational behavior, a management*
- Northouse, P.G. 2007. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 3rd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Northouse, P.G. 2010. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 5th Edition. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage Publications.
- Northouse, P.G. 2012. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 6th Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nourhouse, P.G. 2013. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 6th Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Northouse, P. G. 2015. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. 7th Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Northouse, P. G. 2016. *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, 7th Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nuryana, Z., Nurcahyati, I., Rahman, A., Setiawan, F. and Fadillah, D. 2020. The Challenges and Solutions of Teachers' problems to achieve education golden era. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 8(2): 583-590.
- Odoardi, C., Battistelli, A., Montani, F., and Peiró, J. M. 2019. Affective commitment, participative leadership, and employee innovation: a multilevel investigation. *Rev. Psicol. Trabajo. Organ.* 35:103-113.
- OEB (Oromia Education Bureau). 2019. *Annual Report of Education Bureau of Oromia Regional State* (unpublished).
- OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development). 2013. *Leadership for 21st Century Learning*, Educational Research and Innovation, OECD Publishing.
- _____. 2017a. *Schools at the Crossroads of Innovation in Cities and Regions*. Educational Research and Innovation. OECD Publishing.
- Ogola, M., Sikalieh, D. and Linge, T. 2017. The influence of intellectual stimulation leadership behavior on employee performance in SMEs in Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 8(3): 89-100.
- Ogundele, M.O., Sambo, A.M. and Bwol, G.H. 2015. Principals' administrative skills for secondary schools in Plateau State, Nigeria and Asia Pacific. *Journal of Education, Arts and Sciences*, 8(1): 90-96.
- Ojokuku R.M., Odetayo T.A. and Sajuyigbe A.S. 2012. Impact of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance: A Case Study of Nigerian Banks. *American Journal of Business and Management*, 1(4):202-207.

- Paiva, F.G., Leão, A.L., and Mello, S.C. 2011. Validity and reliability in qualitative research in administration. *Journal of Administrative Science*, 13(31): 190-209.
- Pansiri, J. 2005. Pragmatism: A methodological approach to researching strategic alliances in tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning and Development*, 2: 191-206.
- Papay, J.P. 2012. Refocusing the debate: Assessing the purposes and tools of teacher evaluation. *Harvard Educational Review*, 82(1): 123-141.
- Pashiardis, P. 2014. *Modeling school leadership across Europe: In search of new frontiers*. Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer..
- Piccolo, R.F. and Colquitt, J.A. 2006. Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management journal*, 49(2): 327-340.
- Pierce, J.L. and Dunham, R.B. 1990. *Managing*. Scott, Foresman/Little, Brown Higher Education, London, England.
- Polatcan, M. and Titrek, O. 2014. The relationship between leadership behaviors of school principals and their organizational cynicism attitudes. *Social and behavioral sciences*, 141: 1291. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.05.222.
- Portin, B.S., Knapp, M.S., Dareff, S., Feldman, S., Russell, F.A., Samuelson, C., and Yeh, T.L. 2009. *Leadership for learning improvement in urban schools*. Retrieved on 31August 2022 from University of Washington, Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy website: <https://depts.washington.edu/ctpmail/PDFs/>.
- Pounder, D., Ogawa, R. and Adams, E.A. 1995. Leadership as an Organization-Wide Phenomena: Its Impact on School Performance. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31: 564-588.
- Powell, R.A., and Single, H.M. 1996. Focus groups. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*, 8(5):499-504.
- Preston, J.P. and Barnes, K.E. 2017. Successful leadership in rural schools: Cultivating collaboration jane. *Rural Educator*, 38(1): 6-15.
- Quinn, R.E. and Spreitzer, G.M. 1997. The road to empowerment: Seven questions every leader should consider. *Organizational Dynamics*, 26(2): 37-49.
- Reihaneh, S. and Sufean, H. 2009. Participatory management: an opportunity for human resources in education. *Journal of Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1: 1939-1943

- Rhodes, C. and Brundrett, M. 2010. 'Leadership for Learning', in Bush, T., Bell, L. and Middlewood, D. (Eds.). *The Principles of Educational Leadership and Management: Second Edition*, London, Sage.
- Robbin, S.P. 1994. *Essentials of Organizational Behavior*, 4th Edition. Prentice Hall, Englewood cliffs, New Jersey.
- Robbins, S.P. 2001. *Organizational Behavior*, 9th Edition. Prentice Hall International, New Jersey.
- Robinson, V., Lloyd, C. and Rowe, K. 2008. The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44 (5): 635-74.
- Robinson, V., Hohepa, M. and Lloyd, C. 2009. *School Leadership and Student Outcomes: Identifying What Works and Why. Best Evidence Synthesis Iteration*. Wellington: The University of Auckland and New Zealand Ministry of Education.
- Ross, J.A. and Gray, P. 2006. Transformational leadership and teacher commitment to organizational values: The mediating effects of collective teacher efficacy. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17: 179-199.
- Rosemay, R. 2003. Calculating, interpreting, and reporting Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Likert-type scales. The Ohio State University
- Rue, L.W. and Byars, L.L. 1990. *Supervision*. 3rd Edition, Irwin, Boston.
- Sadeghi, A. and Pihie, Z.A. 2012. Transformational leadership and its predictive effects on leadership effectiveness. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(7):186-197.
- Sauer, S.J. 2011. Taking the reins: the effects of new leader status and leadership style on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(3): 574.
- Scammon, D., Tomoiaia-Cotisel, A., Day, R., Day, J., Kim, J., Waitzman, N., Farrell, T. and Magill, M. 2013. Connecting the dots and merging meaning: Using mixed methods to study primary care delivery transformation. *Health Services Research*, 48: 2181-2207.
- Scheerens, J. 2012. School Leadership Effects Revisited: *Review and Meta-analysis of Empirical Studies*. Enschede, NL, Springer.
- Schein, H.E. 2004. *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Schleicher, A. 2015. *Schools for 21st Century Learners: Strong Leaders, Confident Teachers, Innovative Approaches, International Summit on the Teaching Profession*, OECD Publishing.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Tolliver, J.M. and Behling, O.C. 2001. Leadership Theory: *Some Implications for Managers in Dynamics of Leadership*, ed. C. M. Watson, Jaico Publishing House, Mumbai.
- Scully, J.A., Kirkpatrick, S.A. and Locke, E.A. 1995. Locus of knowledge as a determinant of the effect of participation on performance, affect, and perceptions. *Organizational Behavior Human Decision Process*. 61:276-288.
- Seidman, I. 2013. *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Shatzer, R.H., Caldarella, P., Hallam, P.R. and Brown, B.L. 2014. Comparing the effects of instructional and transformational leadership on student achievement: Implications for practice. *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership*, 42: 445-459.
- Schoonenboom, J. and Johnson, R.B. 2017. How to construct a mixed methods research design. *KZfSS Kölner Zeitschrift für Soziologie und Sozialpsychologie*, 69(2): 107-131.
- Shimelis Zewdie. 2017. Principal leadership practices, teacher motivation, and student achievement in secondary schools of Addis Ababa City Government. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.
- Shonhiwa, D. C. 2016. An examination of the situational leadership approach: Strengths and weaknesses. *Cross-Currents: An International Peer-Reviewed Journal on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(2):35-40.
- Shorten, A. and Smith, J. 2017. Mixed methods research: Expanding the evidence base. *Evidence Based Nurs*, 20, 74-5.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/eb-2017-102699>
- Shuti, S. K. 2019. The role of transformational school leadership in promoting teacher commitment: An Antecedent or sustainable development in South Africa. *Journal of Discourse and Communication for Sustainable Education*, 10(2): 22-23.
- Silverman, D. 2006. *Interpreting qualitative data*. 3rd Edition. London: SAGE Publications.
- Smith, B.S. 2016. The role of leadership style in creating a great school. *Saskatchewan Educational Leadership Unit Research Review Journal*, 1(1): 65-78.

- Smith, T.D., Eldridge, F. and DeJoy, D.M. 2016. Safety-specific transformational and passive leadership influences on firefighter safety climate perceptions and safety behavior outcomes. *Safety Science*, 86:92-97.
- Smylie M.A., Lazarus, V. and Brownlee-Conyers, J. 1996. Instrumental outcomes of school based participative decision making. *Educational Evaluation Policy Analysis* 18:181-191.
- Singleton, R.A., Straits, B.C., and Straits, M.M. 2010. *Approaches to social research*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Somech, A. 2002. Explicating the complexity of participative management: An investigation of multiple dimensions. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38: 341-371.
- Somech, A. 2005. Directive versus participative leadership: Two complementary approaches to managing school effectiveness. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(5):777-800.
- Somech, A. and Wenderow, M. 2006. The impact of participative and directive leadership on teachers' performance: The intervening effects of job structuring, decision domain and leader-member exchange. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 42(5):746-772.
- Southworth, G. 2009. Learning-Centered Leadership. In B. Davies (Ed.): *The Essentials of School Leadership* (pp. 91-111) London: SAGE.
- Spector, B.A. 2016. Carlyle, Freud, and the Great Man Theory more fully considered. *Leadership*, 12(2): 250-260.
- Stewart-Banks, B., Kuofie, M., Hakim, A., Branch, R. 2015. Education leadership style impact on work performance and morale of staff. *Journal of Marketing and Management*, 6(2):87.
- Srivastava, A., Bartol, K.M. and Locke, E.A. 2006. Empowering leadership in management teams: Effects on knowledge sharing, efficacy and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(6): 1239-1251.
- Stogdill, R. 1974. *Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research*. New York: Free Press.
- Taylor, M.J., McNicholas, C., Nicolay, C., Darzi, A., Bel, D. and Reed, J.E. 2014. Systematic review of the application of the plan-do-study-act method to improve quality in healthcare. *British Medical Journal of Quality and Safety*, 23:290-298.

- Taylor, P.C., and Medina, M. 2011. Educational research paradigms: From positivism to pluralism. *College Research Journal*, 1(1): 1-16.
- Teddlie, C. and Tashakkori, A. 2009. *Foundations of Mixed Methods Research: Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches in the Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Tekalign Minalu. 2016. Challenges of and opportunities for implementing the school improvement programme in the public secondary schools of Iluababor administrative zone in Ethiopia. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa.
- Tengilimoğlu, D. 2005. A field study for detecting the leadership behavior features in public and private sector organizations. *Electronic Social Sciences Journal*, 4: 1-16.
- Terrell, S. 2012. Mixed-methods research methodologies. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(1): 254-280. <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17-1/terrell.pdf>. The Wallace Foundation. 2012. *The School Principal as Leader: Guiding Schools to Better Teaching and Learning*. New York.
- Theodosiou, V. and Karagiorgi, Y. 2017. Primary school heads' professional socialization and leadership development in Cyprus. *International Journal of Leadership and Education*, 20(6): 661-681.
- Tichy, N. and Devanna, M. 1986. *The Transformational Leader*. New York: Wiley.
- Tobias, N., Nibedita, M. and Christina, D. 2018. The use of focus group discussion methodology. *Article in Methods in Ecology and Evolution*. Assessed on 11 November 2020, available <http://www.researchgate.net/publication>.
- Townsend, T. 2007. The impact of school effectiveness and school and school improvement reform. In: Townsend (ed.), Dordrecht: *International Handbook of School Effectiveness and Improvement*: Springer. pp 289-290.
- Tuuli, M.M. and Rowlinson, S. 2009. Performance consequences of psychological empowerment. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*.
- UNESCO (United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization). 2012. *From Schooling to Learning*. Paris: UNESCO/ International Institute for Educational Planning.
- _____. 2005. Human Rights Education at the Heart of Quality Education. *Education – Human Rights*.

- _____. 2016. "Ethiopia Population Literacy" Based on the Latest Data Published by UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- USAID (United States Agency for International Development). 2010. Review of Ethiopia's School Self-Assessment and Planning Frameworks under GEQIP.
- Van Eeden, R., Cilliers, F. and Van Deventer, V. 2008. Leadership styles and associated Personality traits: Support for the conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(2): 253-267.
- Wallace Foundation. 2013. The school principal as leader: Guiding schools to better teaching and learning. Retrieved on 8 August 2022 from <http://www>.
- Wagner, K. 2012. Reconciling incongruous qualitative and quantitative findings in mixed methods research: exemplars from research with drug using populations. *The International Journal of Drug Policy*, 23(1): 54-61.
- Warner, R. M. 2013. Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques, 2nd Edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Waters, T., Marzano, R.J. and McNulty, B. 2003. Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement. Denver, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.
- Watson, T.N. and Rivera-McCutchen, R.L. 2016. Black lives matter: A call for transformative leadership. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*, 19:3-11.
- Whitener, J.K. 2007. Year of wonders: The wonder of leadership. *Developing Human Resources*, 9: 214-234.
- Wilkinson, I. A. and Staley, B. 2019. On the pitfalls and promises of using mixed methods in literacy research: Perceptions of reviewers. *Research Papers in Education*, 34(1): 61-83. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2017.1402081>.
- Williams-Boyd, P. 2002. *Educational Leadership: A Reference Handbook*; ABC-CLIO: Santa Barbara, CA, USA.
- Wilson, J. 2010. *Essentials of Business Research: A Guide to Doing Your Research Project*, SAGE Publication.
- Wisdom, J., Cavaleri, M., Onwuegbuzie, A. and Green, C.A. 2012. Methodological reporting in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods health services research articles. *Health Services Research*, 47: 721-745.

- Wisdom, J. and Creswell, J.W. 2013. *Mixed Methods: Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis While Studying Patient-Centered Medical Home Models*. AHRQ and PCHM.
- Witziers, B., R. Bosker, and M. Kruger. 2003. Educational leadership and student achievement: The elusive search for an association. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 39, (3): 398-425.
- Wong, L.P. 2008. "Focus group discussion: A tool for health and medical research." *Singapore Medical Journal*, 49(3): 256-260.
- World Bank. 2001b. Ethiopia Woreda Studies. World Bank Country Office in Ethiopia, Africa region.
- World Bank. 2017. Program Appraisal Document to the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia for the General Education Quality Improvement Program for Equity (GEQIP-E).
- Yin, R. 2003. *Case Study Research: Design and Method*, 3rd Edition. London: Sage Publisher. Hall.
- Yohannes Benti. 2019. The link between leadership preparation and work demands of school principals in secondary schools of Ethiopia. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.
- Yukl, G. 1989. *Leadership in organizations*, 2nd Edition. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G. 2012. Effective leadership behavior: what we know and what questions need more attention. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26 (4): 66-85.
- Yukl, G.A. 2002. *Leadership in Organizations*, 5th Edition. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.
- Yukl, G.A. 2006. *Leadership in Organizations*, 6th Edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G.A. 2010. *Leadership in Organizations*, 7th Edition. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice
- Zegwaard, K.E., Campbell, M. and Pretti, T.J. 2017. Professional identities and ethics: The role of work-integrated learning in developing genetic professionals. In T. Bowen & M. T. B. Drysdale (Eds.), *Work-integrated learning in the 21st century: Global perspectives on the future* (pp. 145-160). Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Limited.

Zhu, W., Sosik, J.J., Riggio, R.E. and Yang, B. 2012. Relationships between transformational and active transactional leadership and followers' organizational identification: The role of psychological empowerment. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 13(3):186.

APPENDICES

HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM DIRECTORATE
College of Education and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Educational Planning and Management

Appendix A: Questionnaire to be filled in by Secondary School Principals

Dear respondent,

I am currently studying my PhD at Haramaya University, College of Education and Behavioral Sciences under the title “**Effectiveness of Principals’ Leadership Styles in School Improvement and Students’ Academic Achievement in Public Secondary Schools of Oromia Regional State in Ethiopia**” To realize the study, relevant data should be collected from the relevant respondents like you. The conclusions and policy directions that will be made at the end of this study will highly depend on the responses you provide. Thus, you are kindly requested to carefully read the items/questions and respond your genuine responses for each item. The responses you will provide me will be purely used for the research purpose.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation!

Diriba Kene Yadete

Mobile cell phone 0923 18-91-22

Please notice that:

- There is no need of writing your name.
- A tick (✓) mark should be used, where necessary, to respond/indicate your answer(s).

Part I: General Background Information of the Respondents

1.1. Name of your woreda -----and secondary school-----

1.2. Sex: Male Female

1.3. Age in year: 20-30 31-40 41-55 above 55

1.4. Level of education: Diploma BA/BSC MA/MSc

1.5. Work experiences in the current school in year: 1-2 3-5 6-10

above 10

1.6. Field of specialization-----

1.7. Current position: Principal Vice principal

Part II. Items Related to Principals' Leadership Styles

Items under this part are designed to assess respondents' views about the **Principals' Leadership Styles practiced. Please use the following rating scales to respond to the following items. 5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= undecided, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree.** Put a tick (√) mark against each statement under the rating scales to indicate your level of agreement.

| No. | Items on Transformational School Leadership Style As principal of this secondary school, I..... | Rating Scales | | | | |
|------|---|---------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2.1 | Make teachers feel good with my school leadership. | | | | | |
| 2.2 | Act in ways that the teachers have complete confidence in me. | | | | | |
| 2.3 | Act in a manner that I am considered as a role model of the teachers. | | | | | |
| 2.4 | Motivate the staff by articulating a compelling vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.5 | Guide attitude of teachers by designing a shared vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.6 | Work with the staff and give them fair autonomy in the school. | | | | | |
| 2.7 | Provide teachers with new ways of looking at school activities that help them improve their respective duties. | | | | | |
| 2.8 | Stimulate teachers to think about school-based routine problems and solve them in new possible ways. | | | | | |
| 2.9 | Use intellectual stimulation to challenge teachers' thoughts, imagination and creativity. | | | | | |
| 2.10 | Provide the teachers with helpful professional advices relevant to each individual. | | | | | |
| 2.11 | Provide a supportive climate by listening carefully to the individual needs of staff. | | | | | |
| 2.12 | Use individual consideration to strengthen teachers' achievements and growth. | | | | | |
| | Instructional School Leadership Style | | | | | |
| 2.13 | Communicate effectively the shared mission of the school to the staff for its future improvement. | | | | | |
| 2.14 | Articulate common and specific goals that help to realize vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.15 | Allocate available school resources sufficiently and fairly to support staffs' professional growth and development. | | | | | |
| 2.16 | Stimulate professional discussion with staff on new reform | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | initiative that is relevant to overall school's effectiveness. | | | | | |
| 2.17 | Motivate staffs to perform their respective tasks more than what they planned for progress of students' academic results. | | | | | |
| 2.18 | Establish favorable working conditions that encourage staff collaboration for school improvement and students' academic achievement. | | | | | |
| 2.19 | Spend adequate time on coaching and mentoring teachers regarding the ways they improve student learning. | | | | | |
| 2.20 | Monitor process of teachers' teaching practices' quality. | | | | | |
| 2.21 | Evaluate teachers' performance of teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.22 | Provide teachers with available opportunities for professional growth and development through feedback and recognition consistent with school goals and vision. | | | | | |
| 2.23 | Ensure that teachers have adequate involvement in decision-making related to programs and instruction of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.24 | Create possible opportunities for the teachers to learn from each other and develop spirit of professional competition among them. | | | | | |
| 2.25 | Make great effort to strengthen parent-community-school relationship to participate actively in school management and students' learning activities. | | | | | |
| 2.26 | Build a collaborative school learning culture and help the staff to develop their leadership capacities. | | | | | |
| 2.27 | Encourage teachers and administrative staff to evaluate regularly their progress toward achievement of the school goals. | | | | | |
| 2.28 | Provide moral support by making teachers feel appreciated for their contribution to the effectiveness of school. | | | | | |
| | Transactional School Leadership Style | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2.29 | Tell teachers what to do if they want to be rewarded for their best classroom teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.30 | Provide rewards when teachers reach their goals of teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.31 | Provide the staff with assistance in exchange for their efforts. | | | | | |
| 2.32 | Am satisfied when the staff meet agreed upon common goals and standards of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.33 | Inform honestly teachers that the standards they have to know to carry out their professional work properly. | | | | | |
| 2.34 | Anticipate problems, and take corrective actions before the behavior creates serious difficulties. | | | | | |
| 2.35 | Do not intervene in the problems of school management | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | system and teaching-learning process until they become serious. | | | | | |
| 2.36 | Believe that I should not take risks of poor school management and failure in quality of teaching and learning process. | | | | | |
| 2.37 | Show tendency to let the staff continue their duties in the same ways. | | | | | |
| 2.38 | Avoid getting involved when important issues arise in the school. | | | | | |
| 2.39 | Do not make attempt to influence the staff and provide them with necessary support. | | | | | |
| 2.40 | Delay responding to urgent questions of the school issues. | | | | | |

Part III. Challenges of Effective Principals' School Leadership Styles

Items under this part are designed to assess challenges that affect effectiveness of principals' school leadership in school improvement and students' academic achievement.

Please use the following rating scale to respond to the following items. **5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= undecided, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree.** Put a tick (√) mark against each item under the rating scales to indicate your level of agreement.

| N0. | Items on main factors expected | Rating Scales | | | | |
|-----|---|---------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3.1 | Lack of capacity building for principals in priority areas of basic knowledge and skills in instructional and transformational school leadership. | | | | | |
| 3.2 | Weakness of the school principals together with school improvement programme committee in properly developing three years strategic plan of SIP and a one year school improvement action plan. | | | | | |
| 3.3 | Weakness of the school leadership in effectively monitoring and evaluating the quality of teaching and learning process through observation, use of relevant data, analysis, and timely feedback. | | | | | |
| 3.4 | Unwise use of the school's available resources such as financial, materials, and human which enable the school to improve the overall school performance. | | | | | |
| 3.5 | Poor communication of the school principals with its all stakeholders hindered their sense of ownership over the matters of the school. | | | | | |
| 3.6 | Lack of curriculum inputs such as adequate textbooks, teaching and learning materials exacerbate the low levels of student achievement. | | | | | |
| 3.7 | Inactive participation of parents in school affairs of their children hindered students learning activities and outcomes. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 3.8 | Inadequate effort and low commitment demonstrated by students to attend classes and improve their academic achievements. | | | | | |
| 3.9 | Lack of the required standard facilities in the school which enable teachers to perform their tasks and allow students to properly attend their education | | | | | |
| 3.10 | Weakness of the school in implementation of its structures that help students to develop a sense of academic responsibility and self-disciplined culture. | | | | | |
| 3.11 | Low leadership and management commitment demonstrated by the principals and school community hampered the school not to come to the required standards. | | | | | |
| 3.12 | Absence of attractive learning environments in the school which foster students learning situations. | | | | | |

4. What are your suggestions that help to improve effectiveness of principals' school leadership for the purposes of school improvement and students' academic achievement in your secondary school/s?-----

HARAMAYA UNIVERSITY
POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM DIRECTORATE
College of Education and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Educational Planning and Management

Appendix B: Questionnaire to be filled in by Secondary School Heads of Departments

Dear respondent,

I am currently studying my PhD at Haramaya University, College of Education and Behavioral Sciences under the title “**Effectiveness of Principals’ Leadership Styles in School Improvement and Students’ Academic Achievement in Public Secondary Schools of Oromia Regional State in Ethiopia**” To realize the study, relevant data should be collected from the relevant respondents like you. The conclusions and policy directions that will be made at the end of this study will highly depend on the responses you provide. Thus, you are kindly requested to carefully read the items/questions and respond your genuine responses for each item. The responses you will provide me will be purely used for the research purpose.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation!

Diriba Kene Yadete

Mobile cell phone 0923 18-91-22

Please notice that:

There is no need of writing your name.

A tick (√) mark should be used, where necessary, to respond/indicate your answer(s).

Part I: General Background information of the Respondents

1.1. Name of your woreda -----and school-----

1.2. Sex: Male Female

1.3. Age in year: 20-30 31-40 41-55 above 55

1.4. Level of education: Diploma BA/BSC MA/MSc

1.5. Work experiences in year: 3-5 6-10 11-20 above 20

1.6. Field of specialization-----

1.7. Department: Social Sciences Natural Sciences

Mathematics Languages

Part II. Items Related to Principals' School Leadership Styles

Items under this part are designed to assess respondents' views about **the Principals' Leadership Styles practiced**. Please use the following rating scales to respond to the following items. **5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= undecided, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree**. Put a tick (✓) mark against each statement under the rating scales to indicate your level of agreement.

| N0. | Item on Transformational School Leadership Style To what extent do your secondary school principals...? | Rating Scales | | | | |
|------|--|---------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2.1 | Make teachers feel good with their school leadership. | | | | | |
| 2.2 | Act in ways that the teachers have complete confidence in them. | | | | | |
| 2.3 | Act in a manner that they are considered as role model of the teachers. | | | | | |
| 2.4 | Motivate the staff by articulating a compelling vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.5 | Guide attitude of teachers by designing a shared vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.6 | Work with the staff and give them fair autonomy in the school. | | | | | |
| 2.7 | Provide teachers with new ways of looking at school activities that help them improve their respective duties. | | | | | |
| 2.8 | Stimulate teachers to think about school-based routine problems and solve them in new possible ways. | | | | | |
| 2.9 | Use intellectual stimulation to challenge teachers' thoughts, imagination and creativity. | | | | | |
| 2.10 | Provide the teachers with helpful professional advices relevant to each individual. | | | | | |
| 2.11 | Provide a supportive climate by listening carefully to the individual needs of staff. | | | | | |
| 2.12 | Use individual consideration to strengthen teachers' achievements and growth. | | | | | |
| | Instructional School Leadership Style | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2.13 | Articulate and communicate effectively the shared mission of the school to the staff for its future improvement. | | | | | |
| 2.14 | Formulate and articulate common and specific goals that help to realize vision of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.15 | Allocate available school resources sufficiently and fairly to support staffs' professional growth and development. | | | | | |
| 2.16 | Stimulate professional discussion with staff on new reform initiative that are relevant to overall school's effectiveness. | | | | | |
| 2.17 | Motivate staffs to perform their respective tasks more than what they planned for progress of students' academic results. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.18 | Establish favorable working conditions that encourage staff collaboration for school improvement and students' academic achievement. | | | | | |
| 2.19 | Spend adequate time on coaching and mentoring teachers regarding the ways they improve student learning. | | | | | |
| 2.20 | Monitor process and quality of teachers' teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.21 | Evaluate teachers' performance of teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.22 | Provide teachers with available opportunities for professional growth and development through feedback and recognition consistent with school goals and vision. | | | | | |
| 2.23 | Ensure that teachers have adequate involvement in decision-making related to programs and instruction of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.24 | Create possible opportunities for the teachers to learn from each other and develop spirit of professional competition among them. | | | | | |
| 2.25 | Make great effort to strengthen parent-community-school relationship to participate actively in school management and students' learning activities. | | | | | |
| 2.26 | Build a collaborative school learning culture and help the staff to develop their leadership capacities. | | | | | |
| 2.27 | Encourage teachers and administrative staff to evaluate regularly their progress toward achievement of the school goals. | | | | | |
| 2.28 | Provide moral support by making teachers feel appreciated for their contribution to the effectiveness of school. | | | | | |
| | Transactional School Leadership Style | | | | | |
| 2.29 | Tell teachers what to do if they want to be rewarded for their best classroom teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.30 | Provide rewards when teachers reach their goals of teaching practices. | | | | | |
| 2.31 | provide the staff with assistance in exchange for their efforts. | | | | | |
| 2.32 | Are satisfied when the staff meet agreed upon common goals and standards of the school. | | | | | |
| 2.33 | Inform teachers honestly that the standards they have to know to carry out their professional work properly. | | | | | |
| 2.34 | Anticipate problems, and take corrective actions before the behavior creates serious difficulties. | | | | | |
| 2.35 | Do not intervene in the problems of school management system and teaching-learning process until they become serious. | | | | | |
| 2.36 | Believe that they should not take risks of poor school management and failure in quality of teaching and learning process. | | | | | |
| 2.37 | Show tendency to let the staff continue their duties in the same ways. | | | | | |
| 2.38 | Do not make attempt to influence the staff and provide them with necessary support. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2.39 | Avoid getting involved when important issues arise in the school. | | | | | |
| 2.40 | Delay responding to urgent questions of the school issues. | | | | | |

Part III. Challenges to Effective Principals' School Leadership

Items under this part are designed to assess challenges that affect effectiveness of school principals in School Improvement and Students' Academic Achievement. Please use the following rating scale to respond to the following items. **5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= undecided, 2= disagree, and 1= strongly disagree.** Put a tick (√) mark against each item under the rating scales to indicate your level of agreement.

| N0. | Items on main factors expected | Rating Scales | | | | |
|------|---|---------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3.1 | Lack of capacity building for principals in priority areas of basic knowledge and skills in instructional and transformational school leadership. | | | | | |
| 3.2 | Weakness of the school principals together with school improvement programme committee in properly developing a three years strategic plan of SIP and a one year school improvement action plan. | | | | | |
| 3.3 | Weakness of the school leadership in effectively monitoring and evaluating the quality of teaching and learning process through observation, use of relevant data, analysis, and timely feedback. | | | | | |
| 3.4 | Unwise use of resources available for the school such as financial, materials, and human which enable the school to improve the overall school performance. | | | | | |
| 3.5 | Poor communication of the school principals with its all stakeholders hindered their sense of ownership over the matters of the school. | | | | | |
| 3.6 | Lack of curriculum inputs such as adequate textbooks, teaching and learning materials exacerbate the low levels of student achievement. | | | | | |
| 3.7 | Inactive participation of parents in school affairs of their children hindered students learning activities and outcomes. | | | | | |
| 3.8 | Inadequate effort and low commitment demonstrated by students to attend classes and improve their academic achievements. | | | | | |
| 3.9 | Lack of the required standard facilities in the school which enable teachers to perform their tasks and allow students to properly attend their education. | | | | | |
| 3.10 | Weakness of the school in implementation of its structures that help students to develop a sense of academic responsibility and self-disciplined culture. | | | | | |
| 3.11 | Low leadership and management commitment demonstrated by the principals and school community hampered the school not to come to the required standards. | | | | | |
| 3.12 | Absence of attractive learning environments in the school which empower and support students in the learning situations. | | | | | |

4. What are your suggestions that help to improve effectiveness of principals' school leadership for the purposes of school improvement and students' academic achievement in your secondary school/s?-----

-----.

Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview Guides

General interview guide questions to be conducted between the researcher/enumerator and interviewees (SIP focal experts and secondary school supervisors).

Part I. Demographic Variables of the Research Participants

1. Name of *woreda*-----,
 2. Sex -----
 3. Age-----
 4. Level of education-----
 5. Work experience in year-----
 6. Field of specialization-----
 7. Current responsibility in the office/school-----
1. Do the principals
 - articulate clear and shared vision of school and
 - Communicate it to the staffs effectively?
 2. Do you believe that the styles or methods of leadership that the principals apply enable them to improve school and students' academic results?
 3. How do you describe the ways that the principals give professional advices and rewards for the best performance of the teachers?
 4. How do the principals make efforts to solve school problems related to leadership/management and teaching-learning process?
 5. How do you describe the ways that the principals involve parents and local communities in school leadership and students' learning activities?
 6. Do the principals encourage the staffs to evaluate progress of their duties regularly towards achievement of the school goals?
 7. Do the principals allocate available school resources sufficiently and fairly for different activities?
 8. Do the principals motivate teachers through different means such as giving appreciation and encouraging feedback to perform teaching practices effectively?
 9. Do the principals involve teachers in decision-making on school issues?
 10. Do the principals create favorable working conditions that encourage staffs' collaboration work for betterment overall school performance?

11. To what extent do the principals practice the following expected duties?

- plan and act on curriculum
- evaluate the quality of the teachers and their teaching
- help the staff to develop their leadership capacities
- Provide the staffs with available opportunities for professional growth and development?

12. What is the degree of effort and commitment of students regarding:

- Regular class attendance
- Developing their academic knowledge and competencies
- Doing exam independently

13. What are the major factors that affect effectiveness of the principals in **promoting** school improvement and students' academic achievement? Do agree with existence of these limiting factors listed below? Why?

- Weak capacity building
- stakeholders' participation in school affairs
- availability of curriculum materials
- other school leaders' commitment and co-operation
- leadership knowledge, skills, competencies and experience of principals
- more engagement on routine works
- standard facilities and their usage
- Communication among school leaders and stakeholders
- Current political and technological factors and
- If any other.....

14. What are your suggestions that help to improve effectiveness of principals' school leadership for the purposes of school improvement and students' academic achievement in your secondary school/s? -----.

Thank you for participating in the interview.

Appendix D: General Questions for Focus Group Discussion

The following general questions and leading points are designed for FGD to be held among PTA's representatives, and students' council representatives.

1. Do your school principals articulate clear and shared vision of school and communicate to the staff effectively?
2. How do the principals make efforts to solve school problems collectively relating to management and teaching-learning process?
3. Do they involve parents and local communities in school leadership affairs and students' learning activities? If yes, how it's satisfactory?
4. Do the principals allocate available school resources sufficiently and use wisely for different activities?
5. Do the principals involve teachers, PTA and students in decision-making on school key issues?
6. What are the major factors that affect effectiveness of principals in promoting school improvement and students' academic achievement? Do you agree with existence of these limiting factors listed below? Why?
 - Gaps in SIP preparation and implementation
 - Weakness in monitoring and evaluation
 - Unwise/ineffective use resources
 - Low communication and participation
 - Shortage of standard facilities
 - Low efforts and commitment
 - Weak implementation of school structure and procedures
 - Unconducive school environment and
 - If any other...
7. What you suggest as solutions for the problems or practical gaps you discussed above in order to increase principals school leadership effectiveness which in turn enable to improve school and students' academic achievement?

Thank you for participating actively in the focus group discussion!

Appendix Table 1. Percentages of average (passing marks) results of students in GESLCE in 10th and 12th grades by individual secondary school

| East Wollega zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 17 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| No. | Name of the Schools | Percent of students who scored 2.0 and above | | | | | |
| | | English | | | Mathematics | | |
| | | 2018 | 2019 | 2021 | 2018 | 2019 | 2021 |
| 1 | Balo | 88.3 | 82.2 | 35.6 | 100.0 | 94.1 | 51.9 |
| 2 | Uke | 83.3 | 92.1 | 33.5 | 95.2 | 92.4 | 50.6 |
| 3 | Lugo | 90.7 | 90.4 | 31.8 | 96.3 | 96.8 | 53.2 |
| 4 | Arjo Gudetu | 71.7 | 82.9 | 33.8 | 83.9 | 83.6 | 59.5 |
| 5 | Arjo(Mekonnen Demisew) | 89.7 | 93.6 | 38.4 | 96.8 | 96.3 | 60.0 |
| 6 | Ifa Lalo | 80.8 | 90.5 | 31.2 | 95.6 | 81.8 | 55.8 |
| 7 | Gombo | 93.3 | 91.3 | 42 | 98.0 | 95.1 | 60.7 |
| 8 | Jimata Gumbi | 95.8 | 78.9 | 38.4 | 100.0 | 96.9 | 52.0 |
| 9 | Sasiga(Gallo) | 82.8 | 90.2 | 36.7 | 88.8 | 92.3 | 55.4 |
| 10 | Getema | 95.2 | 95.4 | 33.7 | 97.4 | 94.5 | 49.5 |
| 11 | Anno | 83.7 | 89.2 | 36.1 | 92.7 | 92.3 | 54.9 |
| 12 | Bandira (Getema) | 86.3 | 83.5 | 33.7 | 97.3 | 90.0 | 49.5 |
| 13 | Gute | 88.7 | 88.8 | 34.5 | 94.1 | 84.5 | 58.3 |
| 14 | Burka Chingi | 88.3 | 92.9 | 34.4 | 97.9 | 97.1 | 53.0 |
| 15 | Burka Jimata | 94.7 | 96.1 | 35.8 | 98.3 | 98.8 | 58.2 |
| 16 | Bonaya(Gute) | 87.1 | 89.2 | 34.5 | 87.1 | 96.6 | 58.3 |
| 17 | Sibu Sire | 84.6 | 95.1 | 37.1 | 97.9 | 90.3 | 61.1 |
| Grand average | | 87.4 | 89.5 | 35.3 | 95.1 | 92.6 | 55.4 |
| Bale zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 15 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
| 18 | Goro | 56.7 | 67.9 | 36.7 | 80.4 | 82.2 | 49.3 |
| 19 | Selka | 73.4 | 77.2 | 32.6 | 75.2 | 32.7 | 31.2 |
| 20 | Goba | 71.2 | 73.3 | 32.9 | 62.3 | 75.3 | 39.7 |
| 21 | Rayitu Anole | 100.0 | 73.0 | 43.4 | 98.2 | 75.0 | 46.1 |
| 22 | Jibri | 60.7 | 94.7 | 41.9 | 45.8 | 89.5 | 48.1 |
| 23 | Gasera | 58.2 | 59.3 | 31.7 | 47.0 | 59.3 | 41.5 |
| 24 | Homa | 53.0 | 56.5 | 34.8 | 68.7 | 79.4 | 47.9 |
| 25 | Salu | 78.9 | 80.9 | 27.7 | 87.4 | 84.7 | 36.2 |
| 26 | Ambentu | 51.5 | 60.2 | 34.8 | 70.1 | 88.3 | 45.0 |
| 27 | Hisu | 84.7 | 60.0 | 28.7 | 85.8 | 58.8 | 48.1 |
| 28 | Sanbitu | 90.9 | 80.0 | 26.8 | 61.3 | 83.8 | 25.6 |
| 29 | Obera | 67.4 | 66.7 | 33.6 | 84.6 | 86.9 | 54.9 |
| 30 | Agarfa | 73.7 | 68.5 | 33.6 | 64.5 | 57.2 | 39.2 |
| 31 | Nake Negewo | 60.0 | 94.4 | 27.1 | 76.5 | 94.4 | 27.2 |
| 32 | Dinsho | 62.4 | 65.9 | 29.9 | 77.6 | 75.0 | 42.9 |
| Grand average | | 69.5 | 71.9 | 33.1 | 72.36 | 74.8 | 38.2 |
| East Hararghe zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 15 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
| 33 | Haremaya | 79.6 | 83.3 | 39.9 | 81.5 | 91.4 | 56.2 |
| 34 | Bate | 70.9 | 79.9 | 30.8 | 79.3 | 77.9 | 38.3 |
| 35 | Aweday | 86.8 | 98.2 | 33.4 | 91.5 | 94.4 | 56.2 |
| 36 | Adele | 87.3 | 89.1 | 33.9 | 95.6 | 87.5 | 45.9 |
| 37 | Chelenko | 78.9 | 81.1 | 38.4 | 78.1 | 84.6 | 46.2 |

| | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 38 | Kulubi Gedam | 68.3 | 89.1 | 46.5 | 83.1 | 80.6 | 45.9 |
| 39 | Goro Muti | 69.2 | 64.8 | 43.3 | 64.6 | 88.9 | 41.9 |
| 40 | Bedeno | 90.6 | 94.9 | 41.3 | 90.0 | 92.2 | 48.2 |
| 41 | Iliko Gobe Haro | 83.2 | 95.3 | 31.3 | 97.2 | 92.6 | 42.8 |
| 42 | Kombolcha | 68.9 | 62.7 | 49.1 | 67.9 | 61.7 | 47.6 |
| 43 | Felana | 82.9 | 63.2 | 40.6 | 72.4 | 71.8 | 42.6 |
| 44 | Gerawa | 63.3 | 61.1 | 38.8 | 45.3 | 55.7 | 49.5 |
| 45 | Lafto Ela Tatesa | 86.1 | 91.5 | 39.4 | 98.0 | 98.4 | 57.2 |
| 46 | Gursum | 34.1 | 59.8 | 36.9 | 53.9 | 53.5 | 55.5 |
| 47 | Awberie | 87.3 | 61.2 | 31.7 | 92.2 | 68.2 | 45.6 |
| Grand average | | 75.8 | 78.3 | 38.4 | 79.4 | 79.9 | 47.9 |
| North Shewa zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
| 48 | Shambel Abebe Bikila | 73.4 | 75.6 | 35.9 | 81.3 | 96.3 | 52.6 |
| 49 | Abichu Gna | 69.1 | 68.0 | 33.4 | 79.9 | 65.7 | 52.3 |
| 50 | Abdisa Aga | 68.4 | 72.6 | 26.5 | 71.1 | 58.7 | 42.8 |
| 51 | Aleltu | 62.7 | 60.2 | 32.0 | 51.5 | 69.2 | 47.9 |
| 52 | Debre Tsige | 69.8 | 84.0 | 31.3 | 82.9 | 88.0 | 54.8 |
| 53 | Dahana | 89.8 | 74.4 | 34.8 | 100.0 | 93.0 | 56.5 |
| 54 | Degem | 82.7 | 83.9 | 30.9 | 95.3 | 77.4 | 52.2 |
| 55 | Ejersa Kawo | 78.2 | 73.5 | 44.1 | 95.5 | 81.6 | 58.9 |
| 56 | Fiche | 60.1 | 61.9 | 34.5 | 56.5 | 66.8 | 53.1 |
| 56 | Muka Kule | 88.2 | 96.1 | 36.0 | 97.9 | 89.2 | 56.5 |
| 56 | Sheno | 67.2 | 51.2 | 36.2 | 33.6 | 52.3 | 47.1 |
| Grand average | | 73.6 | 72.9 | 34.1 | 76.9 | 76.2 | 52.2 |
| East Arsi zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
| 59 | Bekoji | 71.2 | 61.4 | 35.9 | 62.2 | 70.9 | 46.9 |
| 60 | Waji Bilalo | 67.1 | 71.3 | 34.8 | 56.9 | 79.2 | 49.7 |
| 61 | Beriti | 92.4 | 84.3 | 34.0 | 68.6 | 95.3 | 45.5 |
| 62 | Ketar | 63.9 | 66.3 | 30.6 | 78.7 | 58.3 | 41.2 |
| 63 | Boru | 71.7 | 60.1 | 31.3 | 85.8 | 59.6 | 41.6 |
| 64 | Gonde | 73.4 | 54.7 | 32.6 | 64.1 | 73.4 | 40.5 |
| 65 | Kulumsa | 68.9 | 67.6 | 31.6 | 68.5 | 62.3 | 40.8 |
| 66 | Chafe Jila | 78.8 | 83.9 | 32.4 | 88.4 | 89.3 | 39.9 |
| 67 | Lemu | 81.8 | 85.1 | 30.1 | 98.2 | 90.9 | 38.4 |
| 68 | Arata Chufa | 73.5 | 74.8 | 33.4 | 80.6 | 86.6 | 39.5 |
| 69 | Meraro | 64.7 | 61.9 | 31.1 | 50.8 | 75.8 | 37.1 |
| Grand average | | 82.1 | 78.2 | 29.3 | 72.6 | 74.8 | 37.7 |
| Iluababor zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | | | | |
| 70 | Abdi Bori | 75.6 | 84.4 | 35.2 | 71.9 | 87.5 | 50.1 |
| 71 | Nopa | 51.8 | 59.5 | 28.9 | 47.3 | 63.8 | 44.3 |
| 72 | Bure | 71.1 | 66.4 | 39.4 | 81.4 | 67.4 | 44.8 |
| 73 | Burusa | 54.5 | 76.4 | 35.9 | 65.9 | 73.0 | 33.8 |
| 74 | Gore | 63.2 | 61.1 | 33.1 | 56.5 | 55.7 | 43.2 |
| 75 | Hurumu | 54.4 | 68.4 | 31.2 | 77.5 | 80.1 | 43.2 |
| 76 | Mettu | 52.3 | 55.7 | 37.3 | 64.2 | 51.4 | 45.7 |
| 77 | Onga | 75.0 | 53.7 | 37.8 | 47.5 | 71.3 | 44.9 |
| 78 | Sibo | 64.4 | 79.8 | 28.3 | 74.1 | 75.0 | 41.5 |
| 79 | Uka | 60.2 | 59.9 | 28.9 | 50.6 | 53.7 | 37.6 |
| 80 | Yayo | 60.0 | 68.4 | 30.7 | 57.1 | 76.7 | 43.3 |
| Grand average | | 62.0 | 66.7 | 33.3 | 63.1 | 68.7 | 42.9 |

Appendix Table 2. Level of the individual sample secondary school of E/Wollega zone**East Wollegazone of Oromia regional state, description of secondary schools' level (standards)**

| S.N | Name of sample the school | 2018/2010 E.C | 2019/2011 E.C | 2021/2013 E.C |
|-----|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Level | Level | Level |
| 1 | Balo | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 2 | Uke | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | Lugo | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 4 | Arjo Gudetu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Arjo(Mekonnen Demisew) | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6 | Ifa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | Gombo | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Jimata Gumbi | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 9 | Sasiga | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 10 | Getema | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 11 | Anno | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 12 | Bandira | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 13 | Gute | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 14 | Burka Chingi | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 15 | Burka Jimata | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 16 | Bonaya | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 17 | Sibu Sire | 3 | 3 | 3 |



Appendix Table 3. Level of the individual sample secondary school of east Hararghe zone**East Hararghezone of Oromia regional state, description of secondary schools' level (standards)**


| S.N | Name of sample the school | 2018/2010 E.C | 2019/2011 E.C | 2021/2013 E.C |
|-----|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Level | Level | Level |
| 1 | Haremaya | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 2 | Bate | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | Aweday | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | Adele | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Chelenko | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 6 | Kulubi Gedam | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 7 | Goro Muti | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Bedeno | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 9 | Iliko Gobe Haro | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | Kombolcha | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11 | Felana | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 12 | Gerawa | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 13 | Lafto Ela Tatesa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 14 | Gursum | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 15 | Awberie | 2 | 2 | 2 |



Appendix Table 4. Level of the individual sample secondary school of Bale zone

Bale zone of Oromia regional state, Description of secondary schools' level (standards)

| S.N | Name of sample the school | 2018/2019 E.C | 2019/2019 E.C | 2011/2021 E.C |
|-----|---------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | | Level | Level | Level |
| 1 | Goro | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 2 | Selka | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | Goba | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | Rayitu Anole | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Jibri | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6 | Gasera | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | Homa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Salu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 9 | Ambentu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | Hisu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11 | Senbitu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 12 | Obera | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 13 | Agarfa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 14 | Nake Negawo | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 15 | Dinsho | 2 | 2 | 2 |



Appendix Table 5. Level of the individual sample secondary school of three zones

| N/ Shewa zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | |
|--|-------------------|---|---|---|
| 1 | Abebe Bikila Jato | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 2 | Abichu | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 3 | Abdisa Aga | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | Aleltu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Debre Tsige | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6 | Dahana | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | Degem | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Ejersa Kawo | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 9 | Fiche | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | Muka Kule | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11 | Sheno | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| East Arsi zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | |
| 1 | Bekoji | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 2 | Waji Bilalo | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | Beriti | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | Ketar | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Boru | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6 | Gonde | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | Kulumsa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Chafe Jila | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 9 | Lemu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | Arata Chufa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11 | Meraro | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Iluababor zone of Oromia regional state (Name of 11 sampled Secondary Schools) | | | | |
| 1 | Abdi Bori | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 2 | Nopa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | Bure | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 4 | Burusa | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 5 | Gore | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 6 | Hurumu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 7 | Mettu | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 8 | Onga | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 9 | Sibo | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 10 | Uka | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 11 | Yayo | 2 | 2 | 2 |