

Leading Secondary School Teachers for Organizational learning: A Comparative
Case Study of Government and Private Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

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A dissertation Submitted to
The Center for Comparative Education and Policy Studies

Presented in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in International and Comparative Education

Addis Ababa University
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
February, 2017

Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

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Leading Secondary School Teacher's Professional Learning: A Comparative
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to offer my sincere gratitude and deepest appreciation to my advisor, Professor Emeritus Holger Daun. This dissertation would not have been possible without your professional support. You guided me in each step of my study and made accessible to me your rich experience in research in general and your knowledge in the area of school leadership in particular. Besides as an advisor you supported me, as an editor and writer you challenged me, as a researcher you inspired me. Thank you very much for your immense amount of time, commitment and quick responses. Your thought-provoking questions helped me to see and consider issues in the study from different angles.

I would also like to express my thanks to my co-supervisor Vinayagum Chinapah. In addition to scholarly support, you made available to me many latest and relevant reading materials to me. I am very appreciative of your critical and insightful comments on each chapter. Finally, I am also grateful in particular to the school principals, vice-principals, teachers who were so willingly answered all my questions during my field work.

Abstract

School leadership is not merely getting hold of the status, but it is having dependable theoretical and practical attributes the status demands. In order to fulfill the demands of leadership, it is normal to challenge followers in scholarly ways and to be challenged by followers for the good of the organization. This is one possible way of differentiating a leader from a manager. Thus, the study was targeted to explore how the actual school principals' actions enhanced/discouraged the commitment of teachers to organizational learning in the selected schools. The study was initiated because of two basic reasons. The primary reason was that lack of research evidence' of how leadership actions and competencies inspire teachers for organizational learning. Second, although leadership actions are decisive for schools' success, the school principals' roles as a leader were not recognized by the society. In a similar way, management functions are more credited than leadership roles by the actors themselves in Ethiopia. Qualitative case study was used as a research design and semi- structured interview, observation, and document analysis were the data gathering tools. The findings show that the school principals and teachers have similar perception of the importance of organizational learning. Although they have similar insights about the concept and importance of organizational learning; its implementation was not the same in the studied government and private secondary schools. The major finding of the study reveals that the government school principal was perceived by teachers as ineffective in leading OL. They felt that CPD as one of the strategies for organizational learning is top-down by its design and it does not match to the realities in the school. The school principal used transactional leadership approach to achieve the school's goals and applied his legitimate power in leading the teachers for work place learning. The teachers complained that their ideas were not given attention and not valued. Senior teachers considered themselves as master minds of the school because of their long years teaching experience and they discouraged novice teachers when they come up with new ideas. Sense of "we" and "they" was deep-rooted between the school management and teachers. A culture of working together was not well developed; teachers blame the school administration and the school administration accuses the teachers. On the contrary, leadership actions in the private school were transformative. The school principal had shown adequate potential to motivate and persuade the teachers to learn new things and he had been willing to listen to teachers' voices, to read teachers' interests and needs. He served as a role- model by making himself life-long leader-learner in his retirement ages, valued collective endeavors and an individual's contributions. The teachers were also open to accept new ideas, professional comments and they visited each other's classrooms and tried together new pedagogical arts. At the institution level new ideas were welcomed regardless of power and position. The teachers solved the school problems together, valued collective endeavors and an individual's contributions, visited each other's' classrooms and tried together new pedagogical practices.

Key words: *leadership, transformational leadership, organizational learning, and learning culture*

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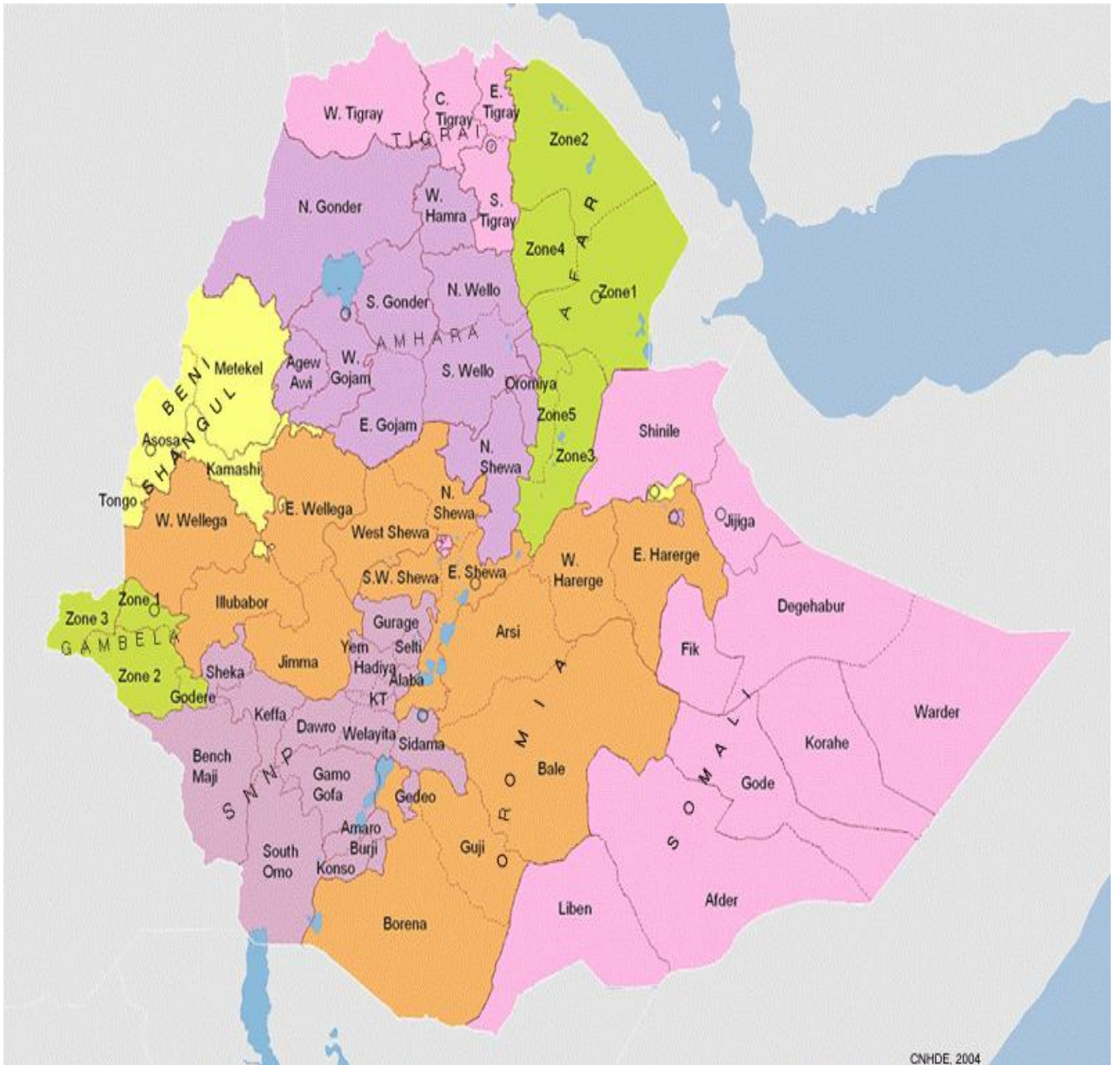
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CPD	Continuous Professional Development
BERA	British Educational Research Association
ESDP	Education Sector Development Program
ETP	Education and Training Policy
GEQIP	General Education Quality Improvement Program
LO	Learning Organization
MOE	Ministry of Education
OL	Organizational Learning
POSDCORB	Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, Budgeting
SIP	School Improvement Program
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia

Figure 1: Administrative Map of Ethiopia



Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

Numerous literatures give more recognition to the critical roles of school leadership than school management to make successful the 21st century schools. As Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012: 3) reported, “to date, we have not found a single documented case of a school improving its students’ achievement record in the absence of a talented leadership”.

Unfortunately, the role of school principal is mainly administrative in many countries: for example, a principal in Norwegian compulsory schools has historically been attached to gate keeping and maintaining order (Moller, 2000) and in China Principals are anticipated to invest much of their time dealing with supervision and a range of administrative issues (Washington, 1991). Mobilizing funds or securing fundamental services and facilities consume the majority of a principal’s time, not only in developing countries like Africa (Van der Westhuizen and Legotlo, 1996), but also in developed economies like Australia, where there is high expectation for school leadership roles, the school principal’s time is consumed by less relevant routine managerial activities (Beeson and Mathews, 1992).

School transformation and staff development are closely linked with the personal development of a school leader. That is why leadership has captured the attention of contemporary policy makers and researchers to an unusual extent. School leadership is now widely viewed as a major justification to school effectiveness. The models many organizations have used in the past including schools no longer seem satisfactory for effectiveness and success in the 21st century because of remarkable economic, political and societal change at local, national and global levels (UNESCO, 2000). Similarly, Al- shaibani (2006) argues that the 20th century role definitions of principals as managers and implementers of educational policy and work procedures are more and more acknowledged to be no longer valid.

Teachers’ professional learning cannot be successful without the support of school principals. Hence, principals are supposed to work continuously and consistently in order to help teachers learn from each other, from their daily practices, even from their successes and

failures. It is assumed that OL is effective where strong organizational learning culture is established. OL culture helps teachers to initiate and implement new pedagogy, skills and knowledge; to gratify diverse students' learning needs and also helps teachers remain active practitioners.

According to Garvin (2000), lack of continuous learning culture makes organizations and individuals merely copiers of old practices. In reality, learning in an organization is actually allowing the workforce and moving forward the daily work with learning in a non-stopping manner (Bryson, et al., 2006). Barth argues that an effective school is a unique land of teaching and learning for teachers simultaneously. It is expected to be a special land where students feel encouraged and associated with the staff; where classroom is conducive, eye-catching, welcoming, and learning contents are relevant and intellectually motivating (Barth, 1990).

In a learning organization, people discover how to move ahead their organization through testing theories and prevailing models of thinking, they predict possible improvements, they learn to sense their social and physical environments logically, they try new procedures, and they do collectively for the benefits of the school community and for the larger society as well (Freed, 2001).

Therefore, teachers are expected to be teacher-learners, to update their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills, to satisfy the diversified learning preferences and needs of their students and school principals are also required to discharge their core responsibility as 'leaders of leaders' by balancing their leadership and management roles and times. These expectations can be achieved via OL. Teachers are more likely attracted into OL when they feel they have a say in OL. In other words, they need to have opportunities for making choices and in designing the contents of their own learning.

In Ethiopia the quality of education is on its last legs because of many old and new problems; as a consequence, there is high public dissatisfaction about the quality of education at all levels. Teachers blame parents for negligence of their duties and responsibilities, for poor follow up, and for not working closely with schools to improve students' commitment to

learning; and they accuse students for being exposed to bad habits –corrupting films, smoking, gambling, drinking alcohols and for lack of learning appetite; they also blame the government for unattractive salary and poor educational facilities. Students in turn blame teachers for not treating and assisting equally fast, average and slow learners. A few section of the society believe that the sharp deteriorating quality of education is largely associated with the impacts of globalization and rapid changes in all aspects of human life. However, the majority assumes that the current teaching community is not as devoted to the profession as the prior generation of the teaching community. According to the researcher’s observation, in Ethiopia, the critical school leadership roles in improving quality of education is not adequately discussed and researched.

Although the role of school principals in making schools effective is decisive usually effective principals were not recognized for their quality leadership and weak school principals were not questioned for not playing their leadership roles appropriately. The researcher was always surprised by the society’s way of thinking and arguing about the role of school principals in leading schools for better change and development. The society’s judgment motivated the researcher to explore some objective realities in relation to school principals’ contribution to leveling the playground for main actors (teachers) to enhance the quality of education.

Well-committed and knowledgeable school principals can move schools far distance forward; but less committed and knowledgeable school principals push backward or keep at the point they were before. Indeed, the quality of education can be maintained not only by school leaders’ high commitment but also it needs the integrated dedication of teachers, students, parents, government and the society at large.

The MOE has been working much to improve teachers’ subject matter knowledge and Pedagogical skills of teachers by devising different teachers’ professional learning mechanisms such as, CPD, Induction, GEQIP, Supervision, Action Research etc. These on-job development programs focus on intensifying school-based teachers learning by developing additional CPD modules with a special emphasis on pedagogical content knowledge; by targeting Mathematics, Science, and English for special attention; by

institutionalizing CPD as a permanent, integral feature of teacher education. Among these programs GEQIP has been welcomed by many schools. GEQIP was designed mainly to support the learning of teachers by enhancing continuing professional development at the school level and by providing English-language training for all teachers who use English as the language of instruction, including teachers of English (World Bank, 2013).

Although considerable progress has been made in developing teacher education programs in Ethiopia, less progress has been made in addressing context- based teachers' learning and in motivating teachers for workplace learning. The country has experienced top-down approaches to teachers' development; unless this problem is addressed, it may become a major obstacle to improving classroom instruction and student learning achievement (World Bank, 2013).

Teachers perceive the existing professional learning programs as less relevant to address the problems they have faced in classrooms. Teachers complain that the current prescriptions for improving the quality of learning of teachers do not work well. The existing teachers' workplace learning approaches are exploitative rather than exploratory – the programs do not challenge the existing assumptions but only seek to find ready-made answers to meeting immediate problems with the existing framework. As a consequence, the proposed teachers' professional learning programs did not appear to be powerful to overcome embedded structures, processes and culture.

Considerable evidence from research and classroom observation in Ethiopia strongly suggests the need for continuing professional development interventions to improve the teachers' English language proficiency in the country and to up-to-date teachers' pedagogical skills (Kraft 2011b; MOE 2010a).

1.2 The Research Problem

Despite the apparent concern for reform, inadequate emphasis has been given by the high level authorities and school principals to the issue of how teachers' learning at workplace is led. In other words, it is still not clear how school principals play their leadership role in

boosting teachers' learning at school level. There are many research and literature evidences that show the existing gaps in school leadership and OL. Some of them are discussed as follows:

In spite of rich policy papers and discussions, a few studies are conducted on school leadership effectiveness in developing countries. In many Sub-Saharan countries, many school principals are not competent enough to manage school problems; because they are not well familiar with the new roles of school principal as a leader (UNESCO, 2016).

Similarly, the studies that have been conducted on OL, particularly on schools are few in number. Newmann and Associates (1996) confirm that the studies that have been focused on OL in educational institutions are insignificant in numbers; however, the available findings indicate that students benefit more from a school that built strong culture of "professional learning community." Stoll (2007) concludes that the quality of students' learning is mainly determined by the commitment level of teachers to make themselves familiar with new knowledge and skills that the time is demanding.

Literature on workplace learning gives a variety of theories of how people learn at an individual, group and organization levels. However, the existing theories about learning in a variety of workplaces cannot be un-problematically used to the learning of teachers in a school (Bound Garrick, 1999). Because, the situation that demands new learning and the characteristic of the work also matters; the school context varies from other social institutions in many aspects. Thus, the workplace learning of teachers demands specific theoretical models.

In line with this thinking, Foskett and Lumby (2003) state that much more research is needed to understand the potential barriers to OL in education and to develop theoretical models which will provide a positive guide to how it can be achieved in different cultures that exist in schools. OL literature shows that many of the studies in the earlier periods had been conducted in companies (Senge, 2006). A small number of studies were done to confirm the relevance of OL in educational institutions (Tseng, 2010; Wang, 2005).

“The researches on OL theory continue, and the application of this theory to improve our knowledge of the dynamics of instructional reform remains of significant interest” (Boyd, 2008 p.17). Knapp (2008) states that leadership researchers concluded as organizational learning work has not become complete and they suggest that future studies should give appropriate attention to this topic.

Therefore, more pragmatic inquiries are needed to be aware of how the practice of OL is going on in schools (Copland & Knapp, 2006; Gallucci, 2008). Southworth (2000) stated “the idea that schools should aspire to be learning organizations have received considerable attention in recent years; however, the gap between aspiration and practice remains wide” (p.275). Unluckily, many schools give scanty attention for teachers’ workplace learning, and inadequate support in minimizing the challenges that hinder workplace learning. Because of these realities, the significance of teachers’ workplace learning happens to be a topic of hot discussion by educational researchers, and policy makers (Stoll and Louis, 2007).

Thus, among all these pressing research gaps, this study was aimed to explore how secondary school principals led teachers for OL in the selected case schools; because principals and teachers’ perceptions of the importance of OL and the ways principals inspire teachers for OL has not been studied in a comparative way in Ethiopia. Experiences show that the quality of school leadership and the quality of teachers are the major decisive factors for the success of a school. It is clear that school leaders cannot answer all school problems. The pace of change and the complex problems brought about by change call for new responses make it impossible for a single individual to possess the essential skills and knowledge to solve all school problems.

Thus, school leaders must not only rely on their creativities for a school success; but they are expected to be adept at facilitating the creative thinking of teachers. In other words, school principals are required to assume that each teacher can bring talents, skills, knowledge and best experiences into his workplace. Each teacher has a unique set of competences that can move a school one step forward if the school principals are able to use these competences at

a maximum level. Indeed, this requires principals' real commitment to use wisely teachers' intellectual assets for his schools' development.

Purpose of the Study

The research project was planned to investigate in depth the school principals' leadership actions and OL practices in one government and one private school. In other words, it was designed to explore the school principals' leadership competencies in facilitating the school environment for teachers' learning; what opportunities were there to enhance OL; and how the possible barriers to OL were managed in the case schools. Ultimately, it was aimed to compare the similarities and differences between the two schools in implementing workplace teachers' learning.

The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To explore how school leaders and teachers perceive the importance of OL
2. To study the teachers' views of the principals' leadership potential in facilitating school-based learning for teachers.
3. To describe the major prospects or obstacles to OL in the case schools.
4. To investigate the differences and similarities between government and private secondary schools in implementing organizational learning.

The study was guided by five basic research questions in order to have fresh data on the present conditions of OL in case study schools.

1.3 Research Questions

1. How do secondary school principals and teachers perceive the concept of OL and the why of OL?
 - How do the teachers and school principals understand the concept OL?
 - How do the teachers and school principals comprehend the importance of OL?
 - Are there variations between the teachers and principals in perceiving the importance of OL?
2. How do the school the principals' leadership actions motivate or hinder the teachers for OL?
 - What kinds of leadership powers do school principals often used?

- How do school principals facilitate school-based learning for the newly employed teachers?
3. What are the major strategies for OL in the selected schools?
 4. What are the major prospects or barriers to OL in the secondary schools?
 5. What are the major similarities and differences between the government and private schools in motivating or in de-motivating teachers for OL?

The first research question explored the selected schools' teachers' and principals' views of OL and also their views of the significance of OL. The second, research question identified the strategies used by the school principals to inspire teachers for OL and also examined whether the influence of leadership power was to empower teachers or simply to make acquainted them with the existing set of the schools' norms and values. The third research question investigated the on-going learning practices to enhance workplace learning in both schools. The fourth question identified the participants' perceptions of the existing conditions in the studied government and private schools and the ways principals' leadership actions promote or inhibit OL. The final research question analyzed the commonalities and variations of the school principals' leadership actions in leading teachers for OL.

1.4 Significances of the Study

School principal's leadership and management capacity are key factors to enhance teachers' work-place learning. Thus, an understanding of the required leadership attributes in facilitating OL provides a sound basis for leading teachers for OL. It seems important to discuss what makes this study different from the prior studies before discussing its significances.

Many of the prior studies that were conducted at global as well as at national level were committed to leaders' personal qualities, but this research was devoted to school principals' leadership practical actions and teachers' views of OL. This study explored in depth qualitative data to understand more how school principals' leadership actions facilitate or hinder OL. Besides, many of the past studies focused on theory testing rather than theory developing; however, this study focused on developing conceptual model that may guide the future OL practices in Ethiopian context.

The study is also different from previous studies in terms of methodological approach and research purpose. Almost all the earlier studies were quantitative studies, but this study was qualitative comparative case study in order to explore the participants' view of leadership actions in leading OL. Furthermore, the prior studies were committed to get answers to 'what' questions; however, this study tried to answer both 'what and how' questions.

Therefore, the researcher assumes that this study may have the following contributions. First, in a practical sense, it gives an opportunity for secondary school principals to re-examine their leadership styles to meet the purpose of teachers' learning and to become more effective school leaders in the future. Second, it also provides fresh data on how principals and teachers view the existing organizational learning programs, and highlights the potential problems and opportunities in realizing OL in the selected schools. Third, the study helps to know not only what the school principals are saying and doing but also what teachers are saying about the school principals' leadership roles in motivating or discouraging OL. Fourth, the study is important in bringing to light how the school principals are committed to enhance OL, how the teachers interact with one another, how change is initiated by the school principals for OL; thus, it adds new understanding to the existing organizational learning knowledge by identifying the major gaps that are related to the principals' leadership competencies in leading teachers for OL, the teachers' willingness and commitment to OL and the schools' organizational capacity to enhance workplace learning. Fifth, the findings may help to construct more practice-oriented conceptual model for school leadership and OL. Sixth, it may influence policy makers to reconsider the top-down approach of teachers' learning by making all learning programs flexible and participatory. Last but not least, it is hoped that this research may stimulate further research by providing valuable information about the realities on the ground for professional researchers.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited geographically to one government and one private school that are found in Addis Ababa City Administration. Addis Ababa City Administration was selected for the following reasons: in the modern Ethiopian education history, the earliest secondary school was opened in Addis Ababa. Principals that have more experienced in school

leadership and management are also found in Addis Ababa. Since Addis Ababa is the capital city of the country, it is assumed that there is a better access to resources to practice OL. In other words, the schools in Addis Ababa have better facilities; better work environment and more experienced and qualified school principals and teachers; thus, the difference is visible comparing to other regions. Third, from my experience and field observations, the principals and teachers that are working in Addis Ababa are more confident to speak what they have in their minds with a less fear. Thus, the researcher believed that they can offer relevant and dependable data to make the study meaningful.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

According to Brock-Utne (1996), qualitative study gives an opportunity to bring to light several understanding and explanations of the phenomenon under study and this is seen as a strong side of qualitative study. Its weakness can be the data gathered through ‘semi-structured interviews’ may reduce the quality of trustworthiness providing unlike meanings on different times.

Thus, the major limitations of this study can be the following: first, participants may exaggerate in interviews; as a consequence, there might be some incongruity between what participants’ report and what was actually going on. Second, the study time was not very long; thus it is not possible to know what happened at other times of the school year.

In order to minimize the above limitations, the researcher arranged site observations: 10 days for the government school and 9 days for the private school in order to capture the natural interactions between the school leaders and teachers and also the interactions among the teachers. Thus, observation was used in order to cross-check the data obtained through interview. The third limitation can be the individuals and groups’ behaviors are not static and there is a change from time to time because of various reasons; therefore, findings can be different in another time frame. The fourth possible limitation is that the sample of the study was too small. Two schools from the City-Administration could not be considered representative; thus the findings cannot be generalized to other schools in the city.

1.7 Organization of the thesis

The study consisted of ten chapters. Chapter one is an introduction of the study, including a research problem, purpose, and research questions. Chapter two presents the overview of the country's profile. Chapter three contains review of the related literature. Chapter four describes the research design and methodology, including site and participant selection. Chapter five discusses descriptions of the schools and their specific contexts. Chapter six, seven, eight and nine are the interviews' discussion chapters. In specific terms, Chapter six is about principals and teachers' perceptions of organizational learning. Chapter seven presents teachers' perceptions of the relevance of OL and the prevailing strategies of OL. Chapter eight discusses the major prospects and obstacles to OL. Chapter nine narrates the similarities and differences between the two schools in terms of school leadership and OL. Chapter ten presents discussion of major findings, summary and recommendations of the study. An abstract, list of related references, and appendices are also attached.

Chapter Two: Country Profile Overview

2.1 Background

Geography: Ethiopia is found in the north-eastern part of Africa. It is a landlocked country borders in north with Eritrea and in north-east with Djibouti, in the South with Kenya, in the east with Somalia, and in the west with Sudan and South Sudan, with a surface area of 1,127,127 sq. km (435,186 square miles). The country has cold weather conditions in the highlands and hot weather in the lowlands. The main rain season is from June to September. The country has great geographic multiplicity, and the altitude varies from 100 meters below sea level – that is Kobar Sink in the Dallol Depression and to 4,620 meters above sea level – that is Ras Dashen Mountain (World Bank 2005).

People: The total population of the country is estimated over 91 million people. Below age 15 represents 44% of the country's population. In the country there are more than 80 different ethno- linguistic groups; the major ethnic groups are: Oromo (40 percent), Amhara (30 percent), Tigray (12 percent), Sidama (9 percent), Shankella and Somali (6 percent each), and the Afar (4 percent). Amharic is the official language of the country. Until 1992 it had served as a medium of instruction in Ethiopian primary schools. As a consequence, it is well spoken in all towns of the country. Nearly 50 percent of Ethiopians are Ethiopian Orthodox Christians, 40 percent are Muslims, and about 2 percent are Protestants and Roman Catholics (CIA, 2011).

The country is the land of origin for human race; has its own letters for writing; it has its own almanac; its own distinctive sculpture, painting, melody and lyrical forms. The history of Ethiopia is history of independence; because it remains sovereign from external invasion.

Economy: Agriculture is the dominant economic activity; it provides work opportunity for 80 percent of the population and 52 percent of the country's total revenue was generated from this sector. The industry sector's share covers only 7 percent. Ethiopia is the least exporter in the world; as a result, the economy is characterized by negative trade balance. The major export item is coffee that accounts for 60 percent of exports income. Indeed,

recently the Ethiopia economic growth has been showing significant change a year after year (World Bank Group 2015). According to World Bank (2016) report, the actual GDP growth of average income was 8.0 percent per year. In the year 2000 the country was the second poorest in the world; however, in the year 2014 became the 11th poorest country in the world by improving its economic growth (World Bank, 2016).

2.2 The Beginning of Modern Education

By making fundamental transformation on conventional model of education to the contemporary education was not a painless task for the previous Ethiopian feudal rulers (Birhanu and Demeke, 1995). This was mainly because of the traditional attitude of church leaders and the noblemen. Radical change was made by Emperor Menelik II (1889-1913) to establish the initial school in his official residence (Pankhrust, 1992). “It was the first modern school for the sons of the then ruling class, and the primary beliefs that governed the development of curricula were political interest. The education policy makers (the Emperor, upper classes and foreign advisors) had shown interest for modern education for three major reasons: the existing international order, civilizing Ethiopia and the training of interpreters for worldwide communication” (Zewdie, 2000: 105).

Emperor Menelik II started the first historical journey in establishing the new nation, he also made remarkable attempt to introduce the western type of education. The basic idea behind the introduction of the western type of education was that mastering foreign languages can help as a tool in the process of sustaining the country’s sovereignty. As a result, language loaded courses (French, Italian, English and Arabic) were given in the school (Birhanu and Demeke, 1995).

In 1906, ten Egyptian teachers were hired to teach in the newly opened schools outside the capital city of the country (Seyoum, 1996). After the establishment of that first school in Addis Ababa, the government, foreign communities and missionaries had invested high capital to open additional schools in different parts of the country. For example, a French community school and another French school by Alliance Francoise were opened in 1908 and 1912 respectively in Addis Ababa. During this time many new schools were opened not only by the government but also by missionaries that came to Ethiopia from different

countries. In addition to that between 1906 and 1935, one hundred private schools were opened (Bender, 1971).

Between 1908 and 1935, the main endeavor of education was to acquire basic skills in different foreign and local languages. As a result, the curriculum was overloaded by language education such as French, Italian, Geez, Arabic and Amharic at the expense of science education. Furthermore, some lessons in religion, mathematics, law and calligraphy were given (Adane, 1993). Although Menelik II appreciated vocational education and supported the expansion and progress of science and technology, high attention was given to languages' education also (Pankhurst, 1992).

Emperor Haile Selassie established a new school in his name and encouraged the higher officials to open additional modern and western-oriented schools in the former 14 provinces of the country. Accordingly, the then higher authorities opened the western types of schools outside the capital city. The schools were given names after those who established them to show their political power. Teferi Mekonen School as an extension of Menelik II School was committed to teach religion, mathematics, law and handwriting. Empress Menen School was opened in 1931; it was the initial school for girls in the history of Ethiopian education. The school ensured the idea of gender fairness in education by giving the girls the same chance in education. From its commencement until the occupation by Italian Fascists (1935) the western type of education was criticized for being "too European" and for being incapable to answer the real desires of Ethiopian society. Furthermore, it was characterized by a scarcity of educational materials, foreign program of study and educational content, and amateurish and unqualified teachers (Yigzaw, 2009).

The curriculum was also criticized for giving a little attention to occupational education. Until the 1930s, a small number of schools' ready students for technological and business works through educations that were linked to manufacturing and industry. One of such schools was Lycee Haile Selassie that provided education in mathematics, physics, chemistry, civil engineering, veterinary science, and modern languages. Another modern school was Menen Girls' School, which gave lessons in dressmaking, drawing, home management and physical training. Subsequent to invasion by Europeans, many African

leaders and top officials including Ethiopian leaders supposed the importance of knowledgeable wives that trained in house supervision needed to welcome foreign visitors at their official residence. In the same way, at the outset, Menen School showed an interest in giving education that prepared girls to make educated wives. Soon after, the school started teaching science and mathematics (Birhanu and Demeke, 1995).

2.3 Reconstruction (1941-1955)

Ethiopia became independent after five years Italy invasion in 1941 and the country was committed to construct many schools until 1955. Emperor Haile Selassie supposed as his predecessor the Ethiopia's sustainable sovereignty can be guaranteed by creating critical mass. To achieve this goal much money was invested in education sector and the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts was established in 1942. Constructing additional schools in identified areas and the endeavor to expand the western types of education continued with strong and new strength of mind. As a result, additional schools opened in some of the big towns of the country (Seyoum, 1996).

Great Britain helped Ethiopia in restoring sovereignty from Italian invasion and besides this commitment had shown high interest in shaping the education system of the country. As a result, Mr. E.R.J. Hussey, who developed rich knowledge of Africa, was assigned as an advisor in the Ministry of Education in 1942. The period from 1942- 1954 was known in the history of Ethiopian education as a time of high British supremacy in education sector. The British consultants placed significant impacts on the system of the education in general and language of learning and the evaluation system in particular (Zewdie, 2000).

All these efforts were not able to satisfy the desired need of the government and the citizens; because the contents of the curriculum did not match with the social and economic context of Ethiopia; it was highly western culture, and knowledge- oriented curriculum. A foreigner educator at that time observed that, "there was nothing Ethiopian in the classroom except the children" (Seyoum, 1996:4). In short, the curriculum was not relevant to satisfy the needs and interests of the learners and to promote the economic and social development of the country.

2.3 Modern education from 1955 to 1972

The period from 1950 to 1955 was characterized by declining of the British influence and increasing of Americans' advisory roles. In 1955 many reforms were made by the MOE in collaboration with American advisors. First, initiated what was known as the 'Long Term Planning Committee' was established in the MOE. The committee gave special attention on how to reach the public by expanding basic education and to contextualize the curriculum in a way it can satisfy the learning appetites of the citizens. Another major change was making language medium of teaching and learning at primary school level.

According to Tekeste (1990) this change was "the most significant reform of the decade", (p.8) and was the initial endeavor to introduce 'multicultural education' in the country's formal education system. This was maintained by wide-ranging friendship for practical assistance between the governments of Ethiopia and United States that leveled the ground for the supremacy of the American education system in Ethiopia starting from 1965. As Americans embarked on to boosting their authority on Ethiopia's educational system, they started to manage schools, took part in teaching and devoted to the task of policy formulation through the Education Advisory Group (Zewdie, 2000).

This group was actively participated in the Long Term Planning Committee and in the 1971 Education Sector Review. The government step by step began to match the education system to Ethiopians' real life situations. At the outset, the government showed interest in assigning better trained and knowledgeable Ethiopians in the practice of policy formulation together with the 'Education Advisory Group'. The government also paid attention to the education of teachers, supervisors and school principals, Community Development Centers, Teacher Training institutes and the Education College (HSIU) (Zewdie, 2000).

2.4 Modern education from 1974-1991 (Military Regime)

The Military government took power in 1974, singing communism as the basic political beliefs. Marxist-Leninist thinking was the fundamental argument that guided the political, economic and social of understanding the world. It was only one of its kinds in the history of Ethiopian education system. There had been no other time in the Ethiopian history that education was supposed as a main tool to make safe political power. Therefore, the set of

courses were highly politicized and students were obliged to take as a course political education (Tekeste, 1990).

The design of the program of study was dependent on the thinking of the then Eastern Europe Block. For that reason, by and large the education system was designed towards the realization of communist thought. Eastern European governments (East Germany, Bulgaria, Hungary, etc) assisted the Ethiopian government as policy counselors. The fundamental idea of the Eastern European Socialist ideology was "serving better the interests of the great majority of people and enhance their contribution towards the establishment of a socialist society" (Zewdie: 2000: 79). For that reason, the education system of the country strictly pursued the Eastern European educational system objectives, contents, and supplies of education were planned in line with socialist values. The basic aim of learning was to indoctrinate Marxist-Leninist principles in the new generation, to advance knowledge in science and technology, to nurture collective way of life and creative talent, and to incorporate and synchronize scientific studies with invention, to make possible the radical change to go forward and to produce a creative citizenry (Tekeste, 1990: 20). These wide objectives were later summarized into three slogans, namely, "Education for production, for scientific research, and for political consciousness."

Proclamation No. 103 of 1976 guaranteed the community rights of schools to bring together the administration of schools with the socialist system of possession. On the contrary, a few schools were not confiscated assuming to serve the children of the officials and affluent families. As a result, a big gap was created to the access of education. Children of the officials enjoyed more quality education than children came from poor families (Ballentine, 1997).

Progress since 1993

There has been a remarkable increase in enrollments from primary to university level. Cumulative enrollments in Grades 1–12 increased at a stable rate of approximately 9 percent from 1992/3 to 2001/02; and in the first cycle of primary education (grades 1-4), enrolment increased more rapidly on average by 15 percent annually. By the year 2002–03, the total

student population reached 8.6 million in primary schools and approximately 600,000 students in secondary schools. In technical and vocational training institutes the enrollment increased from less than 3,000 students in 1995–96 to 54,000 students in 2001/02. In post-secondary education the number of students augmented from 18,000 in 1990–91 to 48,000 in 2001–02. These developments are significant achievements that changed the stagnant and uneven growth of enrollment in the past. In other words, the student enrollment from 1993/4 to 2001/2 rose from 20 percent to 62 percent in primary education, in secondary education, from 8 percent to 12 percent and in higher education, from 0.5 to 1.7 percent in the same year (World Bank, 2013).

2.5 Current situation

In reply to declining quality of education the MOE and its development associates give special attention to recover the quality of education. Accordingly, in 2007, the MOE designed a new program of interventions to get rid of the known limitation of education at both the primary and secondary levels. This improvement program, the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP), embraces four major area of concern – (i) the Teacher Development Program, (ii) curriculum improvement, (iii) leadership and management, and (iv) the School Improvement Program (SIP) and two complementary packages, ‘Civics and Ethical Education’ and ‘Information Communications Technology’. Within the GEQIP framework, SIP emphasizes on four core areas: the teaching-learning process; instructional leadership and management; encouraging and good-looking learning environment; and society involvement.

2.7 Historical and Legal perspectives of private schools in Ethiopia

Before discussing the historical and legal perspectives of private schools in Ethiopia, it is important presenting brief experiences of some countries and the ways they support the private investors to invest more in education sector. Stokes (1999) argues that the education world experiences show private schools are in better position in providing quality education; and in satisfying the new demands of the society in different countries more than government schools can do. Private school contributes much to in making accessible quality education to those social groups that have dependable financial capacity to buy the service; it shares the

government burden in education provision; it saves government assets, enhances educational creativity and provides fresh possibility for development in education.

The experiences of many countries reveal that private schools have played important roles in the development of education. For example, the quality of instruction in private school has surpassed the quality of instruction in government schools in Tanzania and in Kenya private schools exceed the government school both in terms of enrollment and quality learning (World Bank, 1995). Similarly in Chad private schools accommodate approximately 15 percent of the entire enrollment. In Zimbabwe 94 percent of the schools are owned by the non-governmental organizations. In other parts of the world, it is possible to observe alike situations (James, 1991).

Countries such as Bolivia, Brazil, Pakistan, Peru, Senegal, Japan, Indonesia, Kenya, Liberia, and the Philippines give half grant in the form of shared facilities, money grants, and cheap rent buildings, employing supplementary teachers and catering of free training services. Other countries like Jordan, Japan, Republic of Korea, Algeria, Italy, and Sweden supply aid from import revenue, exclusion of goods or profits taxes, and also low interest rates or guaranteed credits and free education for needy students to allow them attend schools of their choice. Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Norway, the United Kingdom, Germany, Lesotho, and Togo give the salary of teachers as well as offer some returning and money to private schools based on actual registration (James, 1999). Hence, private education is fitting one of the largest growth industries around the world. Merrill (1999) had estimated educational investment at \$2 trillion in 1999.

The earliest of non-government schools in Ethiopia started by the coming of Christian missionaries in 1906 (Solomon, 1997), but the initial formal acknowledgment of the non-government schools, as well as private schools came into view in the 1940's by Proclamation 1943, Article 27 (Getachew and Lulseged, 1996). The successive Decree Number 2 of 1944, proclaimed on 21 August, 1944 and in harmony with the provision of Article 23 of amendment Number 2 order Number 16 of the 1966.

As a result, the then Ministry of Education and Fine Arts made available the first unambiguous and complete guideline on non-government schools; classifying private, mission and community schools with requisites and circumstances for operation in September 1973. Unluckily, this regulation stayed for a short period of time because of Proclamation Number 54, 1975, which prohibited the continuation of private schools in Ethiopia (Getachew and Lulseged, 1996; Seifu, 2000). This policy announced the taking away and nationalization of all private schools and shifted their administration to the public ownership.

After two decades, the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE) permitted the business and function of private schools in 1995. The Council of Ministers as per Article 4 (2) of the Description of Power and Duties of the Prime Minister, under the Council of Ministers' Pursuant to Proclamation Number 2/1991 declared a novel directive entitled the "Licensing and Supervision of Private Educational Institutions" in Ethiopia (TGE, 1995, Council of Ministers, Regulations Number 206/1995). This policy has created new opportunity for the comeback of private institutions in Ethiopia, mainly in big urban centers like Addis Ababa, Adama, Dire- Dawa, and Bahir-Dar.

The government commitment is reflected in the Education and Training Policy (ETP), which articulates a policy of "creating the necessary conditions to encourage and give support to private investors to open schools and establish various educational and training institutions" (Ethiopia ETP 1994: 32) but what were promised in the policy are not seen in action.

Yet the non-governmental schools register a comparatively little amount of Ethiopian students. The 92,000 secondary school students registered in the sector in 2010/11 stands for only nearly 5.2 percent of overall enrollments, a much lesser share than that in countries such as Mauritius (55 percent), Indonesia (43 percent), Chile (57 percent), Vietnam (21 percent in upper secondary), Jordan (18 percent), and Ghana (16 percent) (World Bank, 2013).

According to the World Bank review the government is now the nearly sole supplier of general education, enrolling about 95 percent of students in primary and secondary

education. Nongovernmental schools' contribution to education division earlier to the mid-1970s, estimated to 30 percent of the sectors' development (World Bank, 2013).

2.6 School leadership development in Ethiopia

School leadership is one of the critical positions in the school system. According to Knezevich (cited in Ahmed (2006) the starting point of principal-ship went back to 1515 to the time of Johann Strum of USA. During that time school leadership position was given by taking into account adequate teaching experience and the capacity to manage the basic administrative tasks. In other words, first an interested individual in school leadership position was required to have an experience in teaching and to perform some administrative tasks in addition to his teaching assignments. After he acquired basic experiences from his day- to- day administrative practices, he deserved a fully-fledged supervisor- principal position.

The history of the principal-ship in Ethiopia reveals that before and after Italian occupation school leadership positions were fully occupied by foreigners that came from France, Britain, Sweden, Canada, Egypt and India. Right after liberation in late 1941, the country was committed to set up many schools in all parts of the country; however, because of the shortage of qualified personnel the country was forced to employ not only school principals but also teachers from foreign countries such as the UK, USA, Canada, Egypt, and India (Ahmed, 2006).

Before 1962, Ethiopia employed foreigner principals for primary and secondary schools that were established in the capital city and in the former provinces. In 1930's and 1940's Indians were serving as school principals; because of their experiences and skills in principal-ship (MOE, 2002). In 1964, it was a 'New Age' that Ethiopians began to substitute the expatriates. According to Teshome (cited in Ahmed, 2006) this new chapter of principal-ship began with a supervising principal. A school principal was responsible and accountable for his school as well as for the education of the community where the school was located. The school heads in elementary schools were directly assigned without contest.

After 1960 it was the time that Ethiopians who graduated with first degree in any field of study and better performance were given principalship position by MOE. The major school principal selection criteria were qualification and merit (MOE, 2002). However, in late 1960's, graduates of first degrees in pedagogy were directly assigned as principals in secondary schools without any competition. From 1973-1976 school principals' career promotion documents were issued and state that secondary school principals should have first degree, if possible in educational administration (EDAD). According to these documents teachers who have sufficient experience as a unit leader or as a department head can compete for leadership position. Similarly, the job description, issued by MOE in 1989 stressed that secondary school principals should have a first degree in school administration and relevant experience in teaching as well as in administrative tasks.

The first formal training of educational administrators began in 1962 in the former Department of Elementary Education in the Faculty of Education at Addis Ababa University. In 1978 the Department of Educational Administration was established. Currently, Educational Planning and Management is being offered at degree, master's and PhD levels in the first generation universities and at degree and master's level in some of the newly emerging universities.

In Ethiopia, currently many secondary schools do not have trained principals, including Addis Ababa, the capital city of the country. The World Bank (2013:134) assessed:

In light of current conditions in Ethiopia, programs to strengthen school leadership face several challenges. First, turnover of principals is reported high. Addis Ababa Education Bureau reported that on average a principal stay in a post for two years. Some move up the career ladder, but others move out of education into other sectors. Moreover, the MOE is now introducing a requirement that all principals of preparatory schools have a master's degree. This may make it more difficult to find qualified principals.

Although the graduates in the discipline are many in numbers, because of high market demand, they have better opportunity to be employed in different sectors and non-governmental organizations comparing with the graduates in other fields of study. The quality of leadership is directly compatible with quality of teachers' teaching and indirectly

with performance of students. Thus, the shortage of qualified and experienced school leadership may affect much more the currently deteriorating quality of education.

Chapter Three: Review of Related Literature

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review and to make clear concepts that are pertinent to the study and to discuss theoretical issues based upon the literature in the area. In order to provide a context for the study, the major topics included in this literature review are: definition of key terms, leadership and management, the difference between management and leadership, why leadership is demanded today, types of leadership, debates on the dark-side of leadership, leadership and management roles of school principal, ways of motivating teachers for OL, power and leadership, the concept of LO and OL, strengths and limitation of OL, the major LO models and characteristics, the relationships of leadership, management, culture and OL, and the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study.

Definitions of key terms

Leadership – the art of helping people work together and understand the feelings of followers, recognizing the value of others, and encouraging participation, development and commitment of others.

Transformational leadership – refers to an interaction between leaders and followers which considers the needs of the followers (Kezar et al, 2006).

Organizational learning – is a process of getting higher an organizational capacity by adding new knowledge and skills and by developing an attitude of continuous learning.

Learning culture- is an institutional practice of well-coming and adding new knowledge and skills continuously into the organization's memory.

3.2 Leadership and Management

3.2.1 Leadership

The notion of leadership has become a top agenda of hot discussion among scholars at global level. Defining leadership is not an easy task; for the reason that it connects a large number of followers' contacts in various kinds of activities and settings (Leithwood and Duke, 1999; Stewart, 2006). Yukl (2006) also argues that the notion of leadership has a variety of explanations and meanings. These various definitions could not come up with a commonly acceptable definition, since the notion of leadership exists in somebody's mind rather than in the real world. In other words, leadership scholars explain the idea in the ways they have conceptualized it rather than the way it is practiced in the real world.

Although leadership is not easy to clearly conceptualize, organizational development, vision setting and power are found as universal explanations in all definitions. The notion leadership is usually defined from organizational development perspective (Marzano et al., 2005). Leaders are individuals that have clear vision and better commitment to develop the operating capacity of the organization in a significant way. The second similarity in leadership conceptualization implies the capacity to establish and nurture collective vision (Yukl, 2006). Creating and nurturing collective vision is a basic step for organizational progress. Vision gives strong power for leaders and followers to reach their destination by confronting all challenges in their ways. In the absence of direction, organizational improvement is not possible to take place. The third similarity to leadership conceptualization is the value of leader's power (Jantzi and Leithwood, 1996). Leaders deliberately exercise power on their followers to introduce important changes in work procedures to be competitive with their counterparts (Yukl, 2006).

Yukl's (2006) conceptualization of leadership covers all the above mentioned similarities of leadership notion and he attempted to come up with the more accepted theorization of leadership: "leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of coordinating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 8). Yet, Yukl has not specified the functions and roles of followers in his leadership conceptualization. Followers' roles and functions were better explained by other leadership scholars.

The above definitions seem one-way perspective that reduces followers innate and acquired capacities by assuming followers as objects that can be pushed, pulled and manipulated as required by somebody that holds leadership position. There are many followers that have the capacity to influence and challenge leaders.

Followers can be influenced in two ways: by the perception of other organizational members have already developed about the leader and by their perception of the leader (Meindl, 1995). Understanding the perceptions followers helps a leader to understand their inner feelings,

needs, interests and to communicate them in positive ways; as a result, followers work with better commitment to achieve organizational goals (Barnett and McCormick, 2004).

3.2.2 Management

The term 'management' is complex, although some writers suggest that it is a more observable behavior than leadership. Crawford (2003) ascertains that management brings order and consistency to key dimensions of an organization. 'Grace (1995) insists that management is about achieving organizational effectiveness and Collins (2001) sees a competent manager who 'organizes people and resources towards the effective and efficient pursuit of predetermined objectives' (p. 2).

O'Sullivan (2003) argues that management is an amalgamation of theory and practice that is designed to ensure the work quality of an organization, to support and guide an individual or team so as to effectively meet the organization's purpose. This is supported by Harris and Lambert (2003) who conceptualize management as functions of planning, coordinating, supporting and monitoring of organizational activities. Mintzberg (2004) claims that management functions exist in all organizations and they are attached to the flow of activities.

3.3 The difference between management and leadership

All organizations require highly excellent leaders and managers; but in the real world it is difficult to get an excellent leader and manager; because some are good at leadership and others are good at management but not at both. Although management and leadership are different they have certain clear resemblances: management and leadership is about persuading workers, working with them, and working to achieve goals; management and leadership use power and authority. There are also some remarkable differences between management and leadership. Management is often task-oriented; it involves exercising routine managerial and supervisory functions; it is about keeping new and existing things on track. But leadership is often vision-oriented and supporting followers to dream and reach the 'big future'; it is about making new things happen. This doesn't mean that an individual can't hold both management and leadership responsibilities simultaneously.

Managers are more concerned to meet deadline, to use economically the assigned budget, to achieve standardized organizational performance. In other words, the manager's give more attention to sustain the predefined organizational activities and stability by checking all inconsistencies. They spend much of their times answering 'what' and 'how' questions; but leaders are concerned to encourage innovation and creativity; help the followers to release their innate potential, to spend much of their times finding answers to 'why' questions (Flower, 1990). Flower (1990) further states that keeping and sustaining the existing traditions is one of the major manager functions. Leaders are more interested to face educative challenges, changing failures into success and inspiring followers for better future.

There is also common characteristic between the two concepts; when managers are devoted to influence a group of employees to achieve the organization's objectives, they are operating under leadership. On the other hand, when leaders are interested in planning, organizing, and staffing coordinating controlling and budgeting, they are operating management activities. Thus, it is enough to say that although they are different concepts, they may never be completely divided. Both management and leadership are important for organizations to perform their activities; thus, one cannot substitute the other. Leadership and management roles must be given appropriate attention if educational institutions are to function successfully and to reach their objectives (Bush, 2007).

Buchanan and Huczynski compare management and leadership on four key points and their viewpoint greatly increases clarity about these two concepts.

Table 3.1: Some basic differences between management and leadership

Items	Leadership functions	Management functions
Creating an agenda	Establish direction: vision of the future, develop strategies for change to achieve goals	Plans and budgets: decide action plans and time tables, allocate resources
Developing people	Align people: communicate vision and strategy, influence creation of teams which accept validity of goals	Organizing and staffing: decide structure and allocate staff, develop policies, procedures and monitoring
Execution	Motivating and inspiring: energizing people to overcome obstacles, satisfy human needs	Controlling, problem solving: monitoring results against plan and take corrective action
Outcome	Produce positive and sometimes dramatic change	Produce order, consistency and predictability

Source: Buchanan and Huczynski (2004:718) based on Kotter (1990).

Management without leadership is like a map without a compass, leadership without management is like a compass without a map. Many of the existing literature and researches have been focused either on innate qualities or learned behaviors. In the researcher's opinion, becoming a strong leader and manager calls for a blend of innate ability and skills that are learned. He believes that becoming a leader is associated more with innate qualities. There are individuals who have high influencing and persuasive capacity without attending any formal schooling. On the contrary, there are many individuals who have been qualified in leadership and failed to lead organizations and companies in the desired direction. Training and experience can create a perfect manager. Management capacity can be developed through well-structured training programs and that any intelligent person will master it. Thus, for the purposes of this study, leadership and management are still understood that one person can work efficiently in mastering both skills.

3.4 Styles of leadership

Although there are many types of leadership strategies, the researcher focused only on transactional and transformational approaches for the purpose of this research; because, these two leadership styles suffice to give a framework and to examine what is going on in schools from leadership perspectives.

3.4.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership style is based on give and take principle. It is a contract between the boss and the employees. The real meaning of transactional leadership is based on the thinking that people are inspired by incentives and penalties. A prescribed organizational arrangement is established with a plainly defined hierarchical strict control and employees are made to be familiar with work procedures and required to accept the command. Extrinsic motivators such as salary increment, flexible working hours, and bonus are usually widely used. The transactional leader provides little or no inspiration (Yukl, 2006).

Transactional leaders and employees are equally reliant on each other in terms of recognizing and prizing each other's action or service. In other words, employees apply their knowledge and skills at a maximum level to enhance the organization's effectiveness and in turn transactional leaders give acknowledgement and award for an employee's excellent performance. Transactional leaders are powerful when they address the employees' needs and interest properly. Thus, the effectiveness of a transactional leadership is determined by his capacity to be a proactive in meeting the new demand of the employees (Kellerman, 1984). Transactional leadership is based on defining needs, assigning clear tasks, rewarding appropriate work behaviors.

3.4.2 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership has become the center of attention of leadership studies and practices since 1980s (Northouse, 2007). Bryman calls transformational leadership 'the new leadership paradigm.' He assumes that leadership should take into consideration people's emotions, values and norm. He asserts that people can accomplish more than what is normally expected of them. In addition to that transformational leaders are supportive. Bryman claims that transformational leaders help followers to work together for common purpose (Bryman, 1992).

The first research of transformational leadership in education was done by Leithwood and his associates (Stewart, 2006), and other educators have conducted some researches on the issue of transformational leadership in educational institutions. However, the studies have not come up with well-established consent for the theory building (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999:

Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000). But that does not mean the concept is irrelevant (Antonakis and House, 2002).

According to many scholars' views, transformational leadership can contribute to organization's development in three ways. (1) It allows flexibility, (2) It enhances collective commitment and (3) It maximizes motivation. Transformational leadership gives high opportunities for organizational advancement by adjusting leadership approaches to different social and physical organizational environments (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). Flexibility permits leaders and followers to answer unexplored difficulties in their organizations (Hallinger and Heck, 1998; Marks and Printy, 2003). Commitment generates better personal and group competence to achieve organization's goal (Bass, 1990; Leithwood and Duke, 1999). Better competence inspires followers to reach organization's vision (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006).

The dedication of transformational leader inspires the dedication of followers. Expecting high commitment from followers in the absence of leaders' commitment produces little results (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). Motivation encourages followers to do beyond expectations and facilitates the situations to take leadership positions (Wilmore and Thomas, 2001). If transformational leaders are to make effective organizations, they are required to help followers think further than their personal interests (Barnett, et al., 2001; Marks and Printy, 2003). The ability to move up followers' dedication is indispensable for a transformational leader to introduce and sustain organization's reform, particularly during hard times (Marks and Printy, 2003).

Transformational leaders can persuade followers; since these leaders establish a common vision, expect better hope, make available intellectual inspiration, offer professional assistance, serve as role- models, take negative or positive possibilities, show truthfulness and activate individuals to come up with original ideas. The transformational leader also nurtures supporters to be the future transformational leaders (Bass, 1990). In a similar way, Sergiovanni (1990) states that transformational leadership generates dedication, stimulus, and professional autonomy in employees. Thus, it is very important changing the old way of the employees' thinking to introduce the required reform and then to implement higher goals.

3.5 Why Leadership is in Demand Today?

Scholars have emphasized the importance of leadership, mainly because of three major compelling factors: change, rapidly shifting paradigms and organizational survival. First, changes in the knowledge system are occurring so rapidly. This rapid change in knowledge demands leadership, not management. Annison (1994, p: 1) states the case clearly: “During periods of stability we can be successful by doing more of what we already do; the focus is on management and maintaining the present. During the periods of change, the emphasis is on changing what we do and the focus is on leadership”. Today, work techniques and technologies have been revolutionized rapidly; thus, leaders in any organization are assumed as vanguards of change to make their organizations competitive.

Second, paradigms, or the models through which we understand the phenomenon are swiftly changing. Barker (1992) describes it this way:

“A paradigm shift, then, is a change to a new game, a new set of rules. This shift creates confusion and discomfort as well as new possibilities. Today competition comes from everywhere. Competition in providing quality education is a good example of a paradigm that continues to shift. Times of great change and rapidly shifting paradigms call for leaders. When paradigms shift and the rules change, everyone involved goes back to the starting line, because it requires new idea, new skills and knowledge. It is time to forget past successes and look for new ways of doing things. There is no guarantee that the organization, group, or individual that was very good with the old game rules will be as good with the new ones. Thus, leadership team in any organization needs to work out how to be successful with the new game rules in order to continue to thrive (p. 37).

A paradigm can be viewed as a window through which we look at the world. Our understanding and knowledge of the social and physical world is not stagnant; it is developed from time to time. The role of leaders in facilitating a paradigm shift is critical in all organizations to make more effective the organization and to help employees to go in line with the pace of new knowledge, skills, and technological development.

The third and likely the most essential rationale that we require leadership is purely continued existence. Bennis (1989) stated the research findings of a scientist at the University of Michigan who identified and investigated what he assumed as ten basic dangerous factors that can devastate human race. Among these threats, the top three are: a ‘nuclear war’ or

catastrophe, a wide-reaching plague, illness, starvation, or economic crisis and the lack of good administration and ineffective leadership in many organizations.

The actions and decisions of leaders are crucial. A leader can play a decisive role for an organization's successes and failures. Today, industries have faced the risks of uncompromising changes, technological difficulties, globalization and the dishonorable mind-set, educational institutions are also not exceptional. Pinchot and Pinchot (1996, p: 18) argues that the demand of a leader is much more increased than has been before: "The more machines take over routine work and the higher the percentage of knowledge workers, the more leaders are needed. The work left for humans involves innovation, seeing things in new ways, and responding to customers by changing the way things are done." The researcher strongly agrees with these scholars' viewpoints. Thus, all organizations need strong leadership to manage all these man-made and natural puzzles.

3.6 Debates on dark-sides of leadership

Transformational leadership is not free from scholars' critic. Conventionally, leaders were assumed as 'omnipotent' and followers were submissive to the leaders will and demands. Because of this assumption some researchers argue not in favor of transformational leadership that is based on the idea of the domination of the leaders and the reliance of followers on leaders. They doubt the positive role of school leadership in transforming school performance and they more emphasize on the dark- side of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership model is criticized as being a mechanism of exerting control over teachers and more probably to be honored by the leader than the followers (Chirichello, 1999).

Allix (2000) feels discomfort with the concept transformational leadership. Because, it conveys the message that it has the possibility to become autocratic because of its high heroic and fascinating qualities. He argues that intelligent, well-educated group of individuals can tackle any problem without the need for a leader. Leadership is an "alienating social myth" that rather than empowering organizations. Leadership discourages employees from logical thinking, blunts their mental picture, motivation and places excessive dependency on the leader (Gemmill and Okaley, 1992). These authors believe that leadership hinders

subordinates not to get to their highest capacity. He makes feelings of isolation, vulnerability and failure that directs to obedience and child-like dependency on their leaders.

Conger (1990:291) argues:

Followers within the organization fail to challenge the leader's vision, either due to fear of repercussion, or overdependence and trust in the leader's judgment. They may idealize their leader excessively and as a result they may carry out their leader's orders without questioning and leaders may in certain circumstances encourage such behavior because of their needs to dominate and be admired.

Kellerman (2004:45) argues that generalizing as if all leaders are bad may lead to denying the individual difference in human nature:

"Leaders are like the rest of us: trustworthy and deceitful, cowardly and brave, greedy and generous, aggressive and humble. To assume that all leaders are good is to be knowingly blind to the reality of the human conditions, and it severely limits our scope for becoming more effective at leadership".

The debate on the dark- side of transformational leadership seems relevant in educational institutions in particular and in other organizations in general. The essence of the debate are leaders' viewpoints should be questioned as same as views of the rank and file. The other point of debate seems that professional autonomy should not be compromised in the name of transformational leadership. In case of educational institutions, likely there are two reasons for questioning the effectiveness of leaders in school environment. First, teachers are relatively highly trained and skilled professionals; thus, they should be given maximum professional freedom. Second, individual autonomy is part of the tradition and value in schools; as a consequence, there has been a strong norm of non-interference in the teachers' activities.

The researcher believes that with all possible leaders' limitations, leaders are needed in workplace, in communities and in states. As Kellerman says, all leaders are not the same. It is assumed that under normal circumstances a leader makes difference and transformational leader make a 'real difference.' Transformational leaders find many new and feasible solutions where other find only problems, see quickly compatible answers where others have not yet recognized the questions. Leadership can be a 'double -edge sword' capable of producing both positive and negative effects. The basic question is whether the school leaders are largely oriented towards their own personal interest or take into account the

interests of teachers and as well as interest of school. School leaders that possess democratic and inspiring personality can bring positive results. On the contrary, school leaders that possess oppressive, tricky and selfish personality invite negative outcomes to their schools. School leadership is the critical force behind the successful schools. Therefore, we should not deny the objective reality that the school's success is mainly determined by its school principal's leadership and management strengths. School principals with high leadership qualities are respected and liked by teachers; because they give support and build trust by showing commitment to teachers' needs and interest over self needs and by being fair in treating teachers. The principal's credibility resulted from modeling the desired and acceptable behavior and projecting an image of higher knowledge in school leadership and management.

In order to expand our understanding of the concept of 'leadership' and the associated skills, it seems important to examine the analogy between a leader and brain. Brain is the master key of our body system. It assists and controls every activity of the body. Thus, we can say that brain plays both leadership and management roles. When it generates new ideas and solves critical problems, it plays leadership role. When it monitors and controls our unconscious as well as conscious actions, it plays management role. Likewise, when we come to a leader, it inspires followers to expand their territories of knowledge, to question assumptions, to try new things and to learn more.

Furthermore, a leader is expected to play more roles than brain plays in association with sense organs (skin, tongue, nose, eye, and ears). Sense organs are dedicated to scan the natural world by using their innate competencies. For example, skin detects information that is related to texture, temperature, pressure and vibration. It also keeps germs and water outside the body; besides, it keeps bodies at the right temperature. Similarly, a good leader explores and analyzes the right information that enhances the organizational capacity and he places the organization on the right track by using his acquired competence.

Our tongue tastes bitter, sour, salt and sweet things and detects chemicals dissolved in saliva (flavors). A leader collects and analyzes behaviors that can sour his relationship with his followers, stakeholders and invests his time and energy to maintain and sustain trust and

mutual understanding. Nose collects and detects chemicals floating in the air (odors), responds to airborne chemicals and it warms, moistens and filters the air before it goes to the lung. A real leader also gathers and analyzes the quality of information that flows from the outside. He identifies corrupting culture that can weaken learning and erode the purposes and values of the school as organization and the worth of education. A leader allows his followers to test new ideas and new work procedures at pilot level before they are used at a large scale.

Eye collects light to see clearly what is going on in the physical and social environments. A leader reads his followers mind and interests, uses his intellect to conceptualize the distant future of his organization in a way that it motivates his followers' commitment. Ear collects sound vibrations from the environment. A leader also listens attentively his followers, collects relevant information regarding followers' pains, feelings, satisfactions and motivations to design a better work environment and organizational structure that minimize red-tape.

3.7 Leadership and management roles of school principal

Among many responsibilities, the principal's chief duty is to create conducive atmosphere for the learning of students and teachers. In relation to this vital role, Lunenburg and Irby (2006) state that teachers' professional development is the key task that a principal must perform to be effective instructional leader. A principal is expected always to ensure that if strong professional development programs are in place in his school. Effective principal serves as a role model; assigns tasks; organizes the efforts of teachers; supervises how the work is going on and gives constructive feedbacks on time to teachers.

It is made clear in the MOE directives the duties and responsibilities of school principals is providing directions and guidance, and assuring that teachers have the necessary instructional materials to carry out their duties, creating suitable conditions that make teachers to participate in decision making process on matters related to the teaching learning process, creating cooperative relationship with school community, managing human, financial and material assets at their disposal (MOE, 2002c, pp. 33 – 35). Therefore, school principals are anticipated to play leadership roles and management functions in a balanced fashion.

Although the principal's leadership roles are many, the three major roles of a school principal are very critical. These are: setting directions, developing teachers, and restructuring the work systems in a way it maximizes the effectiveness of the school. For instance, the principal is responsible for facilitating conditions to have a common vision that gives direction to the achievement of the overall goals of the school. The principal is also expected to create conducive environment for school-based teachers' continuous professional development and to ensure participatory decision-making system.

Leithwood and et al. (2006) state that successful school leaders have strong positive influences on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions. Similar, studies conducted by leadership researchers support the view that leadership ability of a school principal is the most important element to implement effective teachers' professional development (Elmore, 2000). An effective school principal identifies the types of professional developments required to achieve intended goals and expectations. He creates clear understanding of the change process, how teachers grow professionally and how students learn. He inspires his staff for professional discourse, and he encourages them to reflect on what they are attempting to accomplish (Stoll, 2004).

In other words, a school principal is required to create conducive environment for teaching staff members to update continuously their teaching arts and knowledge through continuous learning. The major justification for providing learning opportunities for teachers to develop their knowledge, skills, and attitude towards teachers' continuous learning is to improve students' academic achievement. He is also expected to create motivating social and physical environment for staff to learn from each other.

The purpose of teachers' professional learning is to ensure the excellence of teaching in schools by supporting teachers to acquire new knowledge, skills, and attitudes that in turn lead to the changes in behavior and improvements in students' achievement. A competent school principal always appraises the outcome of teachers' workplace learning on the basis of the consequence it has on student academic performance (Seyfarth, 1996).

3.8 Ways of Influencing Teachers for OL

Principals are expected to see themselves as leader - learners and as role models for OL. A devoted school principal can play outstanding leadership roles in motivating and energizing teachers for work-place learning by posing challenging pedagogical issues, by questioning assumptions and routine work procedures.

Studies by Youngs and King (2002) show that principal's leadership is an important factor that influences teachers' participation in professional development activities. A school principal's leadership and management roles are very important in making the professional development more successful, sensible and realistic. A school principal can play outstanding roles to influence teachers' professional development in his school.

Bredeson and Johansson (2000: 398) suggest some possible strategies in motivating teachers for work place learning:

“...there are four areas where principals have chances to positively shape teacher learning in schools. These include: 1) the principal as an instructional leader and learner, 2) the creation of a learning environment, 3) direct involvement in the design, delivery, and content of professional development, and 4) the assessment of professional development outcomes.”

Principals, as leaders, are supposed to facilitate school- based teachers' learning to update their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical wisdom. That can be possible by facilitating circumstances that encourage teachers' life-long learning. Therefore, school principal is required to be a dedicated role- model to teachers in valuing continuous learning, in identifying learning gaps and in designing professional learning contents in collaboration with teachers. School principals are also required to be devoted to assessing professional development needs of their staff and implementing appropriate professional development programs to meet these needs (Heaney, 2004).

Effective school leaders support teachers to grow competently and proficiently; they can work together directly with teachers on instructional issues, and they can give expert support to teachers to actively participate in the process; they can regularly discuss with teachers and persuade them that new knowledge and skills are the main concern of their schools (Andrews, et al., 1986).

Principals are required to empower teachers and enable them to share decision-making if professional learning is to be effectively implemented. “Teachers are leaders when they function in professional communities to advance student learning; contribute to school improvement; inspire excellence in practice; and empower stakeholders to participate in educational improvement” (Childs-Bowen, et al., 2000: 28).

Thus, teachers’ willingness to learn and to test new ideas in their schools is also very important in addition to principals’ commitment. In circumstances where, teachers collaborate and make shared decisions; work together to improve classroom instruction; and learn the less experienced from the more experienced teachers can help refine their knowledge and teaching skills (Lockwood, 1995).

3.9 School principal as an instructional leader and as a learner

Principals are required to be instructional leaders in their schools; they need to shape school culture, to decide the quality of performance standards, and to show practical concern for effective teaching and learning of students in their schools (Campbell, 1991). The major responsibility of a principal as an instructional leader is creating conducive work environment for teachers to play their remarkable role in shaping all-rounded personality of students. King (2001:61) claims “instructional leadership is anything leaders do to improve teaching and learning by gathering evidence of student achievement that demonstrates improvement.” As an instructional leader, a school principal has four key roles in promoting teachers’ learning. These include: 1) steward 2) role- model 3) expert and 4) instructional leader (Bredeson and Johansson, 2000).

Principal as a steward: A principal is required to talk always the value of teachers’ development as an indispensable part of school improvement and to serve the needs of students and teachers by applying ‘fair’ and ‘ethical’ treatment to all school community and also by recognizing diversity of needs and preferences. Building harmony, bringing together team efforts, welcoming multiple perspectives and keeping away from unnecessary disagreements are some of the qualities of a good leadership (Smith and Andrews, 1989).

A committed leader is concerned with meeting the internal demands (teachers, students) and the external demands (parents, society, government) by creating conducive school environment.

Principal as a role model: Effective principal leads by examples not by mere words. A principal is expected to be an exemplary in practicing learning. Besides he is required to motivate and inspire teachers to use effectively all learning opportunities in order to advance their subject matter knowledge and art of teaching. Goe, et al., (2008) argue that as role models, it is essential for principals to show sharp consistency in practicing what they talk; because the best example of leadership is leading by example. They have to be positive, wholehearted, leading by doing, and listen to what the stakeholders are saying. Effective principals are available to all stakeholders.

Furthermore, school principals are required to be leaders of a learning organization and lead the school by setting high expectations including the expectation of life-long learning for everyone in the school. The principal encourages and assists teachers' workplace learning by getting rid of the obstacles that often hinder professional learning and constructive change (Payne and Wolfson 2000). McKerrow, et al., (2003) claim school principal's leadership role is based on the idea that they serve as head by modeling, coaching, and helping teachers to become better teachers.

Principal as an expert: A principal is required to spend much more time in establishing the appropriate prerequisites to revolutionize the conventional ways of teaching. Thus, a school principal needs to be armed with basic learning theories and new pedagogical practices if he is to be an expert leader. Bredeson and Johansson (2000) say "the principal as an expert must possess specialized knowledge and skills in such areas as cognition and learning theory, models of teaching, human growth and development" (p. 9-10).

Theoretically, school principals are required to be instructional leaders and simultaneously learners, stewards, role-models and experts. These theoretical perspectives fit with this study in many ways. They give clear perspective to examine how school principals are active enough to carry out these new leadership responsibilities in addition to their management

functions. They help the researcher to investigate how the school principals inspire teachers for OL and to observe school leadership similarities and differences in promoting teachers' professional learning at school level.

3.10 Power and leadership

Power is the capacity to influence the behavior of others. Many leaders have used power for morally wrong intentions. In our world, it becomes a common phenomenon observing power abuse in many countries, in many organizations and in many families.

The ideas of power and leadership are directly interconnected. Each day, managers use power to achieve their institutions goals (Nelson and Quick, 2012). According to Brown (2006) five types of power are often used in many organizations. These are: legitimate, reward, coercive, referent and expert powers. He also classified the sources of these powers into organizational and individual sources of powers: power given to a leader by the organization involves legitimate, reward, and coercive powers. Individual power that is acquired by personal efforts and capacity involves expert and referent powers (Brown, 2006). The individual sources of power are positively associated with employees' work enjoyment, dedication to the organization's goals, and job accomplishments than organizational- based power, but coercive power is negatively associated to employees' performance (Carson, et al., 1993).

Effective leaders have been known for having a high dream to accomplish big ideas and they have strong individual power to perform it. They are gifted to change their dream into actuality, because they know well how to use the power they are given by their organization and how and when to apply individual power to influence followers (Pfeffer, 2011).

Legitimate power is a person's capacity to change employees' work discipline because of the authority that an individual hold in the organization, usually referred to as "formal authority." For legitimate power, often an individual is appointed to hold a specified position to make the right thing at the right time by exerting leadership/management skills; they have the legal authority to claim employees to carry out organizational jobs that are within the range of their position (McShane and Von Glinow, 2011). For example, a manager may make his

vice manager to write management committee's minutes; but it would be an abuse of power to ask him to prepare business plan for personal interest and benefit.

One possible way of boosting legal power is by developing new policies and procedures (DuBrin, 2009), the other way of enhancing legal power is by making rational and valid decisions that can be accepted by followers (McShane and Von Glinow, 2011). Legitimate power, then, is the right given by an organization to a manager. All managers have legal authority over employees within the boundary of the hierarchical position defined by the organization. The most of day- to- day interactions between manager and subordinate are of this type.

Reward Power is a manager's talent to change employees' work behavior by offering them with things they feel like to be given. There are basically two kinds of reward: financial and non-financial. Financial rewards are salary raises and bonuses. Nonfinancial reward includes promotion, recommendations, interesting work assignments, transfer to better work area, new tools, admire, and appreciation (Nelson and Quick, 2012). A manager can apply reward power to change and improve employees' work commitment by giving the prizes that can fit to the employees' needs and interests.

Reward power can ensure better performance when the employee able to see a clear relation between his accomplishments and the prizes he is given. To use reward power appropriately, hence, the manager has to be open about the actions being appreciated, recognized and he has to show plainly the relationship between the behavior and the reward (Nelson and Quick, 2012).

Coercive power is a manager's capacity to manipulate employees' unacceptable actions and behaviors by penalizing them or by giving written or oral warnings. For example, employees may act in accordance with a manager's directive because of trepidation or risk of punishment. Classic organizational penalties include warning, uninvited work assignments, not sharing relevant information, downgrading, not allowing promotion, or firing (DuBrin, 2009).

Coercive power is the least recommendable manager's power for organizational success. Many organizations have plainly explained to their employees in advance the organizations rules, regulations and the basic work procedures. This helps the employees to know their accountabilities and responsibilities and to stop bosses from using their power unreasonably and wrongly (Luthans, 2011).

Expert power is an individual's potential to change employees' behavior for the reason that he has possessed better knowledge, skills, or abilities. This power is derived from having rich information or expertise in some fields of study. For example, medical doctors are accredited because of their in-depth know-how to deal with medical and health matters that is why most people follow their doctor's advice. Computer specialists, teachers, engineers, politicians, accountants, and economists have power as a result of their expertise in that particular area (Tosi, et al., 2004).

Referent power is a leader's capacity to shape employees' actions and behaviors by walking his talk. This can be possible when followers appreciate, like, think highly of, and value the leader with referent power. In contrast to legitimate, reward, and coercive power, which are relatively tangible and embedded in objective reality of organizational life, referent power is intangible and complex. It requires having certain level of charismatic personality (Tosi, et al., 2004). The foundation for referent power is establishing a good relationship between a leader and employees.

Although the application of the type of power is determined by the context in which the organization is operating, in school environment, expert, referent and reward power are more preferable power types to enhance OL. Because schools are unique social institutions established with an aim of changing and shaping human thinking in a way it fits to the contemporary circumstances. One possible ways activating teachers their mental and physical energy for OL is applying an expert, referent and reward powers. Thus, applying these motivating leadership powers in day-to-day activities can convey strong message to teachers to question the conventional way of doing teaching and learning in classroom and outside classroom.

3.11 The concept of organizational learning

Fiol and Lyles (1985) explained the concept “organizational learning” as a course of action to improve organizational performance through better knowledge and understanding. Garavan (1997) pointed out that organizational learning can be placed on a continuum from “single-loop learning to double-loop” learning according to learning types. Double-loop learning takes place when an organization is ready to inquire the already established assumptions about its missions. “Double-loop learning” involves questioning the world in a novel and progressive ways. That is depending on the understanding of the relations that connect key issues and events.

Swanson and Holton (2001) try to clarify the difference between single-loop and double-loop learning. According to them, “single-loop learning is learning that fits prior experiences and existing values, which enable the learner to respond in an automatic way. Double-loop learning is learning that does not fit the learner’s prior experiences or schema; generally, it requires learners to change their mental schema in a fundamental way” (p. 171).

From a different perspective, Örtenblad (2004) argues organizational learning as a practice of doing individuals’ knowledge and skills institutional knowledge. Organizational learning makes easy the storing of knowledge by individual learning toward establishing and making active organizational memory. The organizational memory contains Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs), collective mental models, documents, and rules and regulations. Marks and Louis (1999) claims that organizational memory is a fundamental element of organizational learning and it manages an organization’s behavior, individual behavior, and individual’s learning path. Institutional learning bears a similarity to individual learning but is also varies from it.

Marks and Louis (1999) indicates, “Organizations learn in a way that transcends the aggregated learning of their individual members; that is, organizational learning takes place among the individuals as a collective” (p. 711). Garavan (1997) asserts that organizational learning is unlike from individual learning by information distribution and realizing a collective understanding of the new information.

Like individuals discover, organizations also discover new things (Antonacopoulou, 2006). Organizations are said to have human-like cognitive functions, such as the abilities to identify and infer, find solution to difficulties, and gain reliable knowledge from practice (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2010). “All organizations learn, whether they consciously choose to or not—it is a fundamental requirement for their sustained existence” (Kim, 1993, p. 37). However, some organizations learn more successfully than others.

Organizational learning is understood as the deliberate use of the learning process and also defined as learning that occurs at the system level to constantly transform the social institutes (Dixon, 1994). In other words, it is a process and its outcome is fresh knowledge, skills, or apparatus for growing learning in business companies and other organizations (Marks and Louis, 1999).

Fulmer and et al (1998) explain *at what time* and *the ways* organizational learning go on in a particular institute:

“Organizational learning occurs when members of the organization act as learning agents for the organization, responding to changes in the internal and external environment by detecting and correcting errors in the organization...and embedding the results in the shared maps of the organization” (p. 29).

When organizational members make their mental model explicit and develop shared mental models, organizational learning is enabled. “Organizational learning is embedded in the culture, organizational systems, and work procedure and process” (Swanson and Holton 2001: 172).

Nearly all schools have limited themselves in what has been known *single-loop learning* (Argyris, 2008a). Single-loop learning is a practice of investigating mistakes in the system, the rectification process depends on prior experiences past and current policies. On the contrary, learning organizations use *double-loop learning* (Collinson, 2006). When a mistake occurs in the system, it is amended in ways that involve the revision of the school’s objectives, guiding principles, and standard working procedures. Double-loop learning involves confronting intensely rooted thinking and models within the organization (Robbins

and Judge, 2011). In this way, it offers chances for unconventional answers and explanations to problems and progress in results.

Thus, OL learning is a process as well as a tool to open and investigate the ‘black boxes’ inside and outside school that hinder learning in order to have advanced understanding about schools’ environment in particular and education system in general. OL is not only solving the old and new problems in innovative ways but it is also reserving the helpful traditional skills and procedures of problem solving.

3.12 Learning organization (LO) and Organizational learning (OL)

The terms *learning organization* and *organizational learning* are very much related and sometimes used as they have the same meaning, but they are, in fact, two different concepts (Swanson and Holton, 2001). Basically, organizational learning refers to actions and behaviors within an organization, but a learning organization refers to a type of organization (Garavan, 1997; Tsang, 1997). According to Örténblad (2001), organizational learning is process, whereas learning organization is organizational form.

To avoid conceptual confusion, it is clearly important to differentiate the terms OL and LO (Swanson and Holton, 2001). Swanson and Holton have noted that “a LO is a prescribed set of strategies that can be enacted to enable OL” (p. 172). Similarly, Finger and Woolis (1994) suggested that the term OL represents the processes by which organizations change and can be changed; whereas the term LO implies the active promotion and organization of learning activities. Specifically, becoming a learning organization is the goal organizations seek to achieve, whereas OL is the process through which an organization or institution achieves the goal (Schwandt and Marquardt, 2000).

3.13 Strengths and limitations of OL

It is possible to argue that OL has many strong sides and some critical limitations. The logic behind OL is that when teachers learn students learn more. When leaders know how to engage teachers and students in effective learning, the schools become the center of learning for teachers and students. Most formal trainings are intended to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that are indispensable prior to changes; but OL is aimed to introduce new and

relevant changes and to sustain these changes in practice. Workplace learning links learning to problems. The content of learning in the work place is more contextual and dynamic than the content in college settings; it arises from teachers' daily activities and interactions with the work environment.

OL is context- based and practice- oriented. It is strongly shaped by the context in which the teacher practices. Thus, OL enriches teachers' contextual understanding, enhances their capacity for critical analysis, critical reflection, and helps them to switch between context and generalization. It promotes teachers' knowledge and teaching skills, which ultimately raises students' achievement. OL can potentially serve a variety of purposes such as getting rid of weaknesses in the skills and knowledge of novice teachers, keeping teachers up to date on emerging developments in the subjects they are teaching and addressing the needs of special education students.

Although OL enhances contextual understanding and promotes teachers' ability to develop collegial relationships, it has also some critical limitations. First, if OL is limited to the school wall, it may block the new knowledge that flow from the outside world and ultimately it may result in having narrow perspective about the outside world. Therefore; a school principal is required to balance inside and outside flow of knowledge. Second, when the staff teachers lack a range of knowledge, skills, and experience the opportunity to share new perspectives would be minimal and boring. In other words, in a given school if the teachers are with similar qualification, ability and work experience the possibility to learn from each other will be nominal. Third, OL is authority driven. It is motivated by people in power and usually the purposes and contents of OL are decided by the powerful and dominant social groups.

3.14 Major Learning Organization Models and Characteristics

Each organization is unique in terms of structure, culture, size, goal, work environment, nature of work, and intellectual capital; as a result, there are different learning organization models (Örtenblad, 2004). This study discussed four LO conceptual models to show their similarities and differences. These four models are: Senge's Fifth Discipline Model, Watkins and Marsick's Six Action Imperative Dimension Model, Marquardt's Systems-Linked

Organization Model, Pedler, Burgoyne, and Boydell's Model. The conceptualization, characteristics and components of these four models are discussed as follows.

3.14.1 Senge's Fifth Discipline Model

Senge (1990) suggested that organizations should develop five key disciplines: personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking. These disciplines function as vital dimensions to build a LO. Mental models, personal mastery, and team learning are very important to create a new learning culture in an organization. According to Fenwick (1996), "Central to these disciplines is the assumption that employees need to engage in critical reflection and open dialogue, exposing their own systems and critically challenging others' belief systems, to break free of thinking patterns which perpetuate dysfunction and prevent innovation" (p. 6).

The Senge's 'five disciplines' are classified into two levels of learning; these are individual level and group level learning. The first classification involves personal mastery, mental models, and systems thinking which targets on individual's ways of thinking and actions in an organization. The second category includes the disciplines of shared vision and team learning. "The disciplines of building shared vision and team learning differ from the other three in that they are inherently collective in nature" (Senge, 1990, p. 375).

The application of these two disciplines is actions occupied by groups. Shared vision implies that the inclusion of individual vision, a leader's vision and the organization's vision as a system. According to Senge's (1990) argument, without teams' learning, organizational learning is impossible. He further argues that as groups learn organization also learns and the ways groups learn and organizations learn are similar.

3.14.2 Watkins and Marsick's Six Action Imperative Dimension Model

The Watkins and Marsick's heart of LO is informed by *OL* rooted in Argyris and Schön (1978). In designing a learning organization, Watkins and Marsick (1993) acknowledged and differentiated six important actions of organizations: creating nonstop learning occasions, encouraging research and professional discourse, supporting group effort and team learning, creating a functional system that appreciate new knowledge and share learning, authorizing

followers to set a cooperative vision, and linking the organization to its milieu. These imperatives enhance the movement of organizations toward becoming a learning organization. Like systems thinking in Senge's (1990) model, Watkins and Marsick promoted the extremely important organizational-level evidences at different steps in finding solutions to problems.

Unlike Senge's (1990) model, Watkins and Marsick (1993) model put the facilitation of learning at all levels in an organization at the front position in their learning organization model. Their model emphasizes characteristics of continuous learners are needed in today's organizations which focus on nurturing creativity, productivity, and critical reflectivity. Bierema (1999) summarized the characteristics of their learning organization model as:

leaders who model calculated risk taking and experimentation, decentralized decision making and employee empowerment, skill inventories and audits of learning capacity, system for sharing learning and using it in the business, rewards and structures for employee initiative, consideration of long-term consequences and impact on the work of others, frequent use of cross-functional work teams, opportunity to learn from experience on a daily basis, a culture of feedback and disclosure (p. 47).

Watkins and Marsick clearly pinpoint the most important and specific leadership roles in leading OL and it seems that their model has some potential practical values in enhancing organization based learning.

3.14.3 Marquardt's Systems-Linked Organization Model

Marquardt (1996) clarifies that "learning organizations are companies that are continually transforming themselves to better manage knowledge, utilize technology, empower people, and expand learning to better adapt and succeed in the changing environment" (p. 2). He developed a systems learning organization model which comprises five closely interrelated subsystems: learning, organization, people, knowledge, and technology. These five subsystems are interrelated and supported one another.

He emphasizes the importance of learning that takes place at the system level and advocates the significance of systems thinking for OL. Organizational members acknowledge the relevance of constant workplace learning in augmenting the organization's contemporary learning status and future achievement. Learning is a permanent, deliberately used process. It has to be focused on originality and bringing new ideas in to light. System thinking is essential; because organization members need to have uninterrupted access to information and data resources that are imperative to the organization's accomplishment. There must be a system that motivates, prizes, and maximize individual and group learning. Actions should be based on major actors' needs, organizational data, and innovative ideas Marquardt's (1996) model includes all concepts recommended by the two models discussed previously.

3.14.4 Pedler, Burgoyne, and Boydell's Model

Pedler, Burgoyne, and Boydell (1991) explain the LO as a learning group, which facilitates learning activity for all members and continuous organizational development. It is not appropriate equating LO with giving training organization members; LO goes beyond training. In addition to that LO can be sensible and meaningful when learning takes place at the system level and when it involves all organization members. Their model has the following characteristics: employs collective organizational policy formulation culture, exploit pertinent information, puts into practice periodic accounting and control, values in-house learning, prizes flexibility, designs and implements enabling organizational structures, employs between organization's learning, cultivates a learning culture, facilitates self-development occasions and chances for all organizational members.

3.15 The relationships among leadership, management and OL

Many of the elements of transformational leadership, management and OL are interrelated. Planning and budgeting (management) matches up with creating shared vision (leadership); understanding the organization's work procedure (management) matches up with systems thinking (OL); encouraging teachers to be resourceful and to attempt new ways of doing teaching (leadership) matches up with challenging one's own beliefs and values as well as those of others and the organizations (OL); providing intellectual stimulation (leadership) matches with improving teachers' internal picture of the world and looking at more new ideas (OL); building sustainable learning culture (leadership) matches with discovering

shortcomings in teachers current way of seeing the world, emancipating from a narrow range of pedagogical practice, and refraining from familiar ways of thinking and acting (OL); willingness and ability to be flexible (leadership) matches with focusing our mental energy to see reality objectively (OL); fostering the acceptance of group goals (leadership) matches with team learning (OL); supporting and empowering teachers (leadership) it matches up with encouraging teachers to think, do, reflect, and decide (OL).

Leadership management and OL are different, but complementary concepts. Thus, school principals are required to play leadership and management roles as the school situation demands and pave new ground for OL to ensure context based learning.

3.16 Culture and Organizational learning

Although there is no one commonly accepted meaning of culture, some of the following terms have been used often to explain the concept: assumptions, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, ceremonies, dress, expectations, norms, practices, traditions, values etc. According to Bolman and Deal's (2003) explanation; culture is an outcome and a course of action. Culture is an outcome, for the reason that it has been created by those people in the past worked in the organization. Culture is a course of action, since it is improved and restructured as innovative employees enter the culture and inherit the previous ways of doing things their own.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) explain culture in a school as a guiding work discipline, statements, and outlooks in the way a school works. The term culture can be understood as many aspects and as many level notions. Schein describes three levels of culture. The first level comprises of observable organizational arrangements and practices, such as dress rules, services and events. This level of culture can be easily seen. The second level involves championed standards evident in the communal descriptions of organizations, such as policy, targets, and viewpoints. These are not as observable as the objects at hand in the first level, these principles can be acquired by customs, and the way things are done in the organization. The third level embraces of vital theories, or unaware viewpoints, insights, opinions, and mind-sets. These can influence the way people should act and perform the things that are extremely esteemed (Schein, 1992).

According to Buono and Bowditch (1989), culture is classified into two: objective culture and subjective culture.

The visible cultural elements created by an organization on the first level are categorized as objective organizational culture, while the elements on the second and the third levels are grouped under subjective organizational culture. The subjective culture is more important as a significant determinant of beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, and it thus provides a more distinguishing foundation for differentiating and understanding the similarities and differences among people in different organizations (pp.137-139).

Organizational culture is conceptualized usually in terms of the way people believe, which has a direct impact on the ways in which they work. For example, Schein asserts that culture makes visible itself in terms of behavior and championed values (Schein (1992)). He also says that the essence of culture lies in the set of “underlying assumptions.” Similarly, Deshpande and Webster (1989, p.4) define organizational culture as a “set of shared assumptions and understanding about organization functioning.” It is by and large known as the societal glue that gets organizational members together.

Leithwood (1992b) and Brown (1993) state two contradicting views of school culture by explaining it as being either inflexible and top-down where teachers operate in segregation or as being joint, where teachers work collectively to ensure the desired change. Hopkins, et al., (1994) identified schools’ culture as: stuck, wandering, promenading, and moving.

The schools with stuck culture are low achieving and are characterized by rigidity, teacher isolation and blame external stakeholders for any failure (Hopkins et al., 1994). Schools with wandering culture are those which are practicing various creativity and improvements; however, they operate in isolated way and lack clear direction. Schools with promenading culture prefer to live in their past achievements and they do not change themselves to meet the demand of the time (Hopkins et al., 1994). The final type of school culture according to Hopkins et al. (1994) is a moving school culture where there is strong equilibrium of reform and firmness as the school develops.

Different scholars have emphasized the importance of school culture in achieving schools' goals. A well-established culture is basic to reaching the school hallucination (Deal and Peterson, 1999; Marzano et al., 2005). Schools can be successful when they build culture of sustainable learning organization, and that is possible only where there is a farsighted or visionary school leader (Leithwood, et.al, 1998; Yukl, 2006).

Collective decision-making grows to be ingredient of the culture, augments teacher enthusiasm, dedication, and loyalty to the school vision (á Campo, 1993; Silins and Mulford, 2002). Appropriate structures and processes permit mutual decision-making to take place within a school (Leithwood et al., 1999). Joint decision-making and cordial relations have strong positive impact on establishing school culture; vision setting, goal identifying, high performance expectation planning, intellectual inspiration, and in providing individual-based professional assistance (Leithwood et al., 2006).

Research suggests that strong culture improves school. On the contrary feeble culture holds back school development and is differentiated from the school with well-built culture by teachers working to solve difficulties unaccompanied instead of showing collective efforts. At the same time a feeble and negative culture can split staff members, a strong and positive school culture can bring together all staff members for significant changes (Firestone and Louis, 1999). A positive culture helps organization members to advance in the required ways and it controls those working in opposition to the culture (Kilman et al., 1986). Positive school culture provides universal route to the overall development of the organization (Norris, 1994). The voyage to establish a strong, positive culture requires the investment of much time and commitment, but valuable to maximize the effectiveness of the organization members' endeavors (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1996).

Effective leaders appreciate and recognize the role of culture as a result they press on for the compulsory reforms without demolishing the existing school culture (Waters et al., 2003). Organization-wide reform often needs reforming cultures which is an obstacle to development and relevant reforms cannot be addressed by changing minor elements (Parish and Aquila, 1996). A feeble school culture can be altered easier than a strong school culture (Kilman et al., 1986). Most cultures, on the other hand, are extremely deep-rooted and to

reform such cultures require basically changing the moral fiber and distinctiveness of the organization (Deal, 1990).

A school's culture can facilitate or impede development. Showers and Joyce (1996:16) point out 'a cohesive school culture makes possible the collective decisions that generate school-wide improvement efforts'. Sagor (1992) also testifies to the importance of school culture and the contribution that effective school leaders make to their school's culture. Furthermore, he states that effective principal uses three building blocks of transformational leadership: (1) a clear and unified focus, (2) a cultural perspective, and (3) a constant push for improvement. A school principal is expected to establish sustainable culture of learning. In an effective school a teacher is highly committed to teaching as well as to learning concurrently. Teachers feel that they are respected and privileged; their potentials are considered as an asset (Barth, 1990). Leadership has been acknowledged by many of organizational literature as a critical factor in shaping organizational culture and leadership effectiveness (Anderson, 1982).

According to Hickman (1998) whether organizational culture is weak or strong it has a powerful influence on a performance of organizational members. In best performing schools, Boyer's (1983) research findings indicated that the school principals made significant difference in creating powerful culture of professional community.

A culture can be reformed much more rapidly if the members desire a reform to happen (Fiore, 2004). Cavanaugh and Dellar (1998) put in plain words that if reform is most wanted, it can happen in one year; however, Gruenert (2000) opposes this view and supposes that reforming a culture requires five to seven years.

The role of school culture in enhancing or hindering school-based change has been recognized by literature and different researchers. Thus, the concept 'culture' is very relevant to this study. Because, understanding the concept helps to examine how school culture promotes or hinders OL and to explore the role of school principal in shaping the school culture for the good of the stakeholders.

3.17 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The theoretical foundation for this study is consisted of Bass's (1998) theory of transformational leadership and Segne's (1990) conceptualization of learning organization. Bass (1998) identified five characteristics of transformational leadership: (1) they are strong role models; (2) they exhibit high competence; (3) they build confidence; (4) they communicate high expectations and stimulate motivation; (5) they transform followers' self-concepts and emphasize high interest in getting things done instead of working only for rewards. Hallinger and Heck (1999) argue that transformational leadership is the most relevant type of leadership in dealing with change and vision and it is more sensitive to the promotion of organizational learning, building the collective vision, and practicing shared leadership. In particular, it can help illuminate how complex interactions between organizational structures, cultures and communication processes can facilitate or impede the introduction of an organizational learning practices.

The second conceptualization used in this study was the five "Disciplines" of learning organization. The five disciplines are: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning (Senge, 1990). Senge proposes that people put aside their old ways of thinking (mental models), learn to be open with others (personal mastery), understand how their company really works (systems thinking), form a plan everyone can agree on (shared vision), and then work together to achieve that vision (team learning).

It was necessary that the theoretical dimensions of schools as learning organizations should be approached on the basis of a specific conceptual model. Therefore, the researcher selected Senge's (1990) five key 'disciplines' because his model has been used most often and extensively to guide educators and school administrators who want to change their own schools.

3.18 Summary

The distinctions between management and leadership can be made clear by considering the following points: *structure versus: people:* management is about structure and leadership is about people. *Status quo versus innovation:* Management is status quo oriented, but leadership is change and innovation oriented. *Efficiency versus effectiveness:* management

emphasizes on efficiency; though leadership capitalizes on effectiveness. *How versus 'what' and why*: management focuses on work procedures; however, leadership concerned about what needs to be achieved and why it needs to be achieved.

Some of the major reasons for using the concept of learning organizations based on Senge's (1990) five key disciplines were: first, the five disciplines model is the most accepted model currently accessible and crosses the borders of many other models. Second, educational studies targeting on building a learning organization are entrenched in and made clear by Senge's (1990) five disciplines. Third, unlike other learning organization researchers, Senge (1990) himself has shown great endeavor in changing school organizations into learning organizations. Although he is not an educational researcher, his commitment to building learning organizations in schools is well establish in the literature.

Thus, transformational leadership theory was used as a wide angle lens to see the current prospects and drawbacks from the school principals' side. Learning organization concept used to explore the participants' perceptions of OL and the school principals' role in leading workplace teachers learning. Both frameworks were helpful to examine the real conditions of the schools' environment, school principals' leadership competencies to enhance OL and teachers' perceptions of OL and their commitment to OL.

Each model consists of different dimensions and characteristics. Four major similarities are seen in these models: all models recognize the importance of continuous learning at work place, the need for developing a learning culture, and creating a learning structure. OL is conceptualized as the procedure of humanizing dealings through better understanding and using the expertise of all actors in the organization. Learning at work is understood as on-the-job learning. Reflection and inquiry are two key skills necessary to increase mental models to a conscious level. Furthermore, the learning organization attributes have been perceived as desirable characteristics by all models.

Organizational culture is a combination of ideals, and thinking shared by members of an organization. After some years, all organizations build up a distinctive culture or work behavior in which workers contribute to collective principles and viewpoints about work-

related matters. These organizational principles usually involve intensely deep-rooted way of doing things. In several circumstances, leaders and, chiefly, culture initiators are influential in building and promoting the organization culture.

3.19 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework for this study is derived from the review of literature and theoretical framework of the study. Learning in educational institutions is an intended activity to acquire new knowledge, skills and to bring behavioral changes in thinking, behaving and doing. For learning to take place there must be a need, interest or problem(s). In the case of educational institutions, knowledge and skill gaps in teaching, competition to get better market advantage, pressure from stakeholders, high needs from students to learn more, the need to manage hard and soft educational technology; social, economic and political/ ideological changes can be mentioned as some of the reasons for OL. Learning is a life-long travel especially for teachers. Teachers are expected to learn something beyond what they have learned or beyond what they have already mastered in order to satisfy the learning needs of different students.

Schools can employ standards to see what other schools are doing to achieve quality and to resolve similar problems, and can examine their environment for new development. Technology enables teachers to move beyond their schools' walls and gets teachers together around special interests from different parts of the world. The political, social, economic, legal and cultural changes are causes of learning. Thus, having a knowledge of local, national, and global issues and trends related to education, assessing and responding to the unique and diverse community needs in the context of the school's vision and mission would be important. Marquardt has argued that eight factors change the business world and made the extensive organizational learning inevitable and essential in the 21st century. These eight factors include: The globalization and global economy, technology, severe change of business world, the customer's increasing influence, considered knowledge and learning as the major organizational asset, the employees' changing roles and expectations, the diversity and mobility of labor, and rapidly expanding changes and development (Marquardt, 1996).

The degree of learning a new thing at an institutional level is determined by the employees' mental setup to test and accept new ideas and the leader's capacity to challenge the old routines and outdated assumptions. Effective school leader can shape social environment (school culture) in a way it enhances mutual trust among teachers for the good of OL; furthermore, he facilitates physical environment for teachers to work together and to learn from each other.

Institutional strategy for OL is a capacity building plan to ensure a culture of continuous improvement at school level. Institutional learning strategies can be different from school to school, but its ultimate goal is to strengthen the capacity of teachers. Any institutional learning can be productive when it considers the interest of the organization and the interest of those individuals working for the organization. When a learning strategy denies the interest of the majority and keep the interest of the people in power, it would be susceptible to failure from its very beginning.

School principals carryout their administrative responsibilities by using transactional or transformational leadership approaches or both. Both approaches are important according to the situations. It is up to leaders to use in appropriate doze by carefully examining the context.

Culture is about collective mental models, shared ways of how we perceive the world, how we emotionally react to what we perceive, and how we put value on things. Culture can enhance or inhibit OL. Some organizational culture emphasizes the organizational values such as cooperation, teamwork, recognition, sharing and combined problem solving. Some organizational culture emphasizes the need for strict work discipline by emphasizing regulations, commands, standards, competitions, and measurement.

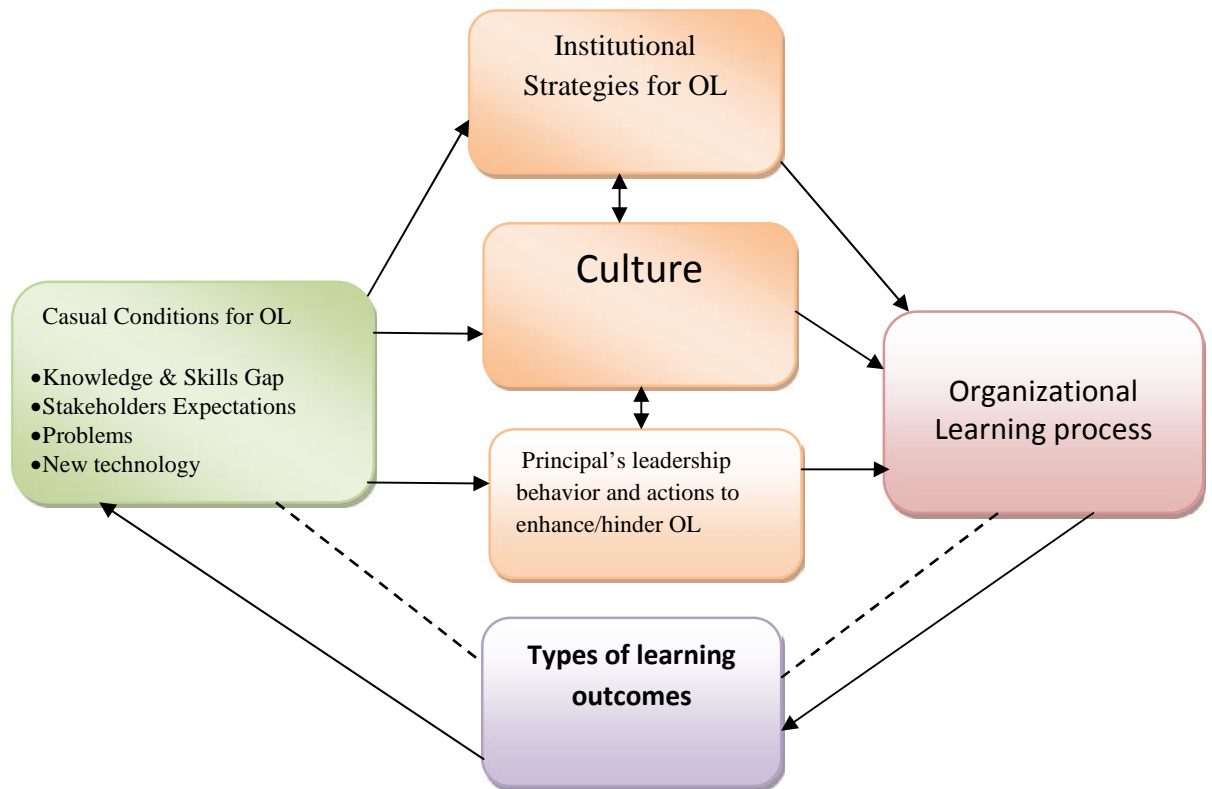
Learning takes place in all organizations, but the scope and level of learning varies from organization to organization. In some organizations learning takes place in order to keep the status quo and in others to introduce fundamental changes for organizational competitive advantages. In other words, some organizations are single loop learners. Others are double loop learners. The outcome of the learning at an individual, group and organizational level

can be maintenance/ single loop learning or adaptive/ double learning. Although both types of learning are important according to the situations, double loop learning is the most important and recommendable type of learning approach for radical improvement of schools. Most schools engage in what has been called *single-loop learning* (Argyris, 2008a). Robbins (2000) asserted that OL is a key to becoming a LO:

Most organizations engage in what has been called single-loop learning. When errors are detected, the correction process relies on past routines and present policies. In contrast, learning organizations use double-loop learning. When an error is detected, it's corrected in ways that involve the modification of the organization's objectives, policies, and standard routine (p. 270).

In a very similar way, other scholars claim that single-loop learning calls for the improvement process that relies on past habits and present policies when mistakes are discovered in the system. In contrast, learning organizations use *double-loop learning* (Argyris, 2008b). When an error occurs in the system, it is corrected in ways that involve the modification of the school's goals, policies, and standard operating procedures. Double-loop learning challenges deeply rooted assumptions and norms within the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2011). In this way, it provides opportunities for radically different solutions to problems and remarkable improvement in results.

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework



The conceptual framework has been helpful to generate ample data on the why and how of OL, to identify strategies of OL, to explore the actual behaviors of the school principals' in making possible and hindering teachers' work place learning. Prior to this study, the school principals' leadership behavior had been like a 'black box' to the researcher, because the links between school leadership and OL was invisible and difficult to understand. The conceptual framework helped the researcher to go one step deeper in order to understand, explain and show the links between leadership and OL, to explore the prevailing OL strategies in the studied schools and the how these learning strategies are managed by the school principals.

Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology

4.1. Research paradigm

Creswell (2009) suggests that individuals preparing research proposal make explicit the larger philosophical ideas they promote. The theoretical orientation of the study is naturalistic or qualitative research paradigm, because the study is characterized by natural settings, humans as primary data gathering instruments, use of tacit knowledge, qualitative method, purposive sampling, and case-study reporting mode. Qualitative research is focused on understanding the “insider perspective” of people and their culture and this requires direct personal contact.

Qualitative researchers attempt to know various scopes of reality, behaviors of people in a group, how people in a group suppose, act together, and what kinds of harmony or norm are prevailing, and how these dimensions come together naturalistically and holistically. Qualitative researchers contend that it is essential to “get close” to their objects of study during participant observation so that they can understand for themselves the subjective dimensions of the phenomena they study. In qualitative research, the researcher is said to be the “instrument of data collection.” Rather than using a statistical tools or measuring device, the qualitative researcher asks questions, collects the data, makes explanations, and records what is observed; regularly tries to understand the people he is observing from the participants or actors’ opinion (Bryman, 2012).

According to Creswell (2009), qualitative inquiry is rooted in a social constructivist worldview, and it involves understanding a state of affairs in a context, different participant ideas about the issue, shared and experience, and ultimately new knowledge-making. The epistemological stance for this study is the social constructivist worldview. The researcher attempted to understand the lived experiences of the participants within their contexts, interpret multiple participant meanings, and construct theory to describe the relationship between principal leadership and organizational learning. Qualitative research permits a researcher to go beyond the data and formulate working definitions about what could potentially be expected to happen in contexts, based on what has been learned in the context of inquiry (Bryman, 2012).

Marshall and Rosman (1989), state that qualitative research is appropriate to capture a sufficient level of details on how organizational learning has been viewed from the perspectives of the insiders. Furthermore, because of the flexibility and emerging nature of qualitative data, the researcher gets an opportunity to conduct further investigation straight away to answer the question “what” “why” and “how”, thereby reaching a holistic understanding about the issue (Bryman, 2012). Different scholars have discussed the main advantages of qualitative research design as follows: Qualitative techniques allow researchers to collect and analyze human behaviors as they occur naturally in everyday environments (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

According to Wolcott (1994), the advantage to a qualitative approach in educational research is that it draws the reader into the arena of the observed. Qualitative research studies are showing things as they in the natural or social world, the researchers situating themselves in community state of affairs as they search for to add in- depth understanding of events as they occur in their natural environments and as understood by those who work together and take part in those settings (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The researcher as a tool for data gathering has the mission of looking for new corridors of inquiry as they appear. Qualitative investigators are expected to listen to different ideas as they come into view; to ask more questions to expand their understanding, to dig out additional data, and to keep away themselves from getting locked into inflexible plans that decrease the quality of understanding about the issue (Maxwell, 1996).

The flexible plan gives an opportunity to change data gathering procedures or to customize as the study is going on and it helps the investigators to reexamine and recapture the participants’ viewpoints and let the researchers explore in detail pertinent data to make the study complete and meaningful (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, as the investigation approach was probing, a qualitative design was suitable to allow the most iteration as the research was going on (Maxwell, 1996).

Qualitative research emphasizes the construction of perceptions and descriptions more than determining fact (Wolcott, 1994). Qualitative research follows the logical principle of using particular facts and examples to reach general rules and principles (Patton, 1980). It is the

process making thick description of the coming out issues, classification of major and minor ideas, scopes and interconnections observed in social settings (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Maxwell, 1996) and gathering and naming of data at the same time and look forward to generate theoretical model.

4.2. Research design

It is believed that qualitative comparative case study design is more preferable than other types of research designs to collect adequate and pertinent data through interviews, observation and document analysis (Yin, 2003) and more effective research design to give full explanation and to make detailed examination in order to understand more about the issue under study. It uses intentionally identified and selected sample that can reveal clear variations between case sites and research participants (Maxwell, 1996) and, consequently, expands our knowledge of the cases' resemblances and variations (Miles & Huberman, 1994); it also increases the probability of using the research results to use in analogous environment (Weiss, 1994).

A qualitative research design is usually used to explore theory or idea that has not been examined thoroughly and when there is a need to know in depth about the issue (Creswell, 2005). Qualitative methods are systematic ways of searching for feasible solutions to 'why' and 'how' problems. Investigating the views and perceptions of participants assists to give clear explanation of the possibilities, the settings and relevant answer to 'how and why' questions. Dosi et al (2003) claim that qualitative research is more difficult than quantitative research in giving meanings and in showing the implications of the findings; because of the complex nature of human behavior and highly complicated interactions of people.

Qualitative case study is more fitting to gather plenty of facts on how the case schools' leadership and organizational learning have been perceived from the perspectives of the insiders. In addition to that for the reason that it is flexible, an investigator can employ further research until he gets the adequate and convincing answer to the question "why" (Marshall and Rosman, 2006).

Case study is an appropriate research approach to look at new course of actions that were not studied earlier at a sufficient level (Hartley 1994). Therefore, case study is very helpful for responding to *how* and *why* questions about the existing set of actions (Leonard-Barton 1990). Likewise, researchers have asserted that some data can be not easy to be collected or even impracticable to deal with by ways other than qualitative approaches such as the case study (Sykes 1990).

There is a difference among qualitative research approaches. Case study is unlike to other qualitative designs (ethnography, grounded theory) because it is flexible employ the existing theories that may direct the study and data analysis procedures; however, grounded theory and ethnography suppose that theory is embedded in data and emanates from data.

The researcher preferred a qualitative research design for different reasons. First, qualitative researches that were conducted on schools are very few in number not only at national level but also at global level. Thus, the research may contribute in adding new insight about OL. Second, it helps to have an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of school principals and teachers about the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of OL in the government and private school. Third, it helps to understand what happens within social contexts in a natural way. Furthermore, it is hoped that this comparative case study may be helpful for top educational officials to see the similarities and differences between the government school and the private school in motivating teachers for OL.

4.3. Research site and participant selection

Purposive sampling technique was employed to select the sub-city, schools and participants for the study. According to Creswell (2005), in quantitative studies, overview is usually a target, by using random sampling technique, however, in qualitative studies, researchers usually and intentionally choose participants those have capacity to provide adequate and relevant information about the phenomenon.

Among 10 sub-cities, one sub-city was selected purposely, because it is the largest in terms of land size and number of dwellers’ and students’ population. Besides, the sub-city has better data management system. The two case schools were selected for the study based on

the following criteria: (a) high access to novice, junior and senior teachers, (b) consistent and better academic performance in 10th and 12th grades national examinations for five consecutive years (from 2010-2014), (c) a school with better qualified and experienced teachers and (d) a school with qualified principal, specifically in educational management or long year service in school management position.

The study participants were also selected by using the following criteria: first degree or M.A degree in teaching and additional training in Educational Planning and Management and willingness to take part in the study; having a minimum of 5 years' experience in teaching and more than 3 years' experience in leading the school. Similarly, the selection criteria for teachers were two: having first degree in teaching and willingness to participate in the study. Totally 36 participants took part in the study. One principal, two vice-principals and 17 teachers from the government school and one principal, two vice-principals and 13 teachers from the private school were participated in the study.

4.4. Data gathering tools

The researcher employed three data gathering tools for this study: namely, semi- structured interviews, field observation and document analysis. Semi-structured interview was the major data gathering tool. Data from different sources (e.g. documents, interviews, and observations) were important to provide insight about a social context through varied lenses (Wolcott, 1994). Observation and document analysis were used as supplementary tools for cross-checking and triangulation purpose.

4.4.1. Semi-structured interview

Data can be collected by using structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews; however, Brown and Dowling (1998) claim that the term “unstructured” is deceptive because an interview without structure cannot collect adequate amount of data. Structured and semi-structured interviews help to guide the interview and to use time effectively. Semi -structured interview is effective to maintain openness, to emphasis on more important issues and to address all research and interview questions in chronological orders (Denscombe, 2003).

There are obvious advantages to using interviews. Interviews give the researcher the chance to make sure that he realizes the participant properly; thus the meanings are unmistakably comprehended by the researcher. Denscombe (2003) states that interview give the occasion to look at the issue in depth; it permits the participant to raise any point of discussion that he assumes essential to the study. In qualitative case studies, interviewing is a main source of data required for understanding the issue under study (Merriam, 1988). Interview is the most appropriate data gathering tool to understand the emotions, feelings and interests of the participants (McCracken, 1988).

Consequently, in- depth interviews were a major source of data in this study. The research design therefore used semi- structured interview. The interview was conducted in Amharic language with all participants and later translated into English language by the researcher. To ensure the validity of interview, the interview guide questions were carefully designed, pilot interviews were conducted to check the potential of the interview questions to capture the intended data, and a few questions were amended as the result of the feedbacks obtained from pilot interviews. Interview guide questions were aimed at the participants' level of understanding and were phrased in words that were meaningful to the participant to avoid the use of academic jargon or technical terms.

So that each stage of the interview was clear to the respondents; the respondents were also allowed to take their time and answer in their own way; they were kept to the point and the matter in hand, the effects of power was minimized by establishing in advance good relationship; trust and consensus, to enhance openness and shared beliefs on the real purpose of the study.

The researcher explained the purpose of the research to the participants and got permission to conduct the study. The duration of the observation was relatively short; the researcher has been conscious of the impact of a short duration to the sites that could cause him to miss some important insights because he was already a cultural 'insider'. In order to overcome this problem, the researcher suspended his prior assumptions and looked at the sites what was going on as a marginal native. Not to be misled by 'front stage' behavior (what people want allow us to see) rather than 'back stage' behavior (covert behavior), the researcher

established in advance a climate of trust and good rapport with the group being studied in order to get the right information about the issue under study.

In the government school, data were collected from 20 participants from 2 February to 13 February 2015. Two participants were interviewed in a day, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. The interview took 90 minutes with one participant on average including the debriefing task. Similarly, in the private school data were collected from 16 participants through semi-structured interview from 16 February to 25 February 2015 following the same procedures.

4.4.2. Observation

The overall objective of the observation was to explore how the government and the private school principals' carryout their daily leadership roles and management functions in their respective schools. From a research point of view, observation is basically dissimilar from interviewing; because it gives firsthand data. The major advantage of observational data is that it permits researchers to observe openly what people do without having to depend on what they say they perform. Such data can offer a further objective account of events and behaviors than second hand reported data. Observational techniques give up data that relate openly to representative behavioral situation. Observation makes it feasible to record behaviors as it is occurring (Denscombe, 2003).

According to Merriam (1988) observation data are essential for three main rationales: (a) "participant-observation data allow the researcher to differentiate patterned interactions and associated processes of roles, (b) these data also allow the researcher to take the role of another and in that way gain an understanding of how the role is experienced and (c) observation data, when coupled with interviews and document collection, permit for data triangulation" (p.67).

In doing observations, the researcher spent much of his time with staff members, the schools' principals and vice- principals in the offices, in lunchroom, and staff meetings. He also observed interactions among staff members. While observing the principals' actions and teachers' interactions and reactions for an entire day, the researcher recorded notes in written

forms, with the hope that he could compare principals stated version and their actual behavior.

Bogdan & Biklen, (1998) propose that all observations must contain both the explanations and insights section. In other words, everything what was seen while observation must be described in detail and the researcher is expected to reflect the ideas he was processing in his mind while the observation was going on.

Observation protocols were used by the researcher in the private school from 13 April to 24 April 2015 for 10 consecutive working days to collect qualitative data on how the school principal and vice-principals discharge their management functions and leadership roles. For the same purpose, observation was conducted in the government school from 4 May to 15 May 2015. The schools were observed from 8:30 A.M to 3:15 P.M. Therefore, ten days were spent in order to understand the principals' leadership behaviors, teachers' new skill exchanging processes, organizational norms, social contacts, attitudes and their point of view on organizational learning and how principals lead the teaching community.

4.4.3. Document Analysis

Documents refer to public records, personal papers, and artifacts. These are the third major source of data in case study research. Thus, the researcher used documents such as school improvement program, staff's monthly minutes, continuous teachers' professional development document, personal portfolio and newly employed teachers' induction document in order to substantiate the data that were gathered through interviews and observations.

4.5. Data analysis

In qualitative research, Miles and Huberman (1994:10) define analysis as “three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification”. The study therefore used Miles and Huberman's (1994) approach to data analysis. Accordingly, the three stages of data analysis—data reduction, data display and conclusion were interlinked in the data analysis process which operated the whole time of the life of the study.

Data Reduction- First, the main points of each interview were jotted down carefully on the researcher's notebook word by word. After each interview sessions, the researcher and participants took time to check together whether the interview responses were written word by word. Then after, the unnecessary repetitions were sifted and the responses that were relevant to interview questions were carefully considered for the data analysis.

The responses were presented first subject-by-subject, and then school-by-school. The responses from the two schools were cross referenced and cross-site analysis was undertaken by the researcher. These responses were interpreted, summarized and the findings presented themselves accurately and clearly. Finally, causal links were drawn between leadership behavior and organizational learning.

Data Display

The researcher developed two separate formats for data display. The first format was an extended narrative mode, used the descriptions that were gathered from interviews, field observations and documentation to exemplify specific outcomes. The second format contained a list of findings that summarized the behavior exhibited by leaders in the schools. The second format shows how the school principals promoted or hindered learning culture in their respective schools. These two forms of data display complemented each other. The combination of these two forms of display gave an organized body of information from which conclusions was reached.

For the purpose of this study, the coding process was guided by the following five research questions: How do secondary school principals and teachers perceive the concept of OL and its importance? How do school principals influence teachers for OL? What are the major strategies of OL? What are the major facilitators/ barriers to OL in the secondary schools? What similarities and differences are there between government and private school in leading teachers for OL?

Data substantiation occurred when data collected from interview transcripts observations and document analysis. These were cross-checked with other interview transcripts, observation

notes, and documents. The analyses were presented first subject-by-subject, and then school-by-school.

The responses from the two schools were cross referenced and cross-site analysis was undertaken. These responses were interpreted, summarized and the findings presented clearly. Finally, two intermediate theories were developed from the data.

4.6. Validity

Validity in qualitative research is usually conceptualized as the strong association between the research's findings and the concrete reality on the ground. There is no research method that gives assurance to the validity of a qualitative research, since it is interpretive in its nature; however, there are many ways that can enhance validity or credibility of a qualitative study (Maxwell, 1996). These comprise extended stay with participants; continual observations; triangulation; elucidation of unsure findings with participants; and audio-taping and verbatim recording of interviews, repeated examination materials and explanation for consistency (Cresswell, 1998) and regular inspection of correctness of data (Morse, 1994).

The importance of validity has been discussed extensively by qualitative researchers. Validity in qualitative research is explained as whether the data is credible and can be safeguarded when confronted. Validity in quantitative research is crystal-clear; however, validity in qualitative research is controversial. There are some researchers who believe that the concept of validity as recognized in quantitative research is not go well together with qualitative research and must be left out. Others argue that systematic attempts are required to maintain qualitative research validity if the findings of the study are to be acknowledged.

Risks to validity and reliability are almost not possible to control fully; but it is possible to minimize its possible consequences by giving attention to validity and reliability all the way through the research (Cohen et al 2007). In the past, validity dealt with ensuring that a chosen data gathering tool can measure what it was supposed to measure, but now the issue of validity goes beyond this narrow concept. In qualitative study validity can be maintain in many ways. The major validity maintaining strategies are: data source, methods and

researchers' triangulation, the quality of the structured interviews and their potential to bring out truthful and frank responses and the objectivity of the researchers (Winter 2000).

Maxwell (1992) argues that qualitative researchers are required to be alert not to adjust their thinking of validity to the validity in quantitative research. Validity in quantitative research is ensuring the potential of the study in showing parallel variables, in extrapolating the research results, in proving the existing theories and enhancing the standardized norms. In qualitative research it is imperative for a researcher to take the accurate records of what happens in the real social world and to know in detail what is the exact experience in the setting.

Internal Validity of Qualitative Research

Johnson (1997), and Benz & Newman (1998) proposed that triangulation, staying in the field for longer period of time, member/ participant checking, peer review, negative case sampling, reflexivity and audit trail should be considered by researchers if they wish to enhance the internal validity of qualitative studies.

Triangulation, member/ participant checking, peer review, reflexivity and audit trail were used for this study to maintain the internal validity of the study. Triangulation involves the cross-checking of information from different dimensions. The researcher triangulated the data collected through observation, interviews and document analysis in order to clear some doubts.

Member checking refers to involving participants to check the accuracy of the data before it is analyzed and interpreted. The strategy employed to ensure the interpretative validity of the study was that participants' feedback or member checking. In order to enhance the internal validity, the researcher returned to the participants who were interviewed and checked whether what the researcher had written is what the participants said in the interview. For this purpose, first, viewpoints, feelings, and experiences of the participants were exactly understood by the researcher; and then, the meanings attached by the participants were described accurately as much as possible. By doing so the accuracy of the interpretation of the participants' opinions, feelings, and experiences was confirmed.

It is supposed that involving peers who are interested in the study enhances the possibility to have an in-depth opinion about the data. Thus, the researcher chose two colleagues who have long experience in school management. These colleagues were not involved in the study but were interested in what the researcher was doing. The researcher discussed the interpretations and conclusions of the findings with his colleagues and received critical and constructive comments.

One of the main issues with the validity of qualitative research is the chance of the researcher's bias in interpreting data. To minimise value related biases, the researcher critically examined himself to detect any potential bias and inclination that may influence the conclusions he made about the data. The respondents were given the opportunity to read the summary of the research in order to ensure if their viewpoints were exactly understood and reflected or misinterpreted by the researcher. The researcher tried to maximize the trustworthiness of the study in terms of reflexivity by using low inference descriptors, by maintaining interpretative validity and by establishing trusting atmosphere with participants. The first two strategies were used while interview session and the later one had been used during sites observations. Low inference descriptors refer to verbatim or direct quotations. Direct quotations were commonly used at the level of unit of analysis. The participants exact words were provided in direct quotations. Thus, the reader can experience the participants' actual language, emotions and personal meanings. Though no data can be hundred per cent value free and objective, the researcher made all serious effort to the level of objectivity of the study can be maintained.

Audit trail is the keeping of detailed and accurate records of everything the researcher did and of the data collected. The researcher reported actually what happened, what he heard and observed. The researcher also documented carefully the participants' responses word by word and organised appropriately for retrieval purposes. These documented participants' responses are available as evidence of data collected as well as validation of the interpretation of data.

In short, the researcher considered the Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria to enhance the quality of the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) in Seale (2000) present the following criteria

to establish the trustworthiness of a research. First, they suggest credibility to replace internal validity, second, transferability should replace external validity, third, dependability should replace reliability, and finally, confirmation should replace objectivity.

By taking these quality criteria into account, the researcher tried to maintain credibility by peer reviewers' criticism and member check or debriefing, transferability by providing thick description of the situation studied, dependability by auditing and confirmation by auditing.

4.7. Confidentiality and Ethics

Social research requires the need to work with openness and straightforwardness (Denscombe, 2003) making certain an ethical approach to the collection of the data, the analyzing of the data and particularly the dissemination of the findings. Accordingly, all participants in this research were asked for their informed consent before taking part in the research and all were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity (BERA, 2004). The purpose of the research was explained along with the procedures to be followed; the length of time it will take the participant to complete the interview; the extent to which the results will be kept confidential. They were also informed that participation is voluntary and the participant can withdraw at any time when he feels discomfort for any reasons. Thus, the researcher promised and took the full responsibility for the confidentiality of the data and participants' identity.

The participants at the government school denied permission to be tape recorded and some of them suggested to be interviewed outside the school compound for security purposes. Furthermore, they complained that they have experienced some earlier researches were used in political and personal ways. Although the researcher promised to delete their response after the research work is completed, the participants strongly argued saying that "a careful examination of informants' responses allow a third party to deduce a participant's identity". Two respondents showed interest to take part in this research, but they were not interested to be interviewed in the school compound. As a result, the researcher agreed not to record participant's responses and interviewed two participants outside the school on weekends.

The interviewer took notes and repeatedly emerged themes word for word and agreed not to paraphrase teachers' responses to economize respondents' time and to conduct the debriefing task right after the end of the interview. In short, four ethical demands were met for the study: the purpose of the study was explained; consent from the schools' management and participants to take part in the study was obtained; confidentiality concerning informants was assured; and finally, the data about the informant is to be used for research purpose only. Conducting interview and debriefing with informant took 90 minutes on average.

While writing the research report, the researcher used codes represented by capital letters along with Arabic numbers to make sure the anonymity of the participants and to minimize their fear. Informants from the government school were represented by Arabic numbers 1-20 and the informants from the private school were represented by Arabic numbers 21-36.

Chapter Five: Descriptions of Schools and their Contexts

5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes in brief the studied schools' facilities, physical environment and principals' work-related behaviors. The distinguishing physical and social environment of the schools is discussed to give comprehensive picture of the schools. This description may bring to the light the circumstances in which school principals are performing their management and leadership roles. The short description of the city administration and the sub-city in which the schools are located was also offered. The sources of data for these descriptions were interviews with vice- principals and field observation. The aim of the schools' descriptions is to show the main characteristics of the case schools so as to give clear contexts in which the school principals are working. The schools selected for the study were categorized into government and private for the purpose of data analysis.

5.2 General description

Addis Ababa is the capital city of the country with an estimated population of over 3 million inhabitants. In Addis Ababa there are more than 80 embassies. Many international and continental organizations are also found in the city. The city administration is divided in to ten sub-cities and 117 districts for administrative purposes. Among ten sub-cities one Sub-City was selected purposively for the study, because it is one of the largest Sub-Cities in terms of population and land size. The city is found in the western part of the city. The highest number of government schools is also found in this sub-city. In the Sub-City there are eight government- owned secondary schools and fourteen secondary private schools. The source of income for the majority of the dwellers is small scale business.

5.3 Description of the schools

Each school has its own unique history, social and physical environment. The basic and brief background information of the two schools is presented in order to give a comprehensive picture of the studied schools.

5.3.1 The government school

The school was established in 2007, and the total area of the school compound is 58,656-meter square. The school has been led by one principal and three vice-principals. The school principal has master's degree in school leadership. He has been leading the school since 2010. The qualification of teachers ranges from bachelor's degree to master's degree. The school principal has only four years teaching experience in secondary school. The total student population of the school in 2014 was 1864. Male and female students were 897 and 967 respectively; teacher-student ratio was 1:19 and classroom-student ratio was 1:42. The school principal explained "the great majority of students were from poor families. Almost all parents do not have adequate knowledge to assist their children at home and they do not able to hire tutors because of economic reasons."

The school has chemistry, biology and physics laboratories. The laboratories have adequate chemicals and science equipment to conduct scientific experiments. The school has also a library, adequate playground, water and electricity services, and broad band internet facilities for teachers and students. There are adequate and separate toilet rooms for males and females, departments have well-furnished offices and different committees and clubs have also their own offices. In addition to regular budget allocated from Finance and Economic Development Bureau, the school generates more than 500,000 Ethiopian Birr annually by renting shops to small –business dealers. The motivation of the students seems poor to attend the regular class. They showed their poor appetite for learning by reaching the school late. On average one tenth of the school's students were arriving late every morning and some students showed disciplinary problems. As a result, open confrontation between students and teachers was observed in the school. The school set a vision to be a role model in Ethiopia in the coming five years.

5.3.2 Description of the government school principals' work- related behavior

The school is led by one principal and three vice-principals. Three of them are too short except the one. All of them are young and in their first thirties. Their office is located at the entrance to the building. The vice-principals knew well who came into the school and who left the school. Any parent must secure their permission before contacting any teacher or student. If the teacher worked up to their expectations he received broad smile and

appreciations but if he did not perform up to their ideas, he was ignored. The school principal and vice-principals decided what was to be done, told the teachers what to do, and inspected how well the required tasks were being performed. They used supervision for directing and inspecting teachers' daily routine works.

They discussed school problems with some senior teachers before they brought the problems to the attention of the staff. The staff meetings in the school were short and one-hour business. The meeting was called to offer direction, or to give teachers the information they felt that teachers should know. Teaching schedules and all the details of the operation of the school were decided upon by the school administration after informal conversation were made with department heads.

The school principal and vice-principals did not have specific daily work plan. Although they did not have definite work schedules they carried out different management-oriented activities each day. The school principal spent about 80% of his time attending planned and unplanned committee meetings. He presides over 7 committees and participated in three committees as a member. Besides, he attended different unplanned meeting out of the school, on average one day a week. He spent about 20% of his time discussing with parents, guests and school personnel, report writing, discussing with students' representatives and over viewing maintenance work.

The vice-principal for Teachers' Development spent 60% of his time collecting data on teachers' performance, inspecting and taking notes of the missed classes and writing warning letters to unrecognized absentee teachers. He spent nearly 40% of the work time coordinating 11 co-curricular clubs, discussing with 11 department heads, mentors, teachers and also writing report.

The vice principal for teaching- learning process spent about 75% of his time managing those students with deviant behaviors, discussing with their parents and inspecting teachers' and students' daily attendance sheets. 25% of his time used up controlling the implementation of the school time table, approving daily lesson plan, writing reports checking the quality of tests and examinations in collaboration with department heads.

According to the researcher's two weeks' systematic observations, the major components of the school principal and vice- principals' daily activities were three: leading planned and unplanned meetings, administering routine management activities and communicating with different stakeholders. As a result, less relevant management functions consumed more relevant leadership roles.

5.3.3 The private school

The school was opened in 2002 and admitted 22 students to teach from grade 1-3. The six storey secondary school is shared with primary school and kindergarten. The vision of the school was to be a center of academic excellence. It was established as a private school with the vision of giving world class education in the city in 2018. Now it has enrolled 933 secondary school students of which 378 are males and 555 are females. The students are from middle income families according to Ethiopians living standard. The school principal reported that the majority of the parents are uneducated businessmen; thus they are not able to assist their children. Although they have reasonable amount of income they do not hire private tutors even they are not willing to come to the schools when they called to discuss with teachers on poor performance of their children. The students' parents frequently move and stay out of the city for business and religious purposes; hence they do not have time to follow their children day-to-day performance. They push all responsibilities to the teachers and administration. They are required to pay 700 Ethiopian Birr per month on average. The school is operating on a very small piece of land; its total area is about 3056 square meters. It is 20 times less than the government school in terms of land size.

Classrooms and offices are well-organized and basic facilities are adequately equipped. School and classroom rules were clearly articulated and discussed upon by teachers, parents and students' representatives. The concept of the school as a place of commitment to learning is communicated clearly by the principal and the teachers, and the students' performance is analyzed and interpreted every month and students' assignments are checked sufficiently. The teachers' expectations of students learning are very high and they give students many opportunities to take responsibility for different school activities. The school teachers pay special attention to student interests, problems and achievements and also it keeps parents

regularly informed about the students' progress, and seek their help in keeping the students' working towards excellence.

The private school organized itself to be more responsive to the demands of parents, students and teachers than do the government schools. The school level autonomy is a key difference between the government and private school: the private school selects and fires teachers and school personnel, evaluate teachers' performance and gives significant rewards for best teachers, adapt the curriculum, establish standards for student promotion, improve instructional practices, purchase educational equipment and establish homework and assignment policies. Thus, the school principal exercises much control over a wide range of decisions.

The school has a principal, two vice-principals and 48 teaching staff. The school principal has diploma in geography and bachelor degree in school administration. He has also rich experience in teaching and leading schools both in government and private schools. He served as a teacher for 21 years, as school principal for 8 years in different government schools before he retired and for 7 years as a school principal in the studied private school.

The qualification of teachers ranges from bachelor's degree to masters' degree. Three teachers have masters' degree and one teacher is about to finish his doctorate degree in medical science. He has been sponsored by the school because of his outstanding performance in teaching. The classroom-student and teacher-student ratio is 1:35 and 1:20 respectively.

The school has modern and well-equipped chemistry, biology and physics laboratories. The school has also built a high quality library, which has fast internet connection and audio-visual center for language teaching. The library provides both regular and electronic library services for teachers and students. It has also small playgrounds for volleyball and basketball. What makes the school unique from other schools is that it has bathroom for physical education teachers and clinic with a qualified nurse to manage minor health problems of the school community. The toilets are at high standard and always clean. The teaching staff is stable and a few numbers of teachers are appointed to vacant teaching positions each

academic year those who have successfully passed the school's screening test. The purpose of the screening test is to measure the applicant's subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills. Besides, an applicant is required to be fluent in English language.

The school provides annually scholarship for 31 outstanding and needy students. For the last fourteen years, the school received much appreciation from parents for having strong focus on English language and science teaching and for having high academic records both at the school and at national examinations. The school is characterized by: reasonable amount of salary for teaching staff, high workload with incentives, low student-teacher ratio, good student discipline and high commitment of students and teachers in teaching and learning process. All students are expected to pass the national examinations of grade 10th and grade 12th with 'great distinction'.

5.3.4 Description of the school and the principals' work- related behavior

The school principal and the vice-principals are tall. All of them were retired from government schools some years ago. Although they are in their late sixties they were as energetic as young school principals. Their office is by the main gate, but they did not control teachers who enter or leave. The teachers enter and leave with confidence. The researcher was surprised by the freedom the teachers were enjoying; because it different to the researcher's expectation. Routines were not their responsibility and concern. All routine activities were managed by the head of supportive personnel division. The school management team and the school teachers always well dressed and with ready smile. The school principal and the vice-principals were always on their jobs throughout the day mainly giving supervision to teachers. Teachers were encouraged to talk over their problems with each other and also with the school leaders. Although they did not command or give direct orders, they worked with teachers in such a way they got an opportunity to see the value of the teachers' viewpoints and the way of teachers' working.

They believed in giving the teachers freedom in order to be successful. Since they did not want to be administrators who restricted teachers or imposed a pattern on them, they avoided letting teachers know what they thought. They conceived of their role as creating the type of school environment in which teachers relax and can teach in the best way they knew. They

listened to all of them patiently, gently, and with that steady smile. They replied to teachers' statements or questions carefully, they avoided revealing value judgments. Every member of their staff always received warm and friendly greeting from them.

They called for frequent staff meetings. The staff meetings usually took three hours, sometimes more. Everybody talked. The school principal asked the staff what problem needed to be considered. Whenever any member of the staff had an idea, their door was open, and the staff members were welcome to come in and talk it over. The school principal interpreted his role to mean giving teachers freedom and allowing developing new teaching strategy as individual teachers get new insight. He spent much of his time in planning and evaluating the implementation of the plan with different committees that had accepted responsibility for the development of some portion of the school development program. He believed his job was helping others and encouraging go beyond the expected limit of boundary, thinking with them about ways of doing it, assisting them to execute the plans, and evaluating the results with them.

5.4 Observation of the private school principal daily routines

To the researcher, it was very surprising to hear that a private institution owner gives full authority to top level managers. The prior observation perception of the researcher was that the private school principal authority to decide on resource is not better than the government school principal's authority to decide on resources. In the private school, the school principal has been given full authority to hire, to promote, to assign, to reward, to fire teachers and to generate new project ideas to the good of the institution in general and to teachers in particular.

Site observation was conducted in the private school from 6 April to 16 April, 2015. The school principal and vice-principals had specific actions plan for each day; they were highly time-conscious. They supervised four teachers everyday along with department heads and they gave teachers feedback right after supervision. They spent much of their time with teachers and students. They always talked about teaching- learning processes; they were easily approached by the school community. They evaluated the teaching-learning processes, challenges, and achievements with teachers at department level once a month. They

motivated and rewarded “teachers and students of the month” - best performers. Another interesting observation was; the school principal made thought provoking speech twice a week for 3 minutes on different issues at flag ceremony. They spent much of their times helping teachers to share new ideas, experiences, and suggestions for improving students’ learning. The teachers were supported to work together, to seek knowledge, skills and strategies and how to apply this new learning at their work. Collegial relationships among teachers had supportive quality for school improvement efforts; as a result, teachers struggled together in order to answer diverse students’ need.

The school principal and vice-principal cooperated with teachers while making decisions, supported teachers’ struggle that focused on the school’s goals, showed supportive leadership behaviors in areas where teachers needed support and rewarded for innovative teachers’ actions.

The school principal and vice principals were guided by well-defined daily work plan. The school principal led the flag ceremony every day from Monday to Friday. He supervised teachers on Monday, Tuesday and Thursday from 8:25 A.M. to 12 A.M. and gave feedback of the supervision from 2:00 – 4 P.M. On Wednesdays he discussed with department heads on different issues. On Fridays from 8:25 to 12:00 A.M. he checked the weekly lesson plan and put his seal and signature on it. In the afternoon he wrote the weekly report and submitted to the owner of the school. The vice-principal for Teachers’ Development supervised teachers on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Thursdays along with the principal and department heads. On Wednesdays he discussed with teachers and clubs’ leaders and on Fridays he checked the weekly lesson plans of teachers. The vice-principal for students’ affairs supervised teachers along with the school principal and the other vice- principal on Mondays, Tuesdays and Thursdays. On Wednesdays he discussed with classroom representatives and checked the quality of examinations of the different grade levels with department heads. On Fridays he visited the school’s library, science laboratories, and computer rooms and discussed with the heads of these sections. Although they used specific work schedules, their offices were open for teachers the whole days.

Chapter Six: Principals and Teachers' Perceptions of OL

6.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with presentation, analysis, discussion and interpretation of the data collected from school principals, vice-principals and teachers. The research project is designed to explore the school principals' and teachers' perceptions and experiences of organizational learning through qualitative case study in two secondary schools (one government and one private). There were five research questions that framed and directed this study. The first research question was that: *How do secondary school principals and teachers perceive the concept of OL and its importance?* This question explored the ways the principals and teachers understand the concept OL and its importance in improving the teaching-learning process.

The second question was: *How do school principals motivate teachers for OL?* This research question investigated the strategies the school principals used in inspiring teachers for OL. Furthermore, it explored the perceptions of teachers regarding the conduciveness of the schools' culture for OL, the principals' dedication in facilitating and modeling teachers' learning, the school principals' commitment to manage their time to work with teachers, and how the newly employed teachers are supported by the school principals and also by senior teachers.

The third question was: *What are the major strategies for OL in the selected schools?* Some school-based teachers' learning strategies that were employed in the government and the private school were identified by the study. The fourth question was: *What are the major barriers/prospects to OL?* The prevailing major obstacles/opportunities for organizational learning within the schools' setting were studied based on the teachers' perceptions.

The fifth question: *What are the similarities and differences between the government and the private school in leading teachers for OL?* This research question identified the institutional leaning strategies, the major similarities, differences and the implications in relation to OL in the government and private school. In short, these research questions were designed to explore how the case schools' principals and teachers conceptualized OL and its'

significance and how the school principals led the schools to create a conducive learning settings and how they facilitated situations to help teachers to become teacher – learners, to identify potential obstacles or prospects to OL and the similarities and differences in exercising school-based teachers’ learning.

6.2 Principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of OL and its importance

Human action is governed by an individual’s own thinking and understanding. Thus, for this study, it was important exploring the principals’ and vice – principals’ perceptions of organizational learning and why organizational learning is important for secondary school teachers.

6.2.1 The government school principal and vice-principals perceptions of OL

The government school principal and vice-principals viewed OL as a process of constructing new knowledge at a group or organization level; updating the obsolete subject matter knowledge and art of teaching; generating together many original solutions to school problems and introducing radical changes in thinking and acting. These views were reflected in the Principal’s and Vice-Principals’ interview responses as follows:

“Organizational learning is the process of collective knowledge development. It is the process through which the staff members together construct new knowledge and update their knowledge” (P1).

Organizational learning was defined by the Vice- Principal for Teaching Learning Process:

“It is a process of creating joint commitment to understand new learning demands and issues in education and generating together feasible and novel solutions to school problems (P2).

The Vice- Principal for Teachers’ Professional Development conceptualized the concept and the levels of learning in the following way:

“Organizational learning is a far-reaching change in thinking and action at a system level. Thus, organizational learning is a planned change to reinforce teachers’ teaching capacity more and more” (P3).

The government school principal and vice – principals’ insights of organizational learning seem similar. They highlighted in their definitions that OL is a process aims at developing new knowledge, refreshing the existing understanding of the subject matter and searching new solutions to teaching learning related problems. A participant also indicated in his response learning takes place at three levels: individual, group and school level.

6.2.2 Private school principal and vice – principals perceptions of OL

The private school Principal and Vice –Principals defined the concept ‘OL’ in similar ways. All of them emphasized in their definitions, as ‘OL’ is a process, a collective action and its purpose is to attain organizational goals.

The school Principal of the private school viewed the concept as follows:

“Organizational learning is a process that leads to shared understanding among teachers to achieve the required school goals” (P21).

Similarly, the Vice – Principal for Teachers’ Professional Development said:

“Organizational learning can be defined as a way of learning together in order to ensure continuous school improvement” (P22).

The Vice – Principal for Teaching Learning Process, conceptualized OL as:

“A process of consistent search for new knowledge and pedagogical skills and also a mechanism of creating shared understanding among all staff members” (P23).

The responses obtained from the interview indicate that the government and the private school principals and vice- principals have similar understanding of the concept of ‘OL’. According to their responses, it is a mechanism of establishing a common ground that helps as a prerequisite for achieving the school’s goals, and it is understood as a process of continually adding new knowledge and skill through sharing inter-subjective interpretation of the world.

6.3 The government school principals and teachers perceptions of the ‘how’ of OL

Learning is a lifelong process. No one can ever know everything. Thus, school principals and teachers are required to be life-long learners, open to new ideas; because teaching methods, teaching strategies, technology and curricula are constantly changing. As educators, teachers are expected to learn about these changes if they are to be prepared to meet the needs of all students. It is also important for teachers to read new research findings, collaborate with colleagues, communicate with parents and students, join professional organizations, and reflect on their own actions.

6.3.1 The school principal and vice –principals perceptions of the why of OL

The government school’s Principal and the two Vice- Principals had similar insights and they underlined the importance of OL in updating teachers’ subject matter knowledge and in improving the art of teaching.

The school principal feels:

“Teachers should get the opportunity to continuous learning in order to have collective understanding, and by doing so they can upgrade their knowledge and skills; otherwise their knowledge will be obsolete within a few years” (P 1).

The Vice-Principal for Teachers’ Professional Development emphasizes:

“School-based learning is very important for teachers to learn and develop new skills and to exchange best pedagogical skills” (VP2).

The Vice-Principal for Teaching and Learning Process confirmed that many teachers do not want to continue with the teaching profession, because the salary is not attractive and the work environment is not good. According to the observation of the government school Vice-Principal, many of young teacher are more interested in studying lucrative field of studies such as: Accounting, Engineering, Business Administration, Economics and Management in order to change their profession; thus, they are too busy to share ideas with their colleagues. Those teachers that are between (30- 40 ages) are also too busy because they usually give tutorial to the well-to-do children after the regular school hours. The Vice- Principal for

Teachers' Professional Development also shares the observation of the vice-principal for teaching learning process:

“Many young teachers are de-motivated to acquire new domains of knowledge and skills in teaching rather they are interested in acquiring new knowledge in business – oriented professions. Many teachers do not have time to share new ideas and to learn from each other” (VP 2).

The knowledge and skill that learned in colleges cannot serve as a passport to solve the current social, economic, environmental and political problems that our world is facing; thus everybody needs to add new knowledge and skills to live a better life social and physical world. This demands high commitment to learn all the time. All participants agreed that in order to satisfy the learning needs of the young generation, teachers are required to be life – long learners. The school principal and the vice-principal for teachers' professional development perceptions correspond with educational literature. For example, Malone and Tulbert (1996) argued:

“As we approach the 21st century teachers face an increasing pressure from all sides, they can no longer afford to ignore the development of personal and professional effectiveness skills along with subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills” (p.47).

Thus, teachers as professionals need to keep abreast of new development, extend their expertise and acquire new experiences to satisfy students' learning needs and parents' expectations.

6.3.2 The government school teachers' perceptions of the why and how of OL

Teachers presented clearly their views of why and how of organizational learning. All the interviewees touched in their explanations the basic assumptions of organizational learning; they brought into light the importance of organizational learning in developing teachers' teaching capacity. This was clearly reflected in the responses of the participants.

Three teachers from the government school reflected their perceptions of the 'why' and the 'how' of organizational learning:

“I have understood the importance of organizational learning as a quest for continual development, as an energizer of professional growth by mastering the required knowledge and pedagogical skills” (T 11).

“Through organizational learning we can learn much from each other. We learn more through shared efforts, by questioning obsolete assumptions and by sharing new information about teaching practices” (T13).

“OL helps improve the teaching and learning process and that can be achieved by building a strong learning community” (T 8).

Another teacher remarked:

“We need collective knowledge to deliver quality educational services that have true value for all students. I think that is possible through sustainable organizational learning” (T4).

A teacher has come to the conclusion that most teachers including him have been highly dependent on the already established knowledge and skills rather than searching for new understanding. He also reported the existing reality in his school as follows:

“Frankly speaking, almost all teachers including myself, heavily depend on what we learned in colleges some years ago; we are not committed to share new ideas and experiences in teaching” (T12).

The above interviews’ response indicates that the government school teachers have good insight of the why and the how of school- based learning. The school principal and vice-principals were asked the why and the how of OL but they limited their responses more to the importance of OL. The teachers’ insight of OL shows that they do not distance themselves from reading the current literatures and research findings.

As the teachers stated, OL is helpful to advance teachers’ subject matter knowledge and pedagogical wisdom, to share new knowledge with colleagues, to improve the old teaching

practices, to search new ways of sustaining professional development, to maximize collective knowledge, and ultimately to deliver quality educational service to students.

It seems also important to know that organizational learning is important not only to generate fresh knowledge and skills; but also important to question the relevance of the existing knowledge and practices, because some classical knowledge can serve better than new once in some circumstances or it can serve as a building block for new knowledge. A learner-teacher does not blindly accept all knowledge as important; rather he continually questions and evaluates the worth of the new as well as the old knowledge in the school system.

6.4 Private school principals and teachers perceptions of the why of OL

The private school principal and the two vice- principals gave high emphasis as their counterparts in the government school to the importance of OL in improving the teachers' subject matter knowledge and teaching skills.

6.4.1 The principal and vice-principals' perceptions of the why of OL

The school Principal and Vice-Principals suggested that teachers are expected to be competitive if they are to earn their means of living; teachers are also required to answer the learning demand of students to live up to the expectations of the parents.

The school Vice- Principal for Teachers' Professional Development viewed the why of OL from two interrelated dimensions. The first dimension is that having dependable subject matter knowledge to address adequately students' learning needs and the second dimension is that OL is one of the mechanisms in enhancing teachers' pedagogical skills:

“Today what matters is being competitive. Thus, teachers are required to improve their knowledge in order to satisfy the learning needs of students. School- based learning is one of the options to gain practical knowledge” (P22).

The Vice- Principal for Teaching Learning Process shares the opinion of the Vice- Principal for Teachers' Professional Development regarding the why of OL:

“Parents assume that teachers have rich knowledge and skills to shape and cultivate their children's behaviors and cognitive development. Thus, if teachers are to live up

the parents' expectation, continuous and consistent OL is very important for teachers” (VP23).

The Vice Principal for Teaching and Learning Process raised some challenges from students' side and recommended some possible solutions:

Naturally, most children are inquisitive and they are interested to ask questions that range from silly to complex whether teachers are knowledgeable or not about the issue in question. Thus, not to be challenged by silly questions, teachers should exchange always new knowledge at their work place. Thus, the teacher must be professionally competent, responsible, tolerant, and respectful to students. This is possible where a school made OL a culture” (VP 23).

The private school Principal and Vice- Principals had similar view on the values of organizational learning. They have shared a common concern that emphasize teachers should be life-long learners, because of the dynamic nature of knowledge in general and parents' expectations and students' high learning needs in particular.

6.4.2 Private school teachers' perception of the importance of OL

It is difficult for organizations to survive without learning and improving the ways they do and provide their services to their customers. Learning schools can survive and function well. Teachers' learning ability refers to their desire and willingness to learn and improve the teaching profession. The role of school principals in this regard is to create an open and adaptive school culture where individual and group learning are regularly exercised. Teachers can learn from their past successes and even from failures, from their colleagues, and from the world they live in. Teachers can develop new concepts and new ways of doing teaching. All the teachers interviewed attested that school-based learning is an appropriate strategy to update teachers' knowledge and pedagogical skills and ultimately to maximize students learning and performance. The following teachers' statements more illuminate the why and the how of OL:

“Mere qualification cannot be a guarantee for successful teaching; thus as a team we need to be life-long learners to address the diversified needs of students' learning” (T26).

“There is no short-cut to greater school effectiveness. Thus, teachers are required to new pedagogy to be at the top of their profession. For the real existence of organizational learning, there must be strong collaboration among teachers and between teachers and school principal” (T24).

“Schools need to be transformed into learning organization to improve students’ learning and improving students’ learning depends mainly on teachers’ knowledge and art of teaching” (T29).

“Teachers should get adequate time and conducive physical and social environment to learn and develop their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills in a continuous way at their work place” (T32).

“Teachers’ academic knowledge and pedagogical skills bring strong positive impacts on students learning and on shaping students’ behaviors; thus, teachers’ continuous and context-based learning is absolutely important” (T33).

“Teachers at all levels are required to be life-long learners; because the knowledge they acquired yesterday at colleges may not serve the new demand and situations” (T35).

“Real organizational learning is very important; because it gives an opportunity for teachers to question long-held assumptions about teaching” (T34).

The above presented qualitative responses clearly reveal that the teachers believed that OL is absolutely indispensable for teachers in order to update their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills, even to be competitive in labor market, to satisfy the diversified students’ learning needs, to sharpen students’ behavior, to serve the demand of the parents and to shake the deep-rooted status quo about teaching.

Although participants from government and private schools share many similar ideas, the insights of private school teachers about the importance of OL seems more abstract and comprehensive compared to the government school teachers' perceptions. In addition to the development of knowledge and skill, they added the 'attitude' dimension of learning. Furthermore, their perceptions clearly indicated that the private school teachers are more conscious of the concepts diversity and change. This implies that they have deeper understanding about the subject matter of the study than their counterparts.

In relation to the teachers' view of the importance of OL, Fenstermacher and Berliner (1985:15) have remarked the necessity of OL as follows:

Staff development is not the same as the in-service education of earlier decades. In earlier times, teachers were typically thought to have the primary responsibility for their own renewal, reading what they believed most helpful, taking such courses as they thought valuable for their work, and attending clinics and workshops that promised to increase their capacity to instruct. Thus, teachers should learn how to work together rather than operating teaching in closed classroom doors. Staff development has become an activity that encompasses much more than a single teacher acting as an individual. Individual members of staff are vital in developing school, but their ability to work in collaboration is more vital (P.15).

Therefore, schools should not limit themselves to transmitting the already established and outdated knowledge. They are required to renew themselves continuously to satisfy the stakeholders' present and future needs into consideration. They are expected to make their schools the place where new knowledge and pedagogical arts are germinated.

6.5 Summary

The government and private school principals, vice-principals and teachers have similar understanding of the importance of organizational learning. Without exception, all the teachers, principals and vice-principals the researcher interviewed, emphasized the importance of OL in improving teachers' subject matter knowledge and skills, in boosting teachers' confidence in teaching, and ultimately in satisfying the learning needs of students.

The participants' perception about the role of organizational learning can be summarized as follows: It was suggested that if schools want to be successful in their teaching responsibility, either government or private owned, they need to develop a culture of learning from each other. It was also highly emphasized by the government and private school principals and teachers "context-based" learning is indispensable to bring together the diversified knowledge and skills of teachers and to provide quality education to students.

Chapter Seven: Teachers' perceptions of the relevance of the OL and some strategies of OL

7.1 Introduction

Every organization has its own way of learning. There is no single and universally accepted way of learning for any organization; schools are not exceptional, because the situation varies from school to school. This chapter discusses the schools' social and physical environments that enhance or hinder new knowledge and skill exchange among teachers in the government and private school. In the government school there are seven OL strategies, although they are not as active as they are expected. These learning strategies are: continuous professional development (CPD), staff meeting, action research, study group, induction, within the school visit, and supervision.

7.2 OL strategies in the government school

It was reported that in the studied government school there are seven identified approaches to school level learning of teachers. It is clearly indicated in the MOE teachers' professional development document that CPD and induction are mandatory. Participating in monthly staff meetings, conducting action research, taking part in study group, induction, observing others class and giving supervision support to junior teachers are required for career development in government schools. Although there are many learning strategies in the government school, they are given low attention and mismanaged by the school leaders.

7.3 Continuous professional development (CPD)

The teachers in the government school acknowledged the possible contributions of CPD to teachers' development; but they complained its quality. Almost all the participants of the government school strongly complained that the prevailing teachers' CPD program considers mainly the need and interests of the official at different hierarchies rather than teachers' needs and interests. They felt that it was an imposition from the 'the above'; they criticized that teachers' representatives were not participated in the designing of teachers' continuous professional development; it was not also research- based and it did not help to generate new knowledge to solve the problems on the ground. Besides, according to their view; it was shallow and not helpful in improving the teachers' knowledge and skills gap and it did not bring the required quality professional development. According to the participant's view,

teachers were told what to learn, how to learn, by an outsider who know little about the learning needs of the teachers, by those who know little about the realities in school.

Although the researcher tried to have insights on how CPD is going on in the school, they were not interested to share their experiences rather they preferred to focus on its limitations. The researcher was shocked and surprised because it was contrary to his expectation.

Many teachers have developed strong negative perceptions about the current CPD and its implementations. All teachers that were interviewed felt the same about its importance and limitations. For example, a teacher agreed to the purpose of CPD in updating teachers' subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills but he never accepted the quality of the existing CPD and the way it has been implementing in his school:

“The purpose of teachers’ continuous professional development is good; but its contents are shallow and its implementation is superficial, thus, it has been less effective and too short-lived to lead teachers to the real professional development” (T11).

He further added:

“Since 2005 there has been teachers’ continuous professional development program that was imposed from the Federal Ministry of Education, but, it hasn’t added anything new to my prior knowledge and skill” (T11).

Likewise, another senior teacher pointed out:

“There is a wide gap between teachers’ learning needs and CPD contents. The existing CPD is not planned in a way that it enhances teachers’ professional capacity to solve the real problems on the ground” (T5).

A teacher remarked:

“Contents and approaches of teachers’ professional development programs should not be designed by official authorities working at top levels if it is to improve the teaching learning process” (T6).

In a similar vein, another teacher reflected his view and also suggested the reason why teachers resisted taking part in CPD program as follows:

“Logically, teachers’ continuous professional development program should not be something that is designed and given by the official leaders for other members of the staff. I think that is why teachers always question and resist its implementation” (T8).

He also further expressed with high emotion his feeling towards the existing CPD program:

“We don’t need the outsiders (experts from MOE) coming to tell us how to run our professional learning businesses” (T8).

Another teacher criticized:

“School principals and other top level educational authorities have usually made grave mistake of assuming that it is always their managerial job to design the details of teachers’ professional development contents. Such an assumption makes clear to the staff that the principal and top officials consider them-selves better than teachers” (T20).

Still another teacher commented that teachers’ needs should be considered and CPD has to be designed at school level in order to ensure the participation of teachers if it is to solve the real problems teachers are facing in their respective schools:

“Staff voice should be heard by school principals and officials that are working at different levels of the organizational hierarchies. If all staff members get an opportunity to be heard and to design continuous professional development at their respective schools, they may start to work together (T15).

Another teacher substantiated the idea of teacher 15 by arguing that CPD should not be one-size- fits-all; rather it has to consider the unique context of the school and the reality at the grass root level:

“If we think and work together, a feeling of friendship and unity can emerge and it is possible to make or generate solutions to the problems that schools have been facing in the teaching learning process” (T 18).

It seems that the school teachers were not interested in assimilating or absorbing the knowledge that comes from outside or “from the above”, rather they were more interested in generative knowledge that emerges or comes into view from the inside (generates at school level). Based on the above interviews responses, it is possible to conclude that although CPD is supposed as one of the strategies to enhance OL; it is not used effectively in the government school in a way it can enhance OL.

The top-down design of CPD program created a feeling of exclusion with teachers. This was well illustrated through interviews with teachers who complained that they are the people who know what is happening on the ground, but they have never been consulted. According to their opinion, the teachers should be involved right from the start of the program.

Likely, the problems that were raised by teachers emanated from lack of appropriate professional leadership. According to the researcher’s understanding and experience, the room is not absolutely closed to adapt the national CPD program in a way it can more contribute to teachers’ development and school improvement. In fact, it demands much time and being risk taker and innovative in thinking to convince the policy makers with logical justifications why the modification is important in the current CPD content and implementation approaches.

In contrary to the teachers’ view, the study conducted by World Bank states that good CPD plans exist in Ethiopia, but effective implementation remains the challenge (World Bank, 2013). The researcher shares the teachers’ view in designing CPD. Although the basic concern remains the same, the specifics differ from time to time, school to school, group to group and person to person. Schools are all similar, but each is unique.

7.3.1 Staff meeting

Staff meeting can serve as one of the strategies for school - based teachers' learning if it is designed and managed appropriately. It is assumed that if school principals encourage newly employed teachers speak up all what they have in their minds at staff and department meetings and protect them from any negative criticism, newly employed teachers can build a

confidence of asking questions, making comments or suggestions. This approach can help them as confidence building vitamin and as confidence deficiency removing medicine.

Staff meeting may improve the teaching quality of a staff and the school program. It may provide also an opportunity for cooperative thinking; it may help exchange of new ideas, best practices, all of which result in professional development of the staff members.

Some of the participants from the government school thought the contributions of staff meetings were low for securing new ideas about better teaching; they felt as they do not have meaningful roles in setting up staff meetings. There was a mixed feeling about staff meetings with the teachers. Many teachers criticized that staff meetings belong to school principal and a few senior teachers and that was imposing on their time. A few teachers reported that the staff meeting has been helpful to teachers in viewing the same issue from different angles.

A teacher criticized:

“The staff meeting is consisted entirely of a talk by the school principal, vice-principals and senior teachers that usually includes the announcements that the school management team consider important” (T11).

Likewise, another teacher voiced a similar view:

“I have come to expect nothing new from staff meetings and I wait impatiently for each meeting to end” (T13).

Another teacher agreed with his colleagues complains and commented that the agendas for staff meetings are expected to address the interest of the school administration and the interests of the teachers:

“The agenda for staff meetings should be developed by the total staff, with each member, on equal basis if we are to address our common purpose” (T10).

On that point, at least teacher 4 was the first to agree the contribution of staff meeting to OL:

“I have learned from the staff meeting different communication skills and multiple world view of individuals” (T4).

In supporting the view of teacher 4, a teacher said:

“I like very much the staff meeting; because I have learned different viewpoints about the same issue. It is one way learning from each other; I benefited much from the staff meeting” (T9).

7.3.2 Action research

Action research can inspire teachers to identify limitations and obstacles to students’ learning and to know in depth about the profession; it opens the door for teachers to discuss on the challenges they have faced while teaching and it helps them to solve problems in a systematic and scientific way.

Boyer (1990:57) emphasizes the importance of action learning by saying that “as teachers become researchers they become learners”. This implies that when the teachers “become learners” OL become sustainable. Nixon (1981:9) also said that “Action research serves primarily to sharpen perceptions, stimulate discussion, and energize questioning.” After becoming involved in conducting research, teachers become more critical, questioning their own beliefs and the assertions on others (Neilsen, 1990). According to the participants’ responses action research was done simply for the sake of doing research in the government school but the school did not benefit from the potential contribution of action research.

The government school teachers were conscious of the role of action research in solving problems and this was reflected in teachers’ responses. The teachers criticized the school administration for not supporting and encouraging teachers’ attempts in conducting action research:

“Although action research is a means to learn in depth about teaching learning process there is no system and culture of evaluating the contribution of action research in solving chronic problems and in improving the teaching-learning process” (T13).

In a teacher’s view:

“Teachers do action research only to deserve career promotion not to solve the real problems of the school” (T9).

Another teacher explained his dissatisfaction:

“Although some teachers are doing action researches with the purpose of solving classroom-based practical problems, they are not supported and encouraged by the school administration to do more” (T11).

In many cases research is carried out simply for the sake of conducting research not to use properly the outcome of the study for problem solving purpose. A teacher protested the importance of conducting action research at secondary school level by criticizing the poor utilization of research outputs that were studied by professional researchers. He reflected clearly his position on the relevance of action research as follows:

“There is no need of conducting action research at secondary school level. Conducting research at secondary school seems superficial. In this country, let alone the findings of novice researchers, the findings of the professional researchers are remained on the shelf” (T15).

Each of us interprets the world about us in a unique way. Involvement in action research can help us view our professional role open-mindedly. As Carson (1990:172) explains, “Action research requires openness to our own experiences and the experience of others, putting aside dogmatic arguments and preconceived opinions.” Increased understanding about ourselves in relation to the world around us opens the path to clearer, more honest relationships with our professional colleagues.

The researcher was told while the interview session that action research is not functional as it is required in the school. Action research is one of the required skills that enhance teachers’ professional development, but the responses obtained from the government school shows that there is no system that encourages action research and also the culture of using the output of action research is not yet developed.

7.3.3 Study group

Teachers that are teaching in the government school are organized into study groups that comprise five members; but a few teachers came together once a week and discussed on

selected issues that are related to the teaching learning process and evaluate the students' progress and performance. I asked two senior teachers why a few teachers are participated in the study group. They said that it is introduced not for academic purpose but for political mission; it is to control teachers the way the government wants.

The school principal and vice-principals confirmed that the study group gives the teachers an opportunity to share different information and experiences. The size of the study group is small, thus all group members have an opportunity to discuss and critically reflect on their teaching practices.

Regarding the advantage of the study group a teacher said:

“First, we decide what we need to focus on; then, we invite a colleague whom we believe he has dependable knowledge and strong skills in the area we interested in to discuss” (T10).

Another teacher stated:

“Occasionally, we jointly read the available educational research journals and reflect on it and we share new concepts in our field of specialization with all the department members” (T 13).

Since there is no one best way of learning, searching for new ways of updating the subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills through study group can serve as one of the strategies in enhancing OL.

7.3.4 Induction of the newly employed teacher

Teacher induction can be conceptualized as a formal program for novice teachers of guided entry into the profession of teaching; a period of socialization and enculturation into the norms and practices of the teaching profession. The main purpose of induction program of the new teacher is to create a feeling of confidence in him; because the first few days on any new job are trying days that test the self-confidence of the teacher. Induction helps not only for newly employed teachers but also it is helps those teachers who transferred from other schools. Even though the teacher has been successful in his/her a previous job, he may have a

question in his mind how to be able to achieve the same success in a new school, because systems vary from school to school; because he faces new people, new types of students and new working conditions that require new patterns.

In relation to the importance of induction a teacher remarked:

“The principal should take personal responsibility for introducing not only for novice teacher, but also new teacher to the school, not to the profession” (T 14).

Almost all newly qualified teachers in the government participated in this study. These teachers felt that they were not treated as novice teachers rather they were discouraged and made confused. This is clearly elucidated in their responses as follows:

“As a new employee, I need relevant information. For example, the length of the school day, when I am expected to arrive, how long I should remain after school, but all this basic information is not accessible to new teachers” (T 7).

Novice teachers are usually advised by senior teachers and school principal to put out of their minds all the theories they had learned in college by justifying as it doesn't work in schools; thus, they are frustrated and confused” (T18).

“The school principal is added to the difficulty of getting started by pointing out mistakes that the newly employed teacher is making (T14).

“The school situation for newly employed teachers is a kind of “swim or sink” atmosphere. As new teachers come with new ideas, senior teachers often discourage from moving forward with new ideas by saying that ‘we have tried that before and it didn't work” (T 17).

“Senior teachers discourage new teachers from trying new teaching methods; they are reluctant to coach newly employed teachers and to demonstrate good practice” (T20).

Another teacher narrated his bad memories of the past years as follows:

“I started teaching job three years ago. When I was a beginner teacher, I had been told by one of the senior teacher as my opinion was worthless. As a result, I feel that if I say something I will probably look foolish. I always assume that the others in the group know more than I. As a consequence, I usually isolated myself to hide my ignorance” (T13).

He further added:

“I don’t make any suggestions and ask questions, because I still worry about looking foolish. I have no self-confidence to speak up at every professional conference, committee or department meetings” (T13).

According to the responses of the newly qualified teachers, it seems that the school principal and senior teachers were not able to keep their personal feelings under control and were not sensitive to the feelings of new teachers. It has to be clear that when a new teacher is suspicious of others and their actions, when the new teacher wastes a large portion of his time trying to guess the unknown intention that underline the action of others, when he views actions of others as threats to him, he shows his insecurity. If he is insecure, afraid, or suspicious, he decreases the strengths of the group of which he is a part, rather than giving support and hope.

Huling-Austin, et al., (1986) stated that teacher induction programs create strong relationship between novice teachers and mentors. Making to work together novice teachers and support teachers is the most powerful and cost-effective aspect of induction programs. Similarly, Yosha (1991) argued that a well- designed and well- implemented teacher induction programs facilitates the program of positive attitudes toward teaching; contribute to the retention of teachers; improve professional skills and increase teachers’ effectiveness.

A sense of insecurity for the beginning teacher (T18) was created by the school principals’ remarks that belittle the theory of teaching. Such negative remarks may have great potential in preventing committed teachers from trying new ideas. As a result, new teachers may not feel welcomed and develop feelings of isolation; it may also destroy the desire of new

teachers to be creative; decrease new teachers' motivation and commitment to learning and teaching. When a principal disregards the points of view of any members of his staff, he decreases the possibility of taking them along with the program that is being developed. But when he brings them into thinking, he secures their commitment to the promotion of the new idea.

The newly employed teachers were discouraged by veteran teachers. New teachers expect welcome support and encouragement from the experienced teachers, but the reality in the government school was contrary to their expectation. They complained that they lost self-confidence because of the discouraging behavior of the senior teachers.

It seems important for school principals to create a welcome environment (culture) for new teachers where they feel safe to try new ideas, share practice and discuss problems; because new teacher expect welcome, support and encouragement from experienced teachers. In the studied government school, the newly employed teachers found senior teachers criticizing new ideas and discouraging them from moving forward with new ideas. They did not feel successful, welcomed, and had feelings of isolation. This criticism can decrease new teachers' motivation and commitment to teaching and learning.

7.3.5 Within the school visit

Developing the culture of within the school visits constitute a type of knowledge that promotes OL. This is possible when teachers want to observe other teachers at work and are willing to be observed by other teachers. Within the school classroom visits are helpful to learn from each other and to exchange new teaching approaches. A few teachers were active in visiting their colleagues' classroom. The school principal confirmed:

“The majority of the teachers don't want to observe; they can't find time to observe and they are unwilling to be observed.” (P1).

Not only the school principal but also a teacher witnessed that the majority of the school teachers were not happy to share new knowledge with their colleagues:

“I usually visit the department head's class with the purpose of improving my teaching skills when I am free. I learned from him how to give feedbacks to students, how to

manage disruptive class, how to conduct classroom-based student assessments. It is possible to learn much more, but the problem is that many of the school teachers are not willing to share their knowledge and skill” (T9).

Teachers can learn much by observing their colleagues’ classes, by inviting other teachers to observe their classes and comment their teaching and by receiving timely feedback from supervisors and department heads. It is supposed that peer observation can inspire teachers to discuss common and chronic school problems. It is also important to establishing culture of trust among teachers in order to be benefited from the potential advantage of within the school visits.

7.3.6 Classroom supervision

The major purpose of conducting supervision is to facilitate conditions and to exchange good experiences to enhance teachers’ professional learning and to search the best alternative ways of addressing the needs of individual students; it is to improve the way of teaching; it is not to discourage teachers by exaggerating the weaknesses of teachers; instead, it is encouraging teachers to discuss the existing problems with full freedom, and to inspire them to be the part of the solution.

It seems that in the government school the concepts ‘supervision and inspection’ were used for different purposes in the same ways. The responses obtained from teachers show that many of the government school teachers have already developed negative attitude toward supervision; some of their perceptions about supervision were quoted and presented as follows:

For example, a teacher complained:

“In this school supervision is for fault- finding and for teachers’ performance appraisal. Thus, it restricts the improvement of teaching” (T15).

Another teacher remarked:

“Supervision without rating improves instruction if it is a cooperative undertaking by teacher and principal. In this school, supervision is mainly for a rating purpose” (T9).

Another teacher stated:

“Although supervision is a technique for securing a basis for analysis of the specifics with which the teacher desires help; it is highly misused by the school’s administration” (T11).

A teacher stated two points of dissatisfactions about classroom supervision in his school. These were sudden visit of classroom by the school administrator and expecting always perfection from teachers without committing any error:

“The vice-principal suddenly appears in the classrooms as a spy. He always applies tight control over the teachers and students and he never tolerates mistakes” (T6).

He added:

“As a result, the importance of classroom observation is ignored by many teachers because of the ways in which it has been used. In fact, its misuse has done more to discredit the purpose of supervision” (T6).

Likewise, another teacher described his principal's hidden inspection when he had been a beginning teacher eight years ago in another school as follows:

“Instead of coming into my room and observing my teaching, the school principal sat in a small first-aid room next to my class and listened to how I presented the lesson to the class. When I realized the situation, I felt frustrated and disappointed” (T4).

The participants’ responses showed that in the government school, supervision was not used according to its primary objectives; it was used as inspection. This finding is similar with the earlier studies. Recent studies depict that inspection-oriented supervision and incompetent supervisors create depressing attitude and a sense of frustration toward supervision (Choy, et al., 2011). The objective of supervision is not to discourage teachers but to help teachers to see the superior vision in their profession. Teachers grow as they try new way of doing teaching and as they evaluate its results. If a principal is effective as a supervisor, teachers get more opportunity to try more new things than they were a year ago. If a principal as a supervisor is not effective, more teachers will have discontinued their search for better ways

of teaching and will tend to follow lesson plans and procedures that they developed several years ago.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) argue that the primary tasks of supervisors should be ensuring that the ultimate goal of supervision is to develop the capacity of teachers in leading the teaching learning process. To reinforce this point, Tesfaw and Hofman, (2012: 14) state “supervision is effective when the interest of supervisors is focused on building the capacity of supervisees, giving them the freedom they need to practice successfully, and making them responsible for helping students to be effective learners”. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) argue that good feelings and happiness of teachers toward instructional supervision mainly rely on the existence of good relationships between teachers and supervisors. Validating this point Kutsyuruba (2003) states novice teachers need a supervision that creates a trusting atmosphere.

According to the responses of the teachers, the government school principal and the vice principal made the beginning teachers insecure and eroded their self- confidence. Uninformed inspection may lead to distrust and can harm supervisor-teacher relationships. If principals are to be effective in their supervisory roles, establishing friendly environment has to be the first priority. According to the data obtained from interviews, the teacher-supervisor relationship was characterized by attempts to control the teachers; the school management cared a little about teacher’s feelings. In the government school CPD, staff meeting, action research, supervision, within the school visits, study group and induction were supposed as strategies for OL. According to the respondents’ view among these OL strategies study group was the only functional and effective OL approaches, the rest are nominal.

The major message that can be found in the teachers’ response was that there is no well-established school- embedded learning culture in the government school. It is supposed that organization-based learning culture is the major driving force for professional learning. In a school where collective learning is established teachers get an opportunity to learn how to improve their teaching, apply new knowledge and skills in the classroom, refine new practice through self-reflection and feedback, share new teaching practice with others how to improve

their teaching through demonstrations, workshops and presentations, assist novice teachers to implement and refine new knowledge and skills.

7.4 OL strategies in the private school

The approaches the private school used for OL is different from the government school to some extent. The major approaches that were used for OL by the private school were staff meeting, examinations of student work, case discussions, peer-observation, lesson study, inter-school visits, induction, and classroom supervision. The participants reported that these learning strategies are implemented across the system to enhance teachers' professional development and to improve the students learning outcomes. The private school did not use the CPD documents that were designed at national level. The school principal said "It is the duplication of the abstract theories that we learned some years ago. Therefore, there is no need of wasting time by revising what is already known".

7.4.1 Staff meeting

The private school administration encourages all staff members to participate in all teaching-learning related issues with full confidence. This was reflected in many teachers' responses.

A teacher feels that teachers have complete right in deciding and re-arranging the agendas to be discussed on the staff meetings:

"We have full right in selecting the problems to be discussed while staff meetings. The school principal does not have the right to put the items he only considers important at the top of the agenda list. Each member of the staff has an opportunity to discuss and make decisions on any part of the agenda items. The staff is free to change the order of items on the agenda at the beginning of a meeting" (T30).

Another teacher sees the staff meetings are instrumental to exchange new ideas and practical skills:

"Almost all the staff meetings in the school have definite plan and goals. Listings of items are made available to the staff prior to the time of the meeting. While staff meeting, we exchange new knowledge and best practices" (T36).

“In my school staff meetings are conducted in a way that different ideas receive equal consideration, regardless of the seniority, gender and age of the person” (T25).

A teacher feels that the staff meetings are managed in democratic ways. The opportunities are wide to discuss diversified views, teachers are free to speak what they have in their minds and there is no bias or favor that based on seniority, gender and age. Every teacher has equal right to advance his educative opinion.

The above data indicate that in the private school, agenda setting was participatory and teachers were informed in advance about the topics of discussion to confirm or reject, to modify and to enrich if it is necessary. This experience has enhanced common commitment and understanding between the teachers and school administration.

7.4.2 Close examination of Student Work

The private school principal reported that the initial idea of ‘examination of student work’ was introduced to the school by one of educated parents; and then after, it was made a part of the school’s work system. The examination of student work is one of the strategies for teachers to investigate the major learning deficiencies of a learner. It is managed by a group of teachers. Teachers that teach the same grade level come together and examine students’ limitations in learning and exchange solution-oriented ideas on each student’s learning problems. Teachers are expected to identify a clear focus for their work and what outcomes they expect. From examination of students’ work, some useful points for discussion can emerge using students’ work that are varied in nature and quality, for example, written work of students can be examined in terms of the logical flow of ideas, evidences used to convince the reader, originality of the idea etc.

In relation to this a teacher said:

“Usually, we collaboratively check students’ effort that helps us to know more how students view learning and it gives us an opportunity to develop appropriate teaching strategies and materials” (T27).

“She further added:

“The discussions help us to identify the concepts that have been understood and misunderstood by our students and to re-plan our lesson in order to achieve the instructional goal” (T27).

In addition to identifying and improving students’ learning drawbacks through examination of students’ work, the teachers played administrative responsibilities in investigating academic cheatings that were committed by students and they suggested strategies in controlling academic dishonesty. In relation to this a teacher reported:

There were times when the school faced challenging problems, for example, cheating in examinations, students’ deficiencies in learning Mathematics. In such cases, the school principal organized a case examination/investigation team to come up with fresh findings and recommendations to diminish cheating in examinations and to improve students’ capacity in learning mathematics. Such challenges gave me a good chance to think and learn together with my colleagues as a group member” (T24).

Continuous inspection of student work was not reported in the government school but it is a culture in the private school. It gives direct and complete feedback to the subject teachers if they are successful or not in their teaching.

7.4.3 Case discussions

The private school principal explained that ‘case discussions’ provide teams of teachers with an opportunity to reflect on teaching and learning. According to the principal’s report, the teachers come together to discuss new knowledge or issue if it is supposed pertinent to their actual work before they implement in the classroom.

A Geography teacher explained the importance of case discussion in improving the teachers’ reflective and analytical thinking:

“In my department, case discussion is a culture; it promotes reflective thinking and enhances our ability to describe, analyze and evaluate the effectiveness of our teaching practices in social science subjects. This enriches our collective understanding of our subject matter” (T28).

The researcher was surprised by the school's internal autonomy. All departments have the right to experiment new idea at small scale when they feel important to the good of the school. The teachers reported that the school administration has never intervened in their plan rather it encourages to experiment new ideas. Heterogeneous works are more appreciated, encouraged and recognized by the school administration than homogenous work. The government school is not familiar with this pedagogical approach. There was no evidence on the issue from the school principal as well as from teacher that have participated in the study.

7.4.4 Peer observation

The peer observation brings together novice teachers from the same school or from different schools; thus, it creates chances to network inside and outside schools. During peer observation different kinds of assistant (social, emotional and professional) can be accessible to support the new teacher. The peer system is necessary in creating a safe and sound environment in which participants have the same rank and in which beginning teachers can discover and reflect on similar problems that they have faced. The peer group needs to be based on face-to-face meetings. The peer support system and the mentoring system can have common characteristics when group mentoring is used and the tutor and novices meet in groups to share their experience.

When the number of beginning teachers is large, peer observation can be school specific. In such groups, the experience exchange is easy as all participants work in the same environment. However, when the numbers of beginning teachers are one or two, it would be mandatory visiting teachers from different schools, which can lead to interesting exchanges on diverse teaching approaches in schools. The private school principal reported that peer observation is a culture in his school. From the participants' descriptions, the role of peer observation for the teachers' learning has been reported as follows by different teachers:

“The school principal usually sends newly employed teachers to observe my class. This made me feel good about myself and also my teaching and motivates me to look for new ways to learn more” (T34).

“I always feel free to explore new options, share what I know and learn from both success and failure. I strongly believe that peer observation one of the best mechanisms to learn from colleagues at school level” (T31).

Likewise, a teacher shares his feeling about peer observation:

“I feel motivated and happy each peer observation day to continue to grow and learn from my limitations and to maximize my strengths” (T25).

During the interview session the school principal reported within the school visits are the most frequently used OL approach in the school. The school teachers usually conduct peer observation with the purpose of exchanging experiences and to learn new skills from each other. It seems that the private school teachers come to believe that two minds think more than one mind.

7.4.5 Inter-schools’ visits

Visits to others schools by teachers are parts of organizational learning. Visiting other schools may help to share new knowledge, experience, to question own thinking and to appreciate the ways other teachers are viewing the education world. Besides, it is the easiest and cost effective for new pedagogical skills transfer among schools and teachers.

The private school teachers think that inter-schools’ visits create creates additional learning environments and helps to see retrospectively their prior teaching experiences:

“I got an opportunity to discuss what is observed and learned from the visits that were organized by the school at different times, I asked questions and probed for deeper understanding” (T33).

“Visits of other schools helped me to reexamine my teaching style and my weaknesses. I have learned how to manage classroom and how to motivate slow learners from the visits of other schools” (T24).

A teacher stated that the school administration encourages inter-school visits for two reasons. The primary reason is that to share new knowledge and best experiences from other schools

and the second reason is win the competitors and to have high number of students in the future.

“My school principal always encourages teachers to visit other schools, thinking that sharing new knowledge maximizes the teachers’ capacity to compete with its competitors and ultimately attracts many new students” (T28).

Any type of visit has its own purposes and goals, inter-schools’ visits are not exceptional. If inter-schools’ visits are to be fruitful, school principals are always required to check and make sure that the site that is going to be visited has a unique and best practice before conducting the visit. Teachers are also expected to observe and examine specific teaching practices during the visit and how these practices can be transferred and implemented in their school.

7.4.6 Lesson Study

In the private school, lesson study is one of the approaches for organizational learning. The school principal reported that it helps teachers to prepare lesson plans and develop a deeper understanding of how students learn specific subject matter; a group of teachers who either teach the same grade or the same subject planned “study” lessons together. The lessons specifically have addressed a problem that they have identified and used a technique about which they are informed, but are either untested or unused by them. Having jointly planned the lesson in detail, one person teaches the lesson and the others observe, focusing on the behavior and learning of the “case study” students. The observers seek to compare what the students were predicted to do and learn with what actually happens.

At a post lesson meeting, the group discusses the learning of the case pupils in detail, using their observation notes. A group focuses on improving teaching and pedagogic knowledge regarding a particular aspect of a subject. They do so through group analysis of the specific need students learning and identification of the pedagogic knowledge gaps in their practice. It is designed to enable all teachers in the school to participate in a study group on a problematic area of pupil learning.

The school principal explained the aim of lesson study and how it can be implemented:

“The aim of lesson study is to encourage teachers to share planning skills and to make teachers expert in designing and implementing lesson plans and to strengthen the professional relationships among teachers (P21).

Teacher 31 and teacher 32 share the opinion of the school principal and explained how they plan and implement “lesson study” in their school:

“A small group of English language teachers meet regularly to plan, design, implement, evaluate and refine lessons for a unit of work” (T31).

“Occasionally a member of the team conducts the lesson while other members of the team observe it. The lesson can be modified and may be taught again by another member of the team when it is necessary” (T32).

The teachers’ responses imply that in the private school, the team spirit has been already established, teachers are highly committed to learn from each other, and they have invested much of their time in learning new things to live up to the expectation of the profession.

7.4.7 Induction

After getting higher education degree, all novice teachers are required to undergo one-year induction program. It is a period of introduction to the teaching profession, and it is done with the supervision of a teacher-mentor assigned to the novice teacher. It is believed that the induction procedure increases the opportunity for the new teacher to make new friends with staff members, to make familiar the novice teacher with school social and physical environment, to let him know the school’s rules and regulations and ultimately to build high confidence in planning the lesson and managing the teaching- learning process. Lack of success in induction will prevent the novice teacher from making a maximum contribution in the classroom. Not only the school principal and mentors but also the staff members can contribute too much in helping the new teachers feel at home.

In the private school there is a plan and experience in which a teacher of approximately the same age as the new staff members assists with the induction program. The underlying

assumption of this practice is that new teachers will find it easier to ask someone near their own age the questions that trouble them. There was also another experience in conducting induction program for newly employed teaching staff members. The school principal reported that the school arranges orientation program before the beginning of the new school year for newly employed teachers. Its main objective is to get the new teacher settled and ready for a successful start. The orientation continued throughout a week prior to the opening of the school. It gives a real advantage in helping new staff member gets acquainted with his colleagues and the job. The new employee feels he/she is a part of the working team before he/she meets his/her classes. A 'helping teacher' who has rich experience in teaching and less work load is assigned to the entire group of new teachers. It is the responsibility of this 'helping teacher' and school principals to assist when help is needed. A regularly scheduled meeting was also set for each on Fridays morning before school.

A teacher narrated the socialization process of the newly employed teacher in the private school:

“For a week, a teacher that is new to the school environment is made free from teaching activity because he is required to make familiar himself with the school’s culture, norms, values, basic rules, regulations and work standards in order to be successful in his future work assignments” (T34).

A novice teacher gave recognition to the school principal and senior teachers for their commitment in assisting newly employed teachers to feel happy and to develop confidence:

I was employed as a novice teacher last year. Because of the support I had been given from the school principal and senior teachers, I always feel at home and confident enough to discharge my responsibilities (T36).

Another novice teacher reported the availability of the school principal to him and the extent he shared his personal and professional pains:

“Our school principal usually talks to me genuinely, gives me hope, supports all my efforts, participates me in decision making process and tries to solve my personal as well as profession related problems” (T27).

Teacher 31 validated the idea of teacher 27 saying:

“Our principal shows equal concern for all teachers, takes into account teachers’ emotions, interests and expectations; treats all teachers similarly; establishes an open and friendly work environment” (T31).

Another teacher supported the view of his colleagues by saying:

“Our school principal shares pain of the teachers and he is brave enough to question status quo, unfair policy, rules and regulations that can hurt the feelings of teachers and students” (T30).

A teacher asserted:

“Our principal has transformed individual and team behaviors by employing his leadership competency; some years ago teachers treated each other poorly. By organizing continuous get-together party, he made teachers come closer to achieve the common purpose (T33).”

Still another teacher stated:

“Our school principal is our role-model. He also gives constructive criticisms, explains and justifies also reasons for his criticisms and takes educative action on unacceptable behaviors” (T28).

He added:

“He appreciates and congratulates teachers’ achievements consistently and always encourages teachers to learn from each other” (T28).

It seems that the attempts that were made by the private school had its own limitation and strength. The strength had been that the school administration let knew the novice teachers they are part of the school society, created conducive environment where new and veteran teachers feel comfortable, helped to exchange new ideas that will move the school forward in a positive direction and the school principal ensured his closeness to all staff members in a practical way.

On the other hand, it seems that there is a misconception with the school leadership about teachers' induction. They equate induction to meet the assumed standards, to socialize new teacher simply with the school's social and physical environments, to accomplish the described accountabilities and responsibilities but induction can be moving beyond the existing standards and moving beyond socializing with school's culture, norms and values; it is continually adding new knowledge and skills to the existing one. It might be important thinking that novice teachers come to school with new knowledge, skills and energy, thus; schools are required to tape these fresh resources.

7.4.8 Classroom Supervision

According to the perceptions of the private school teachers, supervision helped teachers to update their knowledge and skills, to understand the curriculum in depth, to know different teaching methods, classroom management and to have new insight of teaching different ability groups in a classroom. The contribution of classroom supervision was reflected in the teachers' responses, for example teacher 26, teacher 29, teacher 32, teacher 33, and teacher 35 highlighted the contribution of supervision in updating teachers' knowledge and teacher 33 gave recognition to the school principal for making supervision one of the major approaches to learn from each other in the school.

“In our school, supervision helps teachers to develop new experiences in the teaching. It encourages teachers to do self-learning to update their professional knowledge, skills and experience” (T26).

“Supervision helps teachers to understand more the curriculum, and to adopt appropriate and varied teaching methods. In our school, it helps teachers to be familiar with modern teaching techniques and methods that are suitable for their pupils” (T29).

“As a result of classroom supervision, I have learned different assessment techniques; how to design effective classroom exercises, how to prepare tests and examinations, how to diagnosing the strengths and weaknesses of students, and how to help students with learning difficulties” (T30).

“The classroom supervision is very helpful to learn practically classroom management techniques. Furthermore, it gives insights of the various ways of considering and teaching pupils with mixed abilities (T32).

He also added:

“Classroom supervision helped me to master the basic skills in dealing with students’ varied behaviors and showed me different methods to assist pupils to overcome their learning difficulties” (T32).

In the private school, according to the interviewees’ responses, the school principal was effective in exercising his leadership roles and management functions. He had an overall picture of what have to be done; he had theoretical as well as practical experiences that enabled him to play his leadership roles, and to guide and motivate his staff.

7.5 Summary

The perception of teachers towards CPD was negative. Probably that was because of the way the school administration led the program. The teachers in the government school complained that CPD packages did not properly prepare teachers for the challenging tasks of teaching. They considered the existing CPD as a kind of one-shot professional development activities. In the private school, staff meetings, examinations of student work, case study, peer observation, lesson study, inter-school visits, supervision and inductions were used as strategies in enhancing individual and organizational learning. Specifically, examination of students’ work gave the teachers an opportunity to know the understanding level of their students; case study, helps enrich the collective understanding of the subject matter and inter-schools visit motivates the teachers to reexamine their teaching styles. In the government school, action researches were conducted by teachers but its contribution to adding new knowledge was not clearly visible. According to the teachers’ view, the organization of the study group in the government school has contributed something in sharing ideas and learning from each other; on the contrary, teachers complained that classroom supervision was used for inspection purpose by the school administration rather than for supporting purpose.

Each school has its own culture and ethos. This study clearly indicates that the private school principal made the new teachers feel welcome not only the newly employed teacher but also, the old and new to the school. In contrast, the responses obtained from the government school show that the school principal was not committed enough in treating the teachers to

feel at home. In the private school, the principal's action sent a message that the school environment was an exciting place to work and it offered psychological security but in the government school the principal's action might sent the opposite message – the school environment was threatening. This was one of areas in which the effect of school leadership difference was clearly manifested. The points that make different the private school from the government school are mainly the leadership style of the school's principal, culture of planning and working together and the teachers' willingness and readiness to share new ideas not differences in qualification.

Chapter Eight: Prospects and Barriers to OL

8.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with prospects and barriers to OL. It explores the school principals' leadership and management capacity in making OL strategies teachers-friendly. Unfortunately, the government school principal's leadership behaviors and actions were characterized by a lot of barriers to OL. On the contrary, the private school principal's leadership and management actions were characterized by many prospects of boosting OL. As it is repeatedly discussed, leadership is the process of 'influencing' or bringing significant change on the way that followers think and behave not simply by giving commands but by giving them inspiring example to follow in order to maximize organizational performance in consistent way. Thus, school principals are in a special position to promote the importance of teacher professional development; as leaders, and they are supposed to facilitate school-based learning environment for teachers to develop their knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

School principals influence teachers in different ways by applying their leadership powers. According to Cohen and Bradford (1990) autonomous leaders have used their reward power by determining the types of rewards and by making available rewards, by differentiating rewards are acceptable by their subordinates, by launching clear reward guidelines for fair management of rewards for great achievements.

Weber (1990) suggests that leaders of the upcoming must do extremely well at soft skills such as, "the ability to accept and value diversity and harness its potential by unleashing people's creativity in the service of shared goals" (p. 306).

The major barriers to OL in the studied government school were identified and presented as follows:

Barrier 1: Inability to shape OL culture

Culture is identified as a factor that could facilitate or hinder OL. OL is determined to a great extent by the culture of the institution. In other words, a culture of openness is among the factors that facilitate OL. Organizational learning requires tolerance to take risks, to experiment and to explore reasonable mistakes. Africans had their own unique culture

including Ethiopians that supports collective thinking and collaborative problem solving; they had rich experience in solving potential problems by using collective minds. Unfortunately, the imported individualism- oriented cultural value suppressed the Africans' cultural value of togetherness. Through time Africans collective culture has been eroded, missed and substituted by the western culture. The western type of thinking and acting and living are reflected in all our walks of life. African schools are the primary places of western culture is learned or imitated, exercised, implemented and reflected. The data collected through interviews show clearly showed that how culture of individualism is favored in schools rather than culture of cooperation in learning.

According to the interview responses, the school principal and teachers seemed enemies not colleagues working for common goals; they put more and more energy into blaming, criticizing and despising one another. This kind of thinking was reflected from both sides. A teacher doubted the capacity of the school principal in creating cooperative environment in the school:

“It seems that the school administrators lack skills in promoting cooperation and cohesion among staff, between staff and the school administration” (T16).

Another teacher remarked:

“In this school there is no culture of working together. A school guard is responsible for keeping the school properties and maintaining the school security; a teacher is responsible for teaching and managing students' discipline; the school principal and vice-principals just control any deviations from rules, regulations, and procedures. I think that is because of the culture of thinking always inside the box” (T11).

Likewise, a teacher shares the feelings and views of his colleagues:

“The school administration did not ensure the culture of cooperation, innovation, teamwork spirit, tolerating diversity of views, and collaborative approach of problem solving” (T14).

As the school's teachers complained the school principal's leadership and management behavior and actions, the school's principal also in his turn criticized teachers' behavior.

Accordingly, the government school principal and vice-principals classified teachers' behaviors into five categories: committed, disinterested, isolated, old, and undemocratic teachers. They reported that the disinterested, isolated, old, and undemocratic teachers affected the schools' task negatively at different impact levels and hindered working together for common purposes.

In view of that, the government school principal complained that these teachers come to the school with different agendas, selfish interest, intellectual chauvinism, and an interest to resist any type of change.

The school principal mentioned seriously in his responses as these issues are the major obstacles to bring together the school teachers for OL:

"I often make worry myself thinking of how to ensure strong and sustainable collaboration among teachers, because teachers have come to school with different agendas, needs, and interests. Usually these needs and interests are extremely contrary to the school's goals and interests" (P1).

He further added:

"It becomes the most challenging task reconciling the school's goals with individual's goals and interests; and it becomes difficult to bring together teachers to work for common purpose. Many teachers are not satisfied with the existing pay system; they always complain" (P1).

"There are some teachers that always say boldly we are the best teachers in this school. These teachers think that they are always right and better than other teachers academically and pedagogically" (P 1).

"The older teachers have reached the maximum salary scale. Thus, they do not attempt to improve their profession. They are not interested to attend any in-service course or read any of the newer publication in education" (P1).

“They want to prevent any change, try to keep the rest of the staff on their path by dictating on the basis of seniority and committed to perpetuate the status quo” (P1).

The vice- principal for teachers’ professional development and the vice-principal for teaching learning process were also disappointed with the behavior of young, disinterested, resistant, undemocratic and isolated teachers. They cited the young teachers use teaching profession as a bridge to cross to more lucrative professions. The disinterested teachers lost appetite to learn from their colleagues and to share their knowledge with others. The undemocratic teachers never feel comfortable with different viewpoints; they tend to impose their thinking on others. The resistant teachers always interested in finding weaknesses of the school administration and in creating confusion among teachers. These problems were reflected in vice principals’ responses as follows:

“In my school, many senior teachers turn off their learning appetites. Young teacher has been studying Accounting and other Business-oriented disciplines in order to change their profession” (VP2).

He further added:

“Many teachers are dissatisfied with their profession. A few teachers read teaching related books and journals to quench their thirst of teaching and learning but the majority of the teachers are not” (VP2).

The vice – principal for teaching- learning process stated:

“Disinterested teachers rush out of the school compound as soon as possible at the end of the class. They are not interested in sharing new ideas in their subject matter and in education rather they make fun of new teachers” (VP3).

The school principal also shared the view of the vice-principal for teaching- learning process and said:

“Disinterested teachers resent other teachers who come to visit the class they teach; use lesson plan they developed during the first year they started teaching and they are not interested in attending the staff or department meetings (P1).

The Vice- Principal for Teaching- Learning process stated:

“The undemocratic teachers do not give their colleagues the opportunity to express their opinions. They refuse others to examine all sides of an issue” (VP3).

The Vice- Principal for Teachers’ Professional Development said:

“Although resistant teachers are few in number it is not an easy task managing their destructive thinking. They always assume that their beliefs or views are right and others should accept them without paying attention to evidence” (VP2).

He further explained:

“Resistant teachers consistently watching for shortcoming and opportunities to turn back; never accept their limitations, excluded themselves from professional development program and try to split the members of the staff to fight each other” (VP2).

The Vice- Principal for Teaching- Learning process identified some problems that are related to isolated teachers as an obstacle to cooperative teachers’ learning:

“Isolated teachers do their jobs well; they are always punctual and follow all the schools’ rules and regulations and their classes are always at the right pace in covering the assigned syllabus; Unfortunately, they exhibit no friendliness to other teachers; they have never learned how to win friends easily and they are afraid of a rejection; they have high academic caliber but they are not dare enough to share with others what they have in their mind” (VP 3).

Teachers in their turn criticized that the school administration and concluded that the school principal is responsible for the absence of cooperative culture in the school. For instance, a teacher remarked:

“I think the information flow is not smooth in this school. The reason why the school principal and vice-principals show little interest in sharing new information is not yet clear for me” (T13).

He also speculated:

“Maybe, they do not want to bore staff members with unnecessary information or they may have a difficulty in selecting screening and sharing information” (T13).

A teacher assumed that lack of interest in sharing new materials and ideas is not only the problem of school administration but also the problem of teachers:

“Lack of interest or concern in sharing information is not only the school administration’s problem; it is also a wide-spread problem among the school teachers” (T8).

He concluded that the reason for poor cooperative culture in the school:

“The culture of sharing new ideas and learning materials among teachers is not yet developed as it is expected because of the culture that we brought up in” (T 8).

The school principal reported that there was predisposition from some teachers not to learn from their colleagues by considering themselves as they are superior in terms of the subject matter knowledge and skill. Such thinking can be an obstacle to learn from each other. The basic assumption behind teachers’ continuous learning is that the more they are willing to examine critically their prior knowledge from different angles the more they learn and support their students. The knowledge they have already acquired from college and through personal readings is a foundation to add more new knowledge and skill but it cannot be satisfactory for their tomorrow’s professional challenges and effective career life.

Teachers have several ways of refusing to accept an activity in which they do not believe. For example, they may show passive resistance such as forgetting, missing the point, coming late, and getting simple task complicated, postponing deadlines, overemphasizing on details etc. Teachers can also oppose what they do not believe by showing active accept resistance, for example disagreement, refusal, counter- proposal etc. Thus, if the principal is to be an effective leader he must recognize all manifestations of resistance, be able to facilitate and tolerate expressions of anger, dissatisfaction, and opposition without become self-protective, hear valid criticisms, and be sensitive to cues concerning the real dissatisfaction underlying negative expressions. Furthermore, he has to show willingness to discard practices that do

not contribute to organizational purposes and able to support individuals and groups stand for common purposes. Living up to an agreement and try to enforce the decision of the staff will produce better result.

Developing culture of working together for a success of a school is very decisive; unfortunately, because of various reasons, strong culture of cooperation, innovation, team work spirit, accepting the diversity of views and problem solving capacity cannot be achieved within a short period of time. It is a gradual and even a life-time process of an organization to establish cooperative culture. Interpersonal skill is a know how to work with and through people in order to achieve desired results. This ability includes an understanding of the principles of inspiration as well as strong value of well- coming individual differences.

Sometimes screening information is dangerous, because the information that is considered unimportant by leaders can be very important to certain members of the staff. The safest thing can be making available all the information that has an effect on the professional life of the actors rather than screening information.

Barrier 2: Lack of shared vision

Kouzes and Posner (2007) argued that vision motivates people to plan and to live for a better future. It generates unbelievable energy and allows running free our potential; we look into the future with hope and anticipation through vision; it encourages us with possibility and a sense of achievement. Vision sets high expectations, stimulates drive within each individual, and reminds the whole staff the big dream that is being pursued. Individual responsibilities can gain more meaning and energy when it's performed within the context of shared responsibilities.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) state that leaders need to emphasize the communal vision in order to bring teachers together to achieve the organizational goals. Hence, school leaders are expected to have room for the multidimensional views and interests of teachers; at the same time, they are expected to balance the interest of school with the interest of the teachers.

The researcher asked some senior teachers the way the school's vision was set. All of them confirmed that they did not participate in the process of the school's vision setting. This was reflected in the responses of five teachers:

“For the sake of participation, we were asked for our ideas but he did not consider our ideas; thus, we felt manipulated” (T7).

He also added:

“Finally, we were told the vision and goals of the school that were set for us by the school principal” (T7).

“There is no common or uniform understanding of the school's vision and goals among teachers. I think that is why teachers show resistance rather than commitment to its accomplishment. (T4).

“As professionals we need to develop images of the future we want to create together, unfortunately we are forced to accept the vision that we haven't developed” (T18).

“The school's vision is not well known and shared by all teachers. The school principals do not model and reinforce the desired behaviors and practices” (T10).

“The school administrators do not have insight into the needs, hopes, and values of teachers; they are not able to create a vision that motivates commitment to their policies and strategies” (T15).

The government school teachers reported that vision setting approach in their school was not participatory; it seems one-person vision. One- person vision can be problematic for OL and to achieve the expected goals. Regarding this issue, Fullan (1992b:19) argued that one-person vision may damage rather than improve his school:

One- person vision can blind in a number of ways...The high-powered, charismatic principal who radically transform the school in four or five years can...be blinding and misleading as a role model...My hypothesis would be that most such schools decline after the leaders leaves...To my understanding, principals are blinded by their

own vision when they feel they must manipulate the teachers and the school culture to conform to it.

Basom and Crandall (1991) argue that an incompatible vision of what schools would be is an obstacle to work together. As a result, school administrators and teachers should have a common vision. Some of the obstacles that were identified by the government school interviewees were that the school management lacked insights about teachers' needs, hopes and values. Some of the teachers also reported that the school vision did not 'motivate the commitment of the teachers'. Literatures support the respondents' view. For example, Oliva and Pawlas (1999) argued that school leaders should recognize the needs, interests and values of teachers if their schools are to remain functional in a rapidly changing environment; they must also grow and develop all staff members. He further argued that competent school leaders are dreamers; they have the capacity to go beyond their current dreams by motivating teachers to dream better and by helping teachers their dream exceed the leaders' dream.

Thus, if cooperation and cohesion is to be maintained, it is important establishing agreement on the purpose of schooling and proposed changes along with a truly shared vision of possibilities.

In order to substantiate the data obtained through interview, document analysis was made in both schools. One of the critical roles of a leader is creating a common vision with followers to maximize stakeholders' commitment. Shared vision has a magnetic power to generate a strong commitment. Thus, it is important involving people that are directly affected by the vision in the process of developing a vision. Leaders can hardly come up with an all-encompassing vision for the future by themselves. If they try to do so, their effort might be futile and it might even face objection from its beginning. Therefore, it is important involving the concerning parties in the envisioning process. Moreover, leaders can consider the possibility of involving expert opinions even from external sources.

Accordingly, the researcher analyzed the school improvement documents, specifically how they set their schools' vision and the level of stakeholders' participation in vision setting processes. In the government school the vision was set by the school's management

committee. There was no written evidence that confirms the participation of stakeholders in general and teachers in particular the process of the school vision setting.

Barrier 3: satisfaction with prior knowledge and skills

There are many factors that impede teachers' development and schools' improvement. Lack of high commitment to teachers' development is one of the factors that hamper OL. The data obtained from the interviews confirmed that the government school principal and vice-principals were not committed enough in transforming the school into LO.

For instance, a teacher assumed some possible factors for poor leadership commitment but high satisfaction with old knowledge and skills:

“Since 2005, I haven't seen any significant change in this school. I think the school principal is not committed enough to his job assignments. The school principal and vice-principals start something new and give up it immediately. In my opinion, the major reason might be lack of leadership commitment” (T14).

A teacher remarked:

“I think school principal and vice- principals have skill and knowledge gaps in scanning, interpreting and responding to different internal as well as external contextual factors that can affect the entire teaching learning process” (T15).

Likewise, a teacher said:

“The school principal has lost professional respect and appreciation from the school teachers, because of his inability to understand the context we are working in, inability to bring teachers together and inability to put theory into practice” (T8).

Still another teacher said:

“According to my perception, the school principal seems change fighter rather than change lover. The same is true for many teachers likely including me” (T5).

A teacher claimed:

“Our school principal and vice- principals lack physical charisma that fits to leadership/management position. I think, probably that was why teachers show them low respect” (T19).

Teacher (T14) reported that for the last 10 years, he did not experience ‘significant change’ in the school. He also hypothesized the possible causes for absence of change might be lack of determination in trying new things, knowledge and skill gap in leadership and lack of support from the next hierarchy and also from the staff he is leading. A school principal is expected to boost up teachers learning by encouraging pedagogical experiments and by appreciating teachers’ attempts for real change and development. Sagor (1992:19) stated some of a leader- learner behaviors saying “a leader - learner never quit asking questions about practices that affect teachers’ learning; he enjoys trying new things, and he gives teachers professional freedom and individualized support to ensure meaningful change”.

One of the teachers from the government school (T15) was hesitant about the school principal and vice- principals’ leadership knowledge and skills in comprehending and analyzing the school’s contextual factors and their ability in taking appropriate actions.

The perception of teacher 15 matches with the assessment of the World Bank. The World Bank (2013:135) reported:

MOE has been offering Leadership and Management Program (LAMP) courses through universities on a part-time basis (typically over three summers). A with full-time courses, these courses are attractive to individuals due to the promise of a higher salary. However, LAMP courses have also been criticized for being too theoretical and lacking trainers who have the techniques to transmit skills, not simply information. Impact assessments, moreover, have not shown that these courses change principals’ working practices.

It is clear that schools do not operate in a vacuum. Contextual factors affect organizational plans and actions in one way or another. Internal and external contexts have an impact on school’s success. Internal factors could be policies, governance systems, resources, organizational culture and external factors could be social and environmental factors that affect a plan and its implementation.

Professionally competent principals always attempt to master sets of leadership and management skills that help them to be successful in their leadership roles and management functions. As a leader and manager, school principals are expected to have basic skills and knowledge to identify and examine organizational realities and the ability to define the relationship of various contextual elements; they are expected to have knowledge of pertinent legal and regulatory issues; and adequate capacity in treating the diversified interests of the stakeholders.

It is interesting that some teachers yet think that school leaders should have better physical appearance to be a school leader. The respondent's perception contradicts with the current literature. The literature gives more credit to the leadership knowledge and skills rather than innate competence. What matters is the quality of thinking in satisfying the new demands of the customer matters rather than physical height and weight. It does not seem possible and logical to try to measure leadership behaviors by using quantitative measurements such as meters, kilograms or family background, number of degree awarded but leadership behaviors can have assessed by quality of a leader's thinking and actions.

In relation to charisma issue, Tewel (1991) argued that leadership passion must be supported with proper knowledge and skills. He further added saying that "we live in a time when competency counts; the era of becoming and remaining a leader and manager simply because of height and weight has expired long ago" (p.145). Management and leadership roles are huge responsibilities that require deep and wide set of competencies. A leader who lacks basic competence for his respective role is like a blunt knife.

Barrier 4: Status quo- oriented thinking and actions from the school management side

Many teachers were not happy with the school principal's leading approach. It seemed that the school teachers were more change –oriented than the school administration. Teachers' responses implied that they have high need and concern for pedagogical revolution. The teachers presented many evidences that clearly indicate the school principal was not willing to move out of the comfort zone of thinking and doing in order to contribute something new to his school. For example, a school principal's instructional leadership role is encouraging

teachers to come up with new teaching strategies and raising teachers' awareness how to satisfy the diverse students' learning needs. A teacher questioned the teaching learning tradition in his school as follows:

“Many students are not learning the way we are teaching. We do not look to each students' unique needs to determine which teaching approach is more appropriate; in other words, we do not consider students different cognitive learning style preferences; we left a large number of confused students behind. When does this tradition changed? In my view, the school is without committed teachers and committed leader because we have failed to teach the students the ways they can learn more. (T14).

Another teacher said:

“The principal usually clings to things that he knows, rather than encouraging something new, because he is sure of his understanding in the tried method of operation” (T 10)

A teacher criticized:

“School principal and vice- principals are not willing to see other options; they are not able to motivate teachers; they stick on rules and regulations; these erode the confidence they have upon the school leaders” (T6).

The power distance between the school principal and the top hierarchies was viewed by a teacher:

“The principals and vice – principals of this school are not bold enough to convince or challenge the top authority when challenging the officials is necessary for the good of the profession. They accept without questioning each prescription and every command that comes from the top hierarchy” (T15).

A teacher complained:

“Usually in our school, disagreement with school principals is considered disloyal to the education system by the school administration. In many situations, a teacher with ideas that differ from the school principal's is considered as a trouble-maker” (T9).

Another teacher remarked:

“A teacher with a different viewpoint is usually ignored and discouraged and if he continues, the school management belittles him and his ideas. The easy path for a teacher is to keep quiet and accept all the policies of the school administration otherwise, he finds himself unwanted in the school” (T7).

A teacher complained:

“The school principal too much loyal to the interest of politicians and this causes distrust in the school. The politicians’ personal beliefs and values are raised to become public beliefs and value. Voices of the diverse stakeholders are not considered and heard carefully; excessive authority is imposed upon teachers from the above” (T8).

A teacher expressed his dissatisfaction with the absence of change and zero-tolerance to new ideas from the school principal side:

“I have never observed originality in solving the old and new problems of the school, different view-points were not tolerated, and the school administration’s capacity to influence teachers’ behavior, and the skill to restructure positive social interaction is questionable” (T19).

The responses obtained from the participants show that the school principal did not encourage new way of doing things rather he was interested in sustaining the conventional way of doing things. Teachers complained that the school principal was interested in processing the work consistent with his own preferences. According to the teachers’ view, new perspectives are not acknowledged and teachers’ voices are not heard; and the school principal usually devoted to sustaining the existing work culture. A teacher felt that the school principal is in a ‘serious crisis of confidence’ as a result of the pressure comes from the top hierarchy of the system. The earlier study conducted by Basom and Crandall (1991) also confirms that many educators view change as an impossible and they do not suppose teachers can bring the required organizational transformation. Tewel (1991:13) also states

“school principals should offer a menu of ideas, encourage teachers to plan new initiatives on their own and should reward teacher’s new way of thinking and creativity”.

Barrier 4: Favoring management roles at the expense of leadership roles

An effective school leader serves as a change agent, he uses his time appropriately, gives more attention to his leadership roles and delegate managerial and routine activities to supportive staff. Unfortunately, in the studied government school much emphasis was given to management roles.

Teacher 17 described the overall characteristics of the school management in this way:

“This school is characterized by bureaucracy, rigidity, and irrational use of rules and procedures, fear of taking risks and digging problems rather than possibilities”.

The school Principal was asked to describe his major roles and responsibilities as school leader and manager, specifically in facilitating teachers’ cooperative learning at the school level. The responses obtained from the interview shows that he gave high attention to managerial functions. This is clearly indicated in his responses:

“My major duties are planning, setting minimum and maximum goals, supervising and inspecting the teaching staff, writing monthly reports managing the school’s budget and implementing different projects that are assigned by Education Bureau” (P1).

He was also asked about his time utilization in order to discharge his leadership roles and he said:

“I don’t have time to think about teachers’ professional development because of too much routine office work and too much meetings in and outside the school” (P1).

The Vice-Principals were also asked to define their role as a leader and manager.

“My key roles as vice- principal is handling disciplinary issues, communicating with parents, facilitating and mobilizing material and human resources and ensuring the safety of students” (VP2).

“As a Vice-Principal I, am responsible to handle teachers’ daily attendance, to conduct classroom supervision with department heads, to evaluating teachers’ performance and build partnership with societal agencies” VP 3).

The school principal and vice-principals described their major roles as enforcing rules and regulations, controlling and sustaining the existing work procedures, implementing policy and reporting daily routines. These tasks are management functions. It is clear that the leadership roles such as modeling the way for teachers’ learning, motivating teachers to release their potential, establishing strong learning culture in the school, and envisioning the future are missed, which are special vitamins for school development. Furthermore, the school principal reported that he spent much more time and energy away from his roles as a leader. He felt that the management tasks prevented him from being the school leader. Lack of adequate time for leadership roles is one of the critical factors of barriers in facilitating workplace learning (Basom and Crandall, 1991).

Barrier 5: Top-down OL approach

The government school teachers strongly complained that the teachers’ voice was not heard and as a result, their participation in CPD program is not as it was expected. They also criticized its quality and relevance in solving the problems on the ground. Almost all the interviewees of the government school teachers remarked that the quality of the existing CPD is poor. According to the teachers’ views, the contribution of CPD to develop new knowledge and skill has been insignificant. The school administration also shared the teachers’ views regarding the relevance of the existing CPD program.

Although the mechanism of teachers’ development is not only CPD, many teachers tend to focus more on CPD and criticized the program in similar words. They did not only criticize but also substantiated their criticisms with some reasonable arguments and recommendations. The teachers and principal’s views are presented here under as follows:

“The problem of top –down professional development prescription is that the people at the top hierarchy see the world through their paradigm, their understanding of reality at ground is partial and incomplete. In other words, the people in high

hierarchy (MOE) tend to set the standard for the teachers' professional development without identifying the problems on the ground" (T4).

"Teachers' professional development program is disjointed, not well organized, depend on a collection of repetitive and unattractive workshops; there is also a tight control over contents of learning (T17).

"The prevailing teachers' continuous professional development is not guided by investigations into concrete problems of teaching practice; it doesn't encourage diverse areas of professional inquiry (T16).

"The major concern of the current teachers' professional development is to acquainting teachers with universally accepted legitimate knowledge. So, it is boring, because it adds nothing new" (T13).

"Continuous teachers' professional development is imposed by MOE simply for the sake of standardization, not to solve the problems at grass root level. In short, for me, it is one-size fits- all type of program (T 18).

"The volume, depth and parameter of school-level learning of teachers are defined narrowly by top officials not by practitioners" (T 5).

"In my opinion, the main problem is that officials that are working at middle and top hierarchies are not willing to hear teachers voice and I think they underestimate the teachers' capacity to select and design contents of teachers' professional development program" (T 14).

The participants complained that the current continuous professional development program does not match with the realities on the ground. They strongly remarked that teachers' continuous professional development should consider the contexts of the schools (T 8).

“The existing teachers’ professional development package is simply duplicating the old concepts instead of encouraging teachers to generate context- based new knowledge (T15).

A teacher questioned the relevance of the prevailing CPD:

“Almost there is no visible relationship between continuous teachers’ professional development and the problems teachers are struggling within their respective schools. So why we waste our time?” (T11).

Not only the teachers but also the vice – principal for teachers’ professional development school administration was not comfortable with the prevailing CPD program. For instance, he reported:

“The majorities of the school teachers are experienced in teaching profession and they are not interested in the prevailing CPD contents. The existing CPD approach hardly contributed to teachers’ professional development. Thus, it has to be improved in a way it satisfies the teachers learning demand.” (VP2.)

The teachers’ views match with the existing literature. For example, Basom and Crandall (1991) identify ‘top-down’ approach as one of the major barriers to OL; because ‘top- down’ teachers’ learning program it is not based on research rather it relied on opinion of a few individuals. The issues that were raised by the government school teachers indicated that the existing continuous professional development is a type maintenance learning rather than anticipatory learning. Maintenance learning is finding better ways to do the current work. It helps ensure that procedures and processes are efficiently done. It is not sensitive to the current situations of the school environment. Anticipatory learning is the acquiring of new knowledge and building the new knowledge into the organization so that goals and objectives can be met in a change environment. Thus, in a learning organization, both types of learning are important.

The other big issue was the issue of the isolated teachers. The isolated teachers were not convinced to recognize and appreciate the value of working together. As a result, the school was not benefitted to the maximum from their potential and it is possible to predict that the

isolated teachers cannot be happy in their career because they have experienced a limited social capital.

Barrier 6: Absence of recognition

Everybody wants to feel important in his job. The desire for recognition is another form of the desire to feel important. One of the reasons people work is to obtain recognition from supervisors, from fellow staff members, and from the community in which they live with. People want others to recognize that the work they are doing is making a real contribution to the welfare of the group or society. A participant from the government school viewed that the purpose of recognition in the government school was not to motivate teachers but to control teachers in a systematic way.

Teacher 17 reported that in the government secondary school, the school's recognition system did not motivate teachers for better performance rather it was simply to control teachers.

“In this school praise has been discredited in many situations, because it has become an artificial type of stimulant. The principal and vice-principals have used praise to control teachers” (T17).

Praise is an important form of stimulation. If praise is sincere, is given with discrimination, and comes wholeheartedly from the official leader, it can provide real job satisfaction. It is a type of recognition that most people want. Giving credit for outstanding work a principal can extend the contribution of teachers beyond the boundaries of the staff expectation. This requires giving constant feedback of the contributions that individuals and groups of teachers are making.

Barrier 7: Authoritative power

Leaders/ managers use different powers they have at their disposal in order to achieve the goals of their organization. Usually the type of power is determined by the context managers/ leaders are working in. From my long years' experience as a school principal, many teachers expect expert type of power from their school principal. On the other hand,

some teachers like a principal with legitimate and coercive power. For these people a leader/manager without these two types of powers he cannot qualify the position.

Legitimate power is the power accorded people occupying positions as defined by the organization. A manager can assign tasks to a subordinate and a subordinate who refuses to do them can be reprimanded or even fired. Coercive power refers to the authority to force fulfillments by psychological, emotional or physical threat. It includes verbal and written reprimands, disciplinary layoffs, fines, demotion, and termination. According to the responses of the government secondary school teachers, legitimate and coercive powers were widely exercised by the school principal. Teacher 12, 19, 20 and teacher 4 explained clearly how the school principal think and act to influence teachers by using his legitimate and coercive power:

“The school principal describes the roles of teachers, tries to standardize teachers’ behaviors according to the prescribed work procedures; he rarely encourages teachers to participate in decision making process; he secretly observes and inspects the teachers’ performance” (T12).

“He wants his status should be respected; his word should carry more weight than that of a teacher. This assumption created power distance and gap between teachers and the school administration” (T19).

“Questioning the principal’s statements is considered as a threat to his status. He wants teachers to give unquestioning support to his policy. Questioning status quo is considered as to challenge the school administration; thus a challenger will be punished” (T20).

“He usually makes decisions and tells the staff what to do. It is too much difficult securing new ideas. No staff member will dare to challenge the school principal’s blueprint. To make such a challenge is to risk punishment” (T4).

There are many indicators in the interview responses that confirm the school principal attempted to manage every problem without participating teachers and he was not interested to have rooms for teachers’ views. It is obvious that school principals cannot have all the

answers to school problems, because the pace of change, the complex problems brought about by change, and the extent to which these situations call for new responses make it impossible for a principal to possess the required skills and knowledge to solve all problems. Therefore, a school principal must not only rely on his own knowledge and skill but must also be clever at facilitating the creative thinking of teachers. The justification behind this argument is that many minds usually outperform single mind in generating new ideas in solving problems. There was no evidence if the school principal exercised the reward power. The above qualitative data reveals that the government school principal used his legitimate and coercive power to achieve the school's goals. His power was derived from his legitimate position or authority. The principal tried to manage teachers through the administration of negative sanctions. In other words, it seems that he controlled teachers through intimidations and fears when they deviated from the school's rules and regulations. He made task expectation clear by setting goals, standards, structuring work flow and controlling deviations.

8.2 The private school principal's leadership/ management roles in facilitating OL

8.2.1 Leads teachers by examples for OL

The private school principal has been characterized by many exemplary leadership and management qualities. People usually make decision to follow a leader through observing what the leader does. It is actions that convince followers, not words. The way you behave as a leader has a vital bearing on your success in the leadership role. Many teachers confirmed that the school principal set good examples and influenced teachers for OL and daily routine activities.

According to the teachers' perceptions, the school principal is their role-model. He spends much of his time and energy in the pursuit of more knowledge and wisdom; he reads and shares relevant books, educational journals with teachers; observes things and events seriously to improve his store of knowledge and skills further. These qualities of the school principal are reflected in a teacher response:

“He possesses an endless thirst for knowledge and always looks for fresh information; he reads books and journals; he shares with teachers the knowledge he has acquire

through intensive reading. He is a real priest in the high temple of knowledge and wisdom; besides, he is a critical observer” (T28).

A teacher acknowledged that the school principal’s character is exemplary and imitable, fair and impartial. The teacher feels the school principal is regular, punctual and hardworking; all staff members have equal access to the door of the principal. He also takes proper care for his physical fitness.

The other leadership qualities of the principal were explained by one of the senior teacher as follows:

“He has never been a dictator, he allows reasonable criticism and difference of opinion, he never hurts the feelings of others, he possesses broad, secular and tolerant views” his words carry weight. I wonder at his compassion, truthfulness and dedication to the cause of education and learning (T 27).

Teacher 32 appreciated the school principal leadership behavior saying:

“There is pin-drop silence for his speeches; his talks are so enlightening, inspiring and thought-provoking” (T32).

A teacher acknowledged the school principal commitment to teachers’ psychological safety:

“The principal has sufficient flexibility to maintain control and to be concerned with the personal welfare of teachers; He runs the school in a rather impersonal manner; he does not personally check that teachers are getting things done and lets them work at their own speed; he sets an example and works hard himself” (T30).

A teacher justified why the school principal won teachers’ acceptance:

“The staff accepted his decision, not because he is the person invested with authority by the right of his position, but because of his wise decisions making ability and his concern for teachers’ welfare” (T25).

Still another teacher pointed out the school principal’s endeavor to realize the collective goal of the school:

“The school principal builds a sense of personal responsibility for the accomplishment of the school’s goals through collective effort” (T33).

According to the views of the participants, the school principal is committed to be a learner-leader. He has won great appreciation from the teacher for his leadership capacity; because he treats all teachers equally, he encourages diversity of ideas, he walks his talks, he is highly dedicated to his profession and he gives proper attention to teachers’ psychological safety. The teachers also witnessed, the school principal is a good diplomat in managing work related relationships.

The leadership behavior of the school principal sends the strong and clear message to other school principals: if school principals are to get a full acceptance by the staff they are leading, they are required to update continuously their management skills and leadership knowledge through reading, they are also expected to be ahead of teachers in their pedagogical understanding and walk their talk without fail.

8.2.2 Models the way and teach work discipline

Modeling behavior allows the principal to set an example for the staff by demonstrating how one should act in order to facilitate the accomplishment of the school vision and goals (Jantzi and Leithwood, 1996; Lucas and Valentine, 2002). While reflected in the school vision, the principal’s beliefs must also be supported by action (Leithwood et al., 2006; Schlechty, 2000). It is essential that the organization members see actions taken by the principal to model behaviors which are in line with the school’s vision (Leithwood et al., 2006).

The school principal was acknowledged by his staff members because of his high professional commitment and work discipline. Concerning his attempts to be an exemplary in his commitment and daily work ethics, teacher 29 said:

“He is prompt, hard-working, and, he sets an example of coming to work early and not leaving before, and the staffs more likely assume the same responsibility. He wants members of the staff to be on job on time and to work at a high level of efficiency; he is the kind of person that almost all teachers like; as a result, he has won teachers’ appreciations and support”).

Teacher 27 supported the idea of teacher 29 by emphasizing the commitment and leadership capacity of the school principal in motivating teachers to do more for their school:

“I have learned professional commitment from my school’s principal. For what so ever reasons, he never leaves his plan unfinished. I have been motivated by his leadership exemplary behaviors and actions to contribute all what I can to improvement of the school”.

Likewise, teacher 33 reported the influencing power of the school principal in establishing strong work ethics:

“The principal made it a tradition to get to work half an hour earlier than anyone else and to stay half an hour after the last person left” (T33).

Teacher 28 validated the ideas of his colleagues saying:

“The school principal readily pay price for the cause of his vision. He takes extraordinary steps in order to accomplish his dreams. He is truly committed to what he does and to the people that he works with”.

According to the teachers’ perception the school principal can also see all possible opportunities even in difficult situations. This was reflected in a teacher response:

“He has the willpower to step into challenges. He is forward looking; he tends to keep on moving at any cost. He describes that if a certain method fails to work; he starts it all over again and continues to chase his dreams. He sees a light in darkness and values a sacrifice. He aspires to move non-stop with a sense of vigor and determination” (T24).

Schools need committed and exemplary school leaders. According to the above interviews responses, the school principal possesses many leadership qualities; he has a very good command of school management. He showed in actions to his staff members example is better than control.

The school principal did not tell teachers to work hard but he showed them what he accomplished. The lesson that can be learned from the descriptions of teacher 29 and teacher 33 is that there is nothing powerful enough to move people like modeling the way. Modeling the way is leading by example; demonstrating what we expect others to do. The teachers' observations have literature support. In relation to the importance of modeling the way, Kouzes and Posner (2007:321), stated that "if you want others to believe in something and behave according to those beliefs, you have to set the example by being personally involved. You have to practice what you preach and walk the talk. That is, leaders must mean what they say." In this particular case, it is possible to conclude that the actions of the school principal spoke louder and sent a strong message to the team that the school principal was leading.

8.2.3 Shapes teachers' prior behaviors

The private school teachers have learned much from their principal's leadership behavior and actions, as a result; they have changed their prior thinking of student treating mechanisms by imitating how the principal has won people to achieve his personal as well as the schools' goals. Teacher 27, teacher 30, teacher 24, and teacher 25 reported that they have put into practice the new experience they have acquired from the school principal. The researcher asked the teachers to mention some concrete examples to know what they learned from the principal's daily leadership behaviors and actions. Some of the learned behaviors from the school principal as a result of his positive influence are presented as follows:

"The school principal made me to believe that students learn best when they relax and feel comfortable. Thus, I started greeting my students and I made this lesson part of my daily practice as I entered the classrooms; I let students to feel free and move around if it is necessary which I had never made before I came to this school" (T 27).

He further added:

"I started thinking how my students are feeling good in their learning. I am sure this is because of my new insight. Now, I can understand my students' needs and interests. My students also feel happy because they became free to move around when it is important; they know what is appropriate and what is not appropriate" (T27).

Teacher 30 reported what he learned from the school principal and the relevance of the learned behavior to the classroom situations:

“Rather than criticizing and telling students are wrong, I learned how to encourage and guide students to an accurate answer. This enhanced a smooth and positive relationship between the students and me in the classroom and let students feel free. Thanks our principal for his influence”.

Likewise, Teacher 24 also witnessed how far the influencing power of the school principal was strong in transforming teachers’ traditional way of thinking.

“I have absolutely changed my earlier inappropriate behavior in treating students. I am sure that my attitudinal and behavioral change toward my students is because of the systematic influence of the school principal”.

Teacher 25 also reported:

“While I was teaching in government schools, I had no patient even for minor mistakes that students committed in learning; I had no time and interest to listen to students’ learning problems, but now I have developed listening skill”.

As the teachers experienced, our willingness to listen illustrates our attitude toward people and makes people feel heard and recognized. Besides, it builds good relationship, encourages openness, and enables access to people’s heart. Thus, all teachers are required to know that empathic listening is a skill of extending themselves for their students to see as they see it and feel as they feel it. Effective communication demands developing culture of critical listening. Thus, skill of listening is very important for everybody in general and for teachers in particular.

8.2.4 Realizes and releases the innate potential

It was also reported that the school principal played effectively his leadership roles by motivating and releasing teachers’ latent potential. The ways that he was energizing the teachers’ natural potential, the leadership approaches he was using to develop teachers, the ways he was recognizing and supporting the teachers’ behaviors were reported by different

teachers. On that point teacher 25, teacher 30, teacher 31 and teacher 33 share almost similar views: their views are presented as follows:

“Our school principal concentrates his efforts on helping individual teacher to attack problems and in obtaining better ways of tapping the talents of the teacher” (T25).

“He enabled me to realize and release my full potential – the potential I did not suspect before” (T30).

He further added:

“Our school principal applies supporting behaviors that includes showing acceptance, concern and confidence for the needs and feelings of teachers” (T30).

“I have a great regard for our school’s principal leadership skills and knowledge because he persists in his work and he is logical and critical in his thinking and actions. His timely feedbacks always give energy to think more and more” (T31).

“Our school principal always inspires all teachers equally with his good words to do the difficult job. He does many acceptable influences to teachers and students because of his natural leadership capacity” (T33).

It impressed the researcher hearing that from many teachers used consistently the possessive noun ‘ours’ in describing the actions and leadership behavior of the school principal. Unfortunately, the possessive pronoun that usually heard in many schools is ‘his’ or ‘her’. Its implication is that there is smooth and strong relationship between the school principal and the teachers. In short, the work environment is very healthy and inviting even for the outsiders.

8.2.5 Recognizes good performance

Muenjohn and Anderson (2007) stated that many change programs fail in different organizations, including schools because leaders do not take action to reward the new behaviors. Instead they continue to reward the achievement of task-related outcomes, whether or not the ends are achieved in an acceptable way. In the studied school, the school

principal appreciated and recognized all teachers' endeavors and this was echoed in the teachers' responses. For example, teacher 24 said:

"The school principal motivates a teacher by recognizing good work when he sees it, by keeping other teachers informed of significant activities being conducted by each teacher, and by keeping the teachers informed of the good teaching in the system".

Teacher 32 also stated:

"Our school principal always provides developing behaviors that gives potential benefits to new and less experienced teachers".

Teacher 33 summarized:

"Our principal enhances our commitment by providing recognizing behaviors that includes showing praise and appreciation and valuable rewards to teachers for effective performance, and important contribution to the school".

The above teachers' views have literature support. For example, Bull (1994) stated that schools and administrators that overtly support and demonstrate a strong commitment to the professional development of teachers provide four necessary and essential conditions for effective professional development: 1) leadership 2) resource and policy support 3) norms of collegiality and 4) experimentation and adequate time.

According to the interviewees' responses, the private school principal has used three leadership behaviors to influence teachers: These were: *developing, recognizing and supporting behaviors*. The school principal built quality relationships with the teachers through "individualized consideration", by giving teachers personal attention, by understanding teachers' individual differences, and by making teachers feel valued as receiving special treatment.

8.2.6 Uses expert, referent and reward Authority

One of the major roles of a leader is inspiring followers so that their willingness to contribute flourishes continuously. A leader is expected to stimulate and strengthen his followers for a better life and service. The private school principal clarified for teachers the path by which a teacher can achieve personal and organizational goals and increase rewards that are valued by the teachers. He demonstrated concern for the teachers, and when the problems occurred, he was ready to offer advice. He also took ideas and information from teachers; he involved the teachers in decisions that affect them and their work; he set expectations and goals at a high level and made the job challenging but possible to accomplish. The principal facilitated OL by helping teachers better understand how their actions are linked to organizational rewards and by helping teachers engage in the behaviors that lead to rewards teachers value. The private school exercised his expert, referent, and reward power for his leadership roles. It seems that his expert power came from his long time leadership experience. The principal possessed rich knowledge of the job and tasks performed in schools in general and in private school in particular. He showed his referent power in a practical way by influencing teachers to act the way he acted. As the data collected through interviews show, the teachers admire the principal and see him as a role model. Similarly, the data collected show he has reward power. The principal facilitated conditions to celebrate and reward outstanding achievements and he managed deviant behaviors in a systematic way.

The participants in the studied private school reflected how the school principal influenced their learning behavior in systematic ways:

“Our principal has unique communication ability. He can easily put things into perspective for others to see, to understand and to appreciate. He sees the possibility to turn a given challenge into a great opportunity; he believes that solution and change are possible” (T35).

“Our school principal is inspirational; he is inspired by new thinking and inspires others to think in new ways. He has the capacity to motivate, influence, and align people” (T27).

“He can convince and move forward the people around him. He can easily mobilize others and bring something out of nothing” (T28).

“Our principal always informs the staff good teaching in the system. He also praises teachers by describing the best work they are doing at staff meetings or through staff bulletins” (T24).

“He inspires me to search and dig new knowledge from different sources, to read more and more reliable books by putting challenging questions before me” (T31).

The researcher asked participant 31 if he could illustrate by giving more and concrete examples how he has been challenged by the school principal and he said “the principal pose questions usually dealing with what I want the students to learn from the lesson, why I think it is important that the students learn this, and how is it going to affect the students’ future lives and he always focuses those questions whenever he observes not only my classroom but also other teachers’ classrooms.” The participant witnessed that the school principals leadership actions makes him to read and think more every day in order to overcome the school principal’s challenges.

In the studied private school, the principal was asked to discuss his roles as a school principal and he highlighted his specific leadership and management roles as follows: serving the school community as a role- model, mentoring, coaching, supporting, motivating, and leading the instruction. Furthermore, planning day to day routines, organizing, coordinating the activities of the supportive staff, mobilizing and distributing resources, shaping social environment and developing staff are part of his jobs (P21).

The above response reveals that the principal balanced his management functions and leadership roles. He gave attention to his leadership roles by making himself a role model, by supporting and motivating teachers for better performance, by shaping social relationships and also by leading the instructional process. They also carried out the core management functions such as planning, staffing, mobilizing different resources, and coordinating and monitoring different school activities. Thus, it is possible to say that in the private school both management and leadership roles were given equal attention. The private school

principal used the combination of transactional and transformational approaches in leading and managing the school.

Maxwell (1998:126) argues “the people’s capacity to achieve is determined by their leaders’ capacity to inspire commitment. Leaders can inspire and empower people by giving them power and authority. Guillory and Galindo (1994) suggests that leaders can inspire and empower others by sharing power, communicating clear principles of performance, giving training opportunities, creating supportive environment, coaching, acknowledging employees’ best performances, and encouraging employee initiatives. Since successful inspiration brings forth an unusual commitment, more participation and dynamic movement; it requires the dynamics of leadership art, not just the application of the mechanics of management science.

According to the participants’ perceptions, it seems that the principal is interested in setting high performance bar and giving the teachers the opportunity to stretch and do the impossible. In line with such thinking, Slater (2003) states that by reaching out to what appears to be the impossible, we often actually do the impossible and even when we do not make it, we inevitably do much better than the regular.

Naturally, everybody likes a situation in which his/her opinion is accepted. H/she needs that others listen carefully to his/her point of view. A person is even more satisfied when his/her opinion is adopted and put into action. This can be one of the recognitions. Another form of recognizing a teacher’s opinion is consultation before action is taken. Consultation does two things; it lets the teacher know that his feelings and reactions are important; and it may also pave the way for improving organizational performance.

8.2.7 Participates teachers in the process of vision setting and ratification

A school principal is expected to ensure the existence of shared vision and if the work strategies and operational goals are clear and understood by all teachers. Teachers need to know the place the school intended to reach in the near future; they need what the school and departments are trying to accomplish; how these accomplishments will be measured; regular feedback on progress; in addition, teachers need to understand how their own goals are

related to department goals and school goals. Some of the participants confirmed that they were involved in the process of developing the school's vision statement. The shared vision was used as a lens for all improvement initiatives and it provided the dependable base for the work the teachers engaged in together. For instance, a teacher said:

“The school has a culture of involving stakeholders in setting the school's goals and vision. When the school's vision and goals were set, teachers and students and parents' representatives took part in the discussion and finally they reached on consensus and now we are working to achieve the school's vision and goals” (T27).

Likewise, another teacher reported:

“I have been convinced the worth of the school's vision and goals and now I am working to the best of my professional knowledge and skills to achieve the targeted qualitative and quantitative goals and vision” (T36).

In order to substantiate the responses obtained through interviews, the 'School Improvement Program' document was analyzed. The researcher confirmed that in the private school, there was evidence that showed the participation of the stakeholders in formulating and the ratifying the school's vision.

According to the interview responses of the teachers, the school's vision and goals had been formulated and established in collaboration with the teachers, and the representatives of students and parents. By doing that the school administration linked the schools' vision to measureable instructional objectives; developed shared meanings, built a foundation of relationships among the school communities. The private school principal seemed visionary and proactive in his leadership orientation. Thus, it is possible to say that there was a good beginning in the private school in designing a supportive atmosphere in motivating the teachers, students, and parents to do more than they expected to do, and in placing the interest of the organization above the personal interests of teachers by establishing common school vision.

Builds cooperative culture

A learning culture can only really exist where there is mutual understanding and collaboration. Earley (2005) states that:

An active participation by all in a collaborative culture means that everyone takes responsibility for learning. Teachers and others working in such communities will discuss their work openly and seek to improve and develop their pedagogy through collaborative enquiry and the sharing of good practice (p. 245).

The participants' responses to the cooperative culture of the school community addressed two issues: the establishment of strong cooperative culture in the school and the role of the school principal in building such dependable culture.

Based on his experience and observation, a teacher expressed what his school culture looks like:

"There is a high level of cohesive culture and moral in the school; as a result, all teachers work together and we enjoy friendly relations" (T35).

He further added:

"In our school, any of information is accessible to the school community. The great majority of staff members frequently share new educational technology and educational literature they have come across with" (T35).

Another teacher reported the extents that the school administration and teachers have developed transparent and trusting work environment in their school to perform their daily routines:

"The teachers and the school principal have developed the culture of telling each other frankly what they expect of each other, no secret at all. The school's work environment is characterized by teachers' cooperation, enthusiasm, acceptance of great responsibility and sense of importance" (T30).

Some of the school teachers narrated the role of the school principal in establishing cooperative culture as follows:

“The school principal creates cooperative working relationships with the members of his staff rather than personal control over the actions of individual members” (T29).

“The school principal encourages teachers according to the circumstances; he provides subtle direction and control but does not monitor the work of his staff too closely. Teachers work well together and accomplish the tasks of the organization (T33).

Another teacher reported:

“His leadership ability creates strong collegial culture; makes the teaching learning process smooth, easy, enjoyable and meaningful and improves students’ academic performance” (T24).

Teacher 24 also recognized the school principal’s leadership qualities. He said that the school principal always shows support and recognition for teachers’ hard work, he spends much time in classrooms and motivate teachers and students by sharing accomplishments and inspiring stories that have great positive impact on the school improvement.

The school principal was also asked by the researcher why he emphasized on cooperative culture building and he argued:

“A sense of belonging grows as friendliness in the staff is encouraged if the principal is relaxed and friendly and others will follow or go well with him” (P21).

In the private school, there is strong team- spirit and well-developed culture of trusting each other. While interview session the researcher also asked the school principal how such kinds of openness and trust was established in the private sector. The school principal explained the strategies he used in establishing social cohesion and trusting environment among teacher and between teachers and the supportive staff:

“Group spirit in my school is built by increasing the number of social occasions on which the staff gets together; by involving diversified interest groups in committee work (where they get to know each other well); and by keeping the staff informed about special contributions that individual members are making” (P21).

There was strong culture in the private school in turning mistakes into learning opportunities. The private school principal assumed committing mistake as an opportunity to learn more. During the interview session he reflected the way he views mistakes for learning as follows:

“Mistakes are learning opportunities that is why I encourage teachers to try something new and make mistakes. I always say to the teachers, ‘I am not looking for a perfect lesson. In fact, I want to see you doing something new/different’; because, when you meet with your colleagues afterward, you’ll talk about what you learned from it” (p1).

According to the literature in management, the transformation of organizational culture is determined by a leader’s capacity to introduce new changes (Ogbonna and Harris 1998b) and this cultural transformation is deliberately planned and controlled by a leader (Vera and Crossan 2004). Hence, it is supposed that leadership in an organization can proactively cultivate an organizational culture that is conducive to OL implementation.

In collegial leadership, the principal’s behavior is supportive and egalitarian and neither directive nor restrictive (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997). Relationships are fostered through respect, support and understanding and when teachers feel supported and respected by their principals they perceive their relationships with their principals as open, collaborative, facilitative and supportive (Murphy, 2002a; Smylie, 1992).

Bull (1994) argued that leaders who seek to create school culture that supports the professional development of teachers are guided by the following principles: that effective professional development is school-based; incorporates coaching and follow-up procedures; is collaborative; is embedded in the daily lives of teachers; providing for continuous growth; and focuses on student’s learning.

The private school principal also reported that beautification of the school grounds increases each staff member’s sense of belonging. As individuals achieve common purposes by planning together and assuming joint responsibility, their feeling of belonging grows. The conceptual framework of the study helped the researcher to identify the positive and negative

impacts of culture on OL and to understand the ways the private school principal shaped the school culture for the success of his school.

A barrier to OL in the private school

Although the private school has good leadership and management qualities, the tradition of the school in conducting need assessment for short term training was reported poor. The participants complained that school- based short term training always focused on pedagogical issues and neglected psychological issues. For example,

A teacher said:

“In this school, teachers’ learning is usually confined to experiences that improve only academic and pedagogical growth of a teacher. Many times, the school principal is concerned in boosting the staff members’ subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills. Developing interpersonal relation skill is not given attention (T25).

Likewise, another teacher remarked:

“Growth in ability to work with all stakeholders and the development of social skill are areas in which teachers need more help than they do with methods of teaching and subject matter knowledge” (T 30).

Another teacher complained:

The contents and approaches of school- based professional learning are usually controlled and directed by the need and interest of the owner of the school, there is a little room for negotiation in selecting the most relevant contents for school-based short term training” (T32).

The private school provides intensive training on selected problems before the beginning of academic year, usually in August. Although the trainings in the private school were context-based, they were not critic free. The teachers complained that most of the training contents are knowledge and pedagogical skills- oriented. They suggested that social relation skills are also equally important as subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills.

The researcher asked the school principal why less attention was given to psychological issues (on how to establish good relationships with others) while school-based short training. His answer was short and clear: “*we learn more how to establish good relationship with others though practice not through training*”. According to the school principals view interpersonal interactions have great power in shaping our behavior rather than formal training. He believes we can learn how to have healthy relationship with our colleagues by imitating exemplary behaviors from others.

8.3 Summary

In the government school, the principal’s leadership behaviors and actions were viewed as obstacles to OL. As a result, the school was described by lack of cooperative culture, absence of common vision, a tendency to be satisfied with the prior knowledge and skills, lack willingness and commitment to think ‘outside the box’ absence of need assessment for learning, absence of appreciation for risk-taking and excessive use of positional authority. More attention was given to controls, directions, standard operating procedures and teachers were working in isolation from each other.

On the contrary, in the government school, the school principal’s behavior and actions were perceived as a driving force in enhancing OL. The school principal led the teachers for OL by setting good example, modeling the way and teaching work ethics, by shaping unacceptable behaviors, by helping the teachers realize and utilize their innate capacity, by appreciating risk taking, by encouraging learning through trial and error, by using expert, referent and reward power, by creating common institutional vision, and by creating cooperative culture. The principal’s dedication to his task has won him the acceptance and respect of teachers. But absence of need assessment for school-based learning was identified as a barrier to OL in the private school.

Chapter Nine: The Major Similarities and Differences Between the Two Schools

9.1 Introduction

Chapter nine is devoted to discuss the major similarities and differences, between the government and private school and to present the identified facilitators and barriers to OL. Work place learning depends mainly on school principal's leadership and management quality and teachers' intrinsic motivation to learn in-depth in order to meet the professional requirement of their respective jobs.

9.2 Similarities and Differences between the Two Cases

When the researcher planned this study, he expected to find remarkable similarities and minor differences in leading teachers for OL. Because in both schools the principals and teachers took the minimum training the positions demanded. Both schools were newly emerged schools; and their differences in terms of organizational experience was not that much significant. However, as the analysis in Chapter Six, Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight made clear, the researcher found more differences than similarities in the two schools. That was an interesting part of the study. The researcher thought that in the government school teachers enjoyed better freedom and facilities but the reality was quite opposite from the researcher's prior prediction. Based on the data collected, some major similarities and differences were identified:

Principals and teachers' perceptions of OL

In both schools, the school principals', vice principals' and teachers' perceptions of the concept OL and its importance was similar, but the level of commitment in implementing OL was extremely different. OL was conceptualized by the participants as a process of creating common knowledge and practice, as a systematic and organized move to discover together the prevailing gaps in teachers' knowledge and pedagogical skills consistently. They also viewed the importance of OL as an instrument to build strong learning community, to understand new concepts and new learning demands in education. The participants assumed that the more they learn the more they satisfy the learning needs of their students. The study participants in both schools believed that OL is one of the mechanisms to question old

assumptions (traditional ways of doing teaching). Therefore, there was no confusion in conceptualizing OL and its importance.

Setting school vision

Knight (1998) and Watkins and Marsick (1993) argue that shared vision is a prerequisite for creating a learning organization; shared vision involves developing collective vision, identifying functional and dysfunctional values, having a common mission or purpose, and the establishing organization goals. Likewise, different scholars state that shared vision plays a fundamental role in creating shared commitment and shared understanding for individuals (Wyckoff, 1998); shared vision is an imperative factor in a LO (Marquardt, 1996; Senge, 1990; Watkins and Marsick, 1993) and organizational leaders are responsible to initiate a vision (Isaacson and Bamburg, 1992); shared vision is initiated with leadership from top management and ratified by involvement of individuals in the organization in a social environment which permits open and honest discussion (Wyckoff, 1998).

According to Senge's (1990) five imperatives, a shared vision starts by motivating individuals to appreciate their personal visions; a leader is expected to declare that genuinely shared vision. Shared vision is not at all forced followers to accept a leader's vision as their own vision and it comes into view from followers who really be bothered one for the other and their job, who have a well-built common sense of own vision, and who witness the combined vision encompassing all personal visions. In a similar vein, Isaacson and Bamburg (1992) supposed that this type of shared vision assists people brings together what they do with what they say.

The private school principal gathered the teachers around a common purpose and vision; encouraged the teachers to take challenges as opportunities and worked with teachers to elevate expectations, needs and abilities. The private school principal motivated the teachers by showing excitement and brightness, by assisting the staff to visualize pretty future states, by working hard to obtain better achievement and by showing dedication to the shared vision.

He also made the school vision to have a hope for all the school community and used his expert power to motivate teachers' commitment. He broadened and elevated the interests of the teachers by generating awareness and acceptance of the vision of the school, and by stirring the teacher to see beyond self-centeredness for the success of their schools.

OL strategies and the ways they were planned

The OL strategies in the government schools were staff meeting, CPD, induction, action research, study group and supervision. The private school employed staff meeting, induction, and examination of student work, classroom observation, lesson study, inter-school visits and supervision as major learning strategies. Staff meeting, induction and supervision were common learning strategies in both schools. In the government school the teachers' perceptions of the importance of the existing OL strategies were mixed; some agree and others disagree about their significance in enhancing the teachers' professional competence. Teachers' professional development program can be initiated from inside or outside. The most important thing is that evaluating its relevance to the realities on the ground. In the government school, many of teachers' professional learning plans were the kind of outside-inside driven development plan, but in the private school it was inside as well as outside-inside driven development approach. It was determined by the realities on the ground.

Even though staff meeting, CPD, induction, action research, study group and supervision were supposed as major approaches to OL in the government school, they were not managed appropriately. The participants complained that CPD is an imposition from the MOE and it did not take into account the current knowledge and skills of the teachers. Furthermore, the teachers criticized that CPD did not match with the problems on the ground. The newly employed teachers were not also satisfied by the induction program and they believed that supervision was used for fault-finding purpose rather than for capacity building purpose.

In the private school, many of the teachers' professional development plans were initiated at school level by taking into account the skill and knowledge gap of groups or individuals. Many of the plans were designed by the teachers for the teachers and their implementations are promising. Many teachers were happy and willing to work together and to learn from each other. Because, the private school principal created an inspiring learning environment

for his teachers at the school level. He followed democratic approach in leading the teachers for OL. He treated everybody with respect; listened carefully to teachers and took their ideas seriously. The principal never used his power against teachers rather he valued whatever ideas the teachers generated; respected teachers' work; trusted teachers and was trusted by teachers. It seemed that the principal considered the teachers as full-fledged professionals in teaching business and thus, he supposed their professional know-how as precious asset for school development. The most important leadership quality of the school principal was that he made novice teachers feel as they were at home.

The ways school principal influenced teachers

The ideas of power and leadership are directly interconnected. Sources of power can be categorized broadly classified as institutional power (legitimate, reward, coercive) and individual power (expert and referent) (Brown, 2006). The individual sources of power influence positively employees' commitments and loyalty to the organization's goals, and job undertakings than organizational- based power. Effective leaders do things by employing individual power (Pfeffer, 2011). Each day, managers use power to accomplish their institutions objectives (Nelson and Quick, 2012). Effective leaders win followers recognition by making rational decisions that can be accepted by followers (McShane and Von Glinow, 2011).

Referent power is a leader's innate capacity to shape followers' behavior, because followers are glad about that particular trait. It requires having high level of charismatic personality. The foundation for referent power is building a healthy relationship between a manager and employees (Tosi, et al., 2004). Expert power is an individual's capacity to change employees' actions since he possesses accepted knowledge and skills to show the right direction. Expert power is derived from acquiring rich information or knowledge in specific subject matter (Tosi, et al., 2004). A school principal is expected to be an expert in a variety of areas. The principal as an expert must possess specialized understanding and talent in the process by which knowledge is developed in mind, learning speculation, teaching strategies, stages in human growth (Bredeson and Johansson, 2000: 9-10).

Both the government and the private school principals focused on influencing the teacher's beliefs in order to improve their schools' performance but they followed different strategies. The government school principal tried to transform the teachers' world-view in a prescriptive and regulatory ways, but he had not been successful. The private school principal used transformational leadership strategy to change teachers' beliefs, behaviors and actions; he had been effective in making teachers to go beyond their personal goals and interests. He made teachers commit to change willingly; he showed high capacity in motivating teachers by taking into account teachers' needs and interests and by giving particular attention to modeling the ways for school based- learning. He developed a high degree of trust and confidence in teachers; he inspired and excited the teachers to accomplish great things with extra effort. He was open with his leadership roles; acted as mentor, he was committed to encourage the teachers to confront difficulties with confidence and to find innovative ways of attacking potential obstacles. The school principal coached novice teachers to perceive troubles as good opportunities for practical learning and to come up with their own rational solutions in order to solve these difficulties.

The private school teachers were influenced by the school principal. In turn, the teachers influenced the school principal to make him more flexible and to accept teachers' new and helpful ideas. The private school principal usually used expert and referent power and rarely other types of powers as the situations demand. He made decisions by using his *legitimate* power; he used expert power to coach novice teachers, reward power to encourage exemplary achievements, and he motivated the staff to think 'outside the box' and to perform beyond the expectation by using his referent, expert and *reward* power. He had control power over many school resources; he had the power to assign department heads; to select teachers for different assignments, to distribute resources, to recognize better performances and to decide the type of rewards and to hire and fire teachers. The government school principal mainly used legitimate and coercive power in order to maintain work standards and stability respectively.

School principal's management and leadership roles

In the private school, the principal and vice-principals usually seek ways to improve the teaching learning process. They well- balanced their management and leadership roles and

times. They knew how to plan and implement routine activities, how to learn to be an exemplary for their teachers, how to treat and encourage teachers and how to inspire teachers to generate creative solutions to new problems. Besides, they demonstrated high respect for teachers' time and talent at the work place as well as their personalities as individuals.

In the government schools, the principal acted more as an administrator and disciplinarian and in participating politically-motivated meetings outside the school. They spent much time in disciplining students and managing routine bureaucratic activities. They did not balance their roles and responsibilities as leaders and managers. In other words, the management roles of the school principal and vice-principals overweighed their leadership roles. They did not have time to plan new professional development projects and to engineer more substantive and long-lasting relationships with teachers which are the fundamentals for OL.

The study shows that the government school principal is a leader of teaching, he gives more attention and time to routine managerial activities, but the private school principal is a leader of learning and teaching

The ways principal motivated teachers for OL

The private school principal was effective in creating organizational structures for regular staff interaction, for evaluating the teachers' performance and students' learning. The teachers had wide opportunities to have a voice in decision-making on the issues that related to teaching and learning process. The principal usually paid attention to the teachers' ideas and concerns; the teachers were motivated to exert maximum effort to achieve the school's goals; because they were praised; their best performances were publicized and earned promotions and pay increases for attempting new teaching approaches. Airing of problems was encouraged; success past experiences about problem solving were passed on; creativity, calculated risk-taking and careful experimentation of new pedagogical technology were fostered. Teachers believed as they have a chance to try something new. He treated the teachers individually for professional support and development. Outstanding accomplishments in students and teacher's learning were celebrated; and the teachers were helped to realize and develop their potential. These good experiences hardly found in the government school.

The private school principal's leadership characteristics match with the leadership characteristics that were identified by Fullan (2001); Hallinger & Heck (1998); Leithwood & Jantzi, (2000); they acknowledged the following leadership behaviors of school principal: (a) creating and communicating a collective vision; (b) establishing a feeling of trust, confidence and patience; (c) rewarding students' and teacher high performance; (d) motivating teachers to be innovative (e) giving intellectual inspiration; (f) shaping functional school culture; (g) establishing good relationship with colleagues, (h) creating organizational structure to enhance participation in decision-making; (i) shows the way by example and (j) employs potential to change mind-set and behaviors.

Interpersonal relationship in school

The private school principal and vice-principals were more accessible physically and mentally to teachers that they worked with than their counterparts. The principal and teachers shared responsibility and accountability, established healthy working relationships with one another. There were frequent conversations among teachers about active pedagogy, and culture of visiting one another's classroom is well developed.

The data collected through interview and field observation confirmed that the relationship between the staff and the school principal was like a well-oiled machine. The result of this good relationship can be seen in students' behaviors and academic achievements. The case government secondary school teachers and the school principal blamed each other; the relationship between the school management seems fractured. The school principal and vice-principals failed to facilitate time to meet and talk with teachers, to ensure physical proximity, to design convenient communication structures, to conduct regular meeting, to empower teachers, to provide supportive leadership and to carry out an intensive socialization.

9.3 Major barriers to OL

Although the government school principal and vice-principals are qualified in educational management and leadership, their leadership behaviors and actions have been barriers rather than prospects to OL. Inability to shape the school culture for OL, lack of shared vision, satisfaction with outdated knowledge and skills, status quo- oriented thinking, absence of

learning need assessment, absence of recognition for outstanding performance and highly relying on legitimate power were identified as major barriers to OL in the government school.

School culture

Organizational culture has positive or negative impact on employees' behavior. Because it is a culture puts boundaries and restrictions for what organization members ought to do and what they must not do. According to Martin and Terblanche (2003) the common values and norms and unofficial conventions instruct organization members what to anticipate and how to perform to be awarded. Culture can facilitate or hinder organizational improvement in various ways. For example, culture can enhance employees' actions via "socialization process". During the socialization process they can be taught which actions and reactions are tolerable and which actions and reactions are not up to standard. At this time the employees find out either creative behaviors or risk-taking are valued or not.

In the studied government school, the school culture was characterized by teachers' isolation from one another rather than cooperation and smooth relationship. The staff was divided into two camps: the veteran and the novice teachers. The veteran group wanted to perpetuate the status quo; the novice group struggled in favor of change and tried to put into practice new pedagogical skills and knowledge they have recently acquired from college education. The veteran teachers, for the most part had a tendency to be pedagogical conservatives because they viewed themselves as 'super-teachers' in managing the already established knowledge and the pedagogy. They believed that the teaching and learning process has to be continued the way it has been going on; rather than working together and sharing their rich experience with novice teachers, they preferred pushing them to place out of the playground. Firestone and Louis, 1999) argues that negative culture segregates teachers and hinders school improvement.

The culture of exchanging good experiences and applying active learning approaches were more developed in private school than in government school. The Private school principal and vice- principals were recognized by the staff for enabling the new ideas to emerge and for encouraging equally senior and newly employed teachers.

The government school principal's management actions and behaviors were characterized by certainty and status quo; gave small space to innovative ways of thoughts and doing things and the school's culture protects the teachers from experimenting unknown. Risk taking was not supported and rewarded and making mistake was not tolerated; the teachers were also devoted to sustain the existing knowledge, the school's rules and regulations, the classical pedagogical procedures and work standards. Thus, the teachers walked within the predefined learning territory.

The private school leadership behavior and actions were characterized by uncertainty and ambiguity, he assumed that OL is an iterative process where the teachers move gradually toward greater understanding and they are interested to know many different routes to each learning destinations. The private school principal encouraged teachers to walk to unknown territories as much as they can and to come up with new ideas, skills, knowledge and solutions to maximize their understanding of the teaching profession.

In the government school, the school principal and vice-principals' energies were devoted to managing routine office works with little concern to take the school to the level of fitness; they just kept the school in the comfort zone; they spent significant amount of time fixing problems of the past, riding routines of the present without putting their energy for enhancing the OL.

In short, the data obtained from the government school shows that there is no fertile ground for teachers to learn from each other. The principal and vice-principals were not in a position to manage the potential obstacles to school-based learning. The government school top management was not motivated to redesign the school structure, to shape the school culture, to create shared vision and to ensure OL. As a result, the opportunity to learn from each other was not strong as the private school.

Table 9.2: Summary of Major differences between the government and private school in leading teachers for OL

Points of comparison	Government school	Private school
School vision setting	There was vision but not shared vision	Shared vision and goals
Types of power used by the school's principal	Legitimate and coercive	Expert, legitimate, referent reward and rarely coercive
OL strategies	staff meeting, CPD, induction, action research, study group and supervision	staff meeting, induction, and examination of student work, classroom-observation, lesson study, inter-school visits and supervision
Type of school culture	Individualism /isolated culture	Cooperative culture
School principal's orientation to management and leadership	Management-biased	Management and leadership- oriented
The principals' influencing strategies	Applies rules and regulations, controls deviations, risk-taking, committing mistakes	Sets good example, models the way and shows work discipline, realizes and releases the teachers' innate potential, recognizes good performance, applies all type of power, participates teachers in vision setting, builds cooperative culture
Barriers to OL	Inability to shape helpful organizational culture, inability to establish shared vision, satisfaction with old knowledge, and pedagogical skills, status quo oriented thinking, absence of need assessment for short-term training, absence of recognition and excessive use of legitimate authority	Absence of need assessment for school-based training
Implications	Pedagogy of the answer was well-established	Pedagogy of the question was blooming

The conceptual frame work has been effective in guiding the study and in collecting relevant data. It was helpful in exploring the why and how of OL and in examining how the schools' culture enhanced or discouraged OL and in understanding the school principals' leadership behaviors and actions in leading the teachers for OL.

Chapter Ten: Discussion and Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

In this chapter four issues were presented: the major findings of the study, conclusion of the study, researcher proposed conceptual model for future OL, and recommendations. Many of the findings were discussed in a comparative way; however, a few of findings were not compared because of the unique nature of the schools. Based on the data collected through different tools summary was made; the conceptual models that may expand our insights of OL was also presented; and some recommendations were also given.

10.2 Major Findings

Principals' and teachers' perceptions of OL

In both schools, the schools' principals, vice-principals and teachers had good conceptual insight about OL. Like-wise, they had clear understanding about the importance of OL. No participant overlooked the role of OL in enhancing teachers' professional capacity. Having similar views on the concept OL and its significance made both schools similar.

In the government school, adequate time was not budgeted for interaction, reflection, professional discussions; the professional commitment of the school's top management in enhancing OL was poor. On the one hand, there was an apparent need for the school development; on the other hand, insignificant attention was given to the issue of OL. The government school principal did not discharge his responsibilities in encouraging teachers to become critical theoreticians and qualified practitioners rather, he was interested in labeling teachers as committed, old, isolated, undemocratic and disinterested. In the government school culture of new way of doing things, risk- taking and experimenting new pedagogical skills, and culture of sharing new experiences and best practices were lacked and resulted in sustaining status quo.

School vision setting

The primary objective of vision setting in educational institution is to have returns to teaching and learning in term of cognitive, psychomotor and attitudinal development of

students. Students need to have these three desired returns if they are expected to be competitive citizens at local, national and international levels. After his learning, a learner is required to contribute something good and new to his society. Thus, schools are expected to lead students through their vision to new ideas (knowledge), and new way of doing things (skills), and preserve acceptable societal norms and values that had been built up over the years. Although psychomotor and affective domains are equally important learning areas, psychomotor and affective oriented vision was missed in the vision statements of both schools.

The researcher tried to assess the contents of vision statements and the procedures of vision setting in order to identify their similarities and differences. According to the assessment, the contents and the focus of the two schools' vision were more or less similar. Both schools gave emphasis to improve their students' test performance and to make their schools a center of excellence. However, unfortunately in both schools, the issue of skill development and preservation of the societal values were put outside the focus of the schools' vision.

In the government school, the school principal and teachers did not have common vision and show the required professional commitment. The school principal did not create a shared construct about the future; the teachers repeatedly complained that their voices were not heard and their views were not valued. As an educational institution, the school lacked organizational energy to promote change, and to inspire teachers to create common vision. In the private school vision setting procedure followed participatory approach. As a result, the teachers internalized the school's vision and were working to achieve this communal vision.

An approach in designing OL

There were fewer opportunities in the government school to concentrate on self-defined (context-based) teachers' learning priorities. Teachers' development priorities were top-down by their approaches. The participants felt that teachers' learning programs based on the need and interest of the officials at top hierarchy in the system. As a consequence, their effectiveness in building the capacity of the teachers and solving the school's real problem was limited. However, in the private school, the culture and the procedure of OL design was bottom-up in its nature. It took into consideration the teachers' knowledge and skills gap. As

a result, it had been effective in capacitating the teachers and in solving the school's problems.

The document analysis confirmed that CPD and Induction manuals are available in both schools but there was no single evidence that shows how they were used in the government school. In the private school, CPD and Induction manuals were modified in a way they can serve the need of the school and teachers.

School Culture

In the government school, senior teachers preferred to rely heavily on the already established knowledge and pedagogical skills. In other words, culture of reflecting on teaching practices was weak. The school principal and senior teachers were busy in sustaining the classic knowledge, skills and work procedures. They were highly engaged in perpetuating the old idea that advocates there is always some best answers to all school problems. As a consequence, other teachers recycled old thinking and practices; they limited themselves to prepackaged knowledge; they did not distance themselves from old pedagogical practices. Junior and novice teachers did not feel free to ask critical question, to take stand, to make suggestions, to experiment new ideas, and to take risks because of the nature of the school's conservative culture. There was a feeling of 'we and they' between the teachers and the school management team. Professional dialogue and asking questions were not valued. The novice teachers feared making mistakes and taking risks. Individualized effort was more recognized by the school administration than collective endeavors. In short, knowledge sharing culture among teachers was very weak.

However, in the private school, culture of sharing new ideas and questioning the relevance of the 'pre-established' knowledge and skills was observed across the system. There was a feeling of 'we' with the school management team and teachers. This clearly showed that there was strong collegial tie among teachers, and between the teachers and school administration.

Leadership qualities of the private school principal

The private school principal believed in teachers and showed sensitivity to their needs, he was flexible and open to learn from experience. He was comfortable in encouraging teachers to express their ideas and opinions that differ from his own during staff- meeting.

The principal possessed dependable soft skills such as the ability to accept and value diversity, ability to learn from mistakes, and willingness to recognize and celebrate teachers' contributions and accomplishments. The school principal and vice- principals are open to new ideas; they encourage all teachers to generate different solutions to school problems; they inspire the teachers to see 'outside the box' and to try something new to the best of their capacity.

The schools' principals influencing strategies

The government school principal influenced teachers by applying his formal authority, by controlling over resources and rewards (mainly power over wages and promotions), by controlling the access to vital information and by giving or denying recognitions. His legitimate power in controlling the school's resources allowed him to influence indirectly the situation of the teachers.

The private school principal motivated teachers by respecting their rights and views, by developing good insight of the teachers' needs, interests, hopes and values, by building a common vision that motivates teachers' commitment to his policies and strategies and by serving as a role-model. He influenced the teachers mainly by using his expert and referent power.

Major Barriers to OL in the Government School

The identified major obstacles to OL in the government school were: lack of appropriate support from the school principal, lack of adequate time, an attitude to maintain status quo, and intellectual isolation. The school principal was limited to routine managerial activities rather than facilitating workplace learning; the school principal spent much of his time on managerial functions rather than playing his leadership roles. He was limited to planning, organizing and managing the human, physical and financial resources of schools, handling

disciplinary problems, writing report, responding to telephone calls, attending extended meetings, and ensuring that whether the school operations align with the MOE's frameworks or not.

Teachers were too busy; they did not have adequate time to reflect on their teaching practices, to collaborate, to share new knowledge and skills and to receive feedback. They worked in an isolation fashion from one another, and the issues of dynamism of learning were buried below learning ordinary activities; there was little energy for reflection on critical problems of teaching.

Indeed, teachers talked with their colleagues but usually their points of conversations typically focused on administrative issues and students' disciplinary problems rather than on new instructional issues and the intellectual quality of students. The discussion about instruction may strengthen the collaborative ties among teachers and teachers in turn may help address their concern of students' learning. In addition to this critical problems, the attitude of senior teachers "we know best" often stands in the way of benefiting from knowledge and skills that were within reach.

The school principals' theoretical- orientations

The government school principal inclined to apply management principles in discharging his duties and responsibilities; however, the private school principal interested in employing the blend of leadership and management theories in the process of inspiring teachers for workplace learning.

Dark-side of the private school leadership

The private school teachers had a tendency to become dependent on the school principal and they idealized their principals excessively and they paid no attention to his negative actions and behaviors rather they exaggerated only his good qualities. In the long run, this trend may lead them to swim in a narrow perspective and to dependency by eroding their critical thinking.

10.3 Conclusion

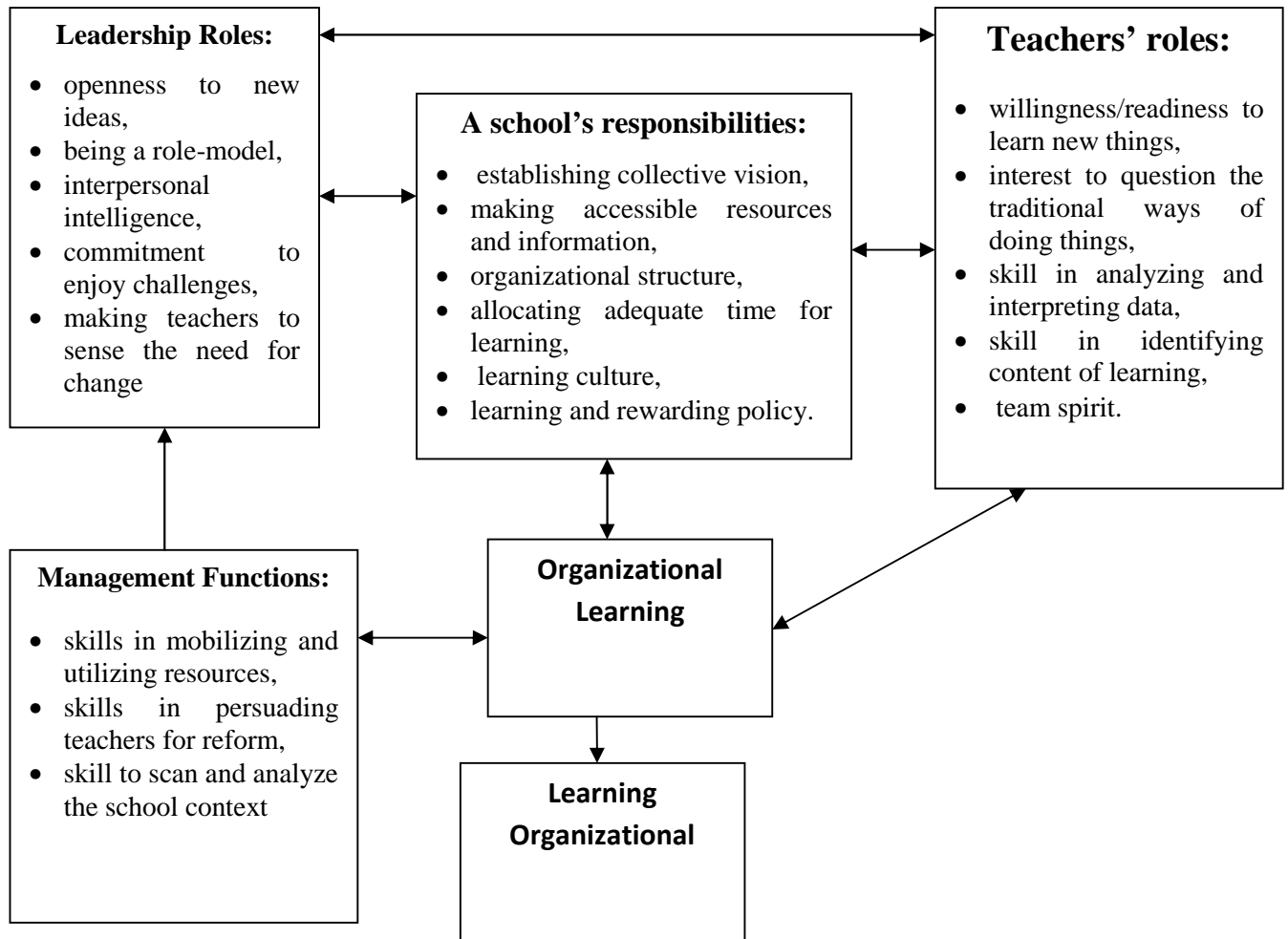
The researcher got an opportunity to understand the current status of OL in one government and one private school and also identified the major challenges and possibilities to ensure teachers' collective learning at school level. The private school principal had been a leader-learner. He had been modeling what it means to be a good learner. As it was witnessed by participants, he always tried to take the school into better future. There were ample evidences that confirmed that the school teachers followed his footsteps in learning new things. Although such leadership actions and behavior seem perfect and acceptable leadership approach, the existing literature informed it may ultimately lead to dependence of teachers on the school principal.

The government school principal has M. A. degree in school management and leadership. Thus, it was believed that he has a good knowledge about school management and leadership; but he had not been successful in leading teachers for OL and his commitment in establishing helpful school culture for OL was not as strong as the private school principal. The most important lesson learned from the study was that school principal's exemplified leadership roles are reliable and helpful pedagogy for influencing teachers for OL. The implication is that school leaders are required to transform themselves in advance if they are to transform teachers' actions and behaviors. True transformation begins with one's inner learning demand to become effective learner.

10.4 Conceptual model to guide the future OL

The existing literatures and theories of leadership and the conceptualization of OL are more fit to business institutions. Segne is a scholar who pioneered the concept OL and proposed the ways an organization becomes LO. He argues that if an organization is to be a LO; it has to master the five 'disciplines': shared vision, personal mastery, mental model, team learning and system thinking (Segne, 1990). However, failed to indicate the specific mechanisms by which school leaders can inspire teachers for sustainable OL. He did not show how school leaders influence teachers for OL and also when teachers influenced school leaders. Based on research data and literature the following model is produced that may be helpful to guide the implementation of OL in schools in a practical way.

Figure 3: Tripartite mutual interactions model to enhance OL in schools



As it is indicated in the model, there is two-way interaction between school principal's leadership roles and teachers' roles in ensuring true learning at school level. Like-wise, there are two- way interactions between principal's leadership/ management roles and a school's institutional roles, between a school's institutional roles and OL, between teachers' roles and OL and between a school's institutional roles and teachers' roles. The details are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Transforming teachers' attitude to learn new things

Attitude is a state of mind, it is feelings, beliefs and outlook and it can be either positive or negative. Attitude is a strong belief or feeling towards people, things, and situations. Developing positive attitude towards learning a new thing is one of the major critical dimensions of learning a new thing. If our attitude of learning a new thing is positive, then our level of learning desire can be achieved. If our attitude is negative, our learning desire diminishes. Thus, attitude is a dominant factor in determining our success and failure.

Although there are a range of teaching strategies, many teachers are more interested in using what they have already mastered instead of introducing and trying new methods. They made themselves prisoners of the out dated traditions. Some teachers are reluctant to think 'outside the box' preferring instead to see their role as simply transmitting the official knowledge that they were employed to teach. Theoretically, teachers are expected always to have an attitude of openness to new ideas, new experiences, new possibilities, to question assumptions and their own teaching routines, to engage in professional dialogue, to see appropriate strategies to implement new pedagogical principles and to assess the quality of students' work if they are to be effective teachers.

Nobody knows everything. Both school principals and teachers should believe in learning as a way to increase their chances of success. They are ambassadors of education; therefore, they are expected to be ready and willing to learn new skills and to add new knowledge to help advance students' learning. They should not wait somebody to tell them what to do. From the researcher's personal experience some teachers and principals fear committing mistakes, but committing mistake is natural way of learning (may be the best way of exploring phenomenon). The biographies of successful people teach us they experienced

more failure than average people do. Therefore, the society of education is required to have an attitude that is open to criticism and comfortable to acknowledge mistakes.

Teachers' professional learning is supposed excellent when it confronts potential difficulties (Timperley et al, 2008), and when it motivates teachers to generate their own researchable hypothesis from their practice, when teachers are confronted by professional learning experience that inspire them to do more than they think possible (Barber, Whelan & Clark, 2010:20). It requires constructing meaning together, coming up with new insights and knowledge, discovering novel thoughts and substantiation, acknowledging diverse viewpoints and challenging each other politely, and pushing themselves to mirror genuinely in the ways that new learning confronts their prior thinking (Stoll et al, 2006).

One of the most critical roles of a leader is influencing followers and also to be influenced by followers if the situation demands. Transforming teachers' attitude to learn always new things is an acid test of a competent school leader. A school principal as a leader expected to inspire teachers in order to bring significant positive attitudinal changes in the ways they think, behave and do their activities by using his expert power. He is expected to challenge teachers to come up with new solutions to old and new school problems and to facilitate professional discourse regularly at school level. An effective school leader is ready and willing to be influenced by justified idea that comes from stakeholders. He is not a slave of rigid thinking. There are times when teachers come up with smart ideas to move their school one step forward in difficult situations. At this time, the power of leading shifts from positional leader to a follower. The role of the school leader will be well-coming the new idea and learning something new in order to enrich his mental stamina. In a few words, leadership is a common game to be played by school principal and teachers as well.

Interpersonal intelligence of a leader

This intelligence involves the talent to recognize other people; what stimulates people, how they work, and how to work agreeably with them. This intelligence leads to the highest maturity level. That is valuing and recognizing others. It helps to detect things from other people's perspectives in order to appreciate how they think and feel, to maintain peace in group settings. It helps to have genuine empathy for other's feelings, fears, anticipations and beliefs. Skills in interpersonal intelligence involves: seeing things from others' perspectives,

listening attentively, understanding other people's moods and feelings, cooperating with groups, communicating verbally and non-verbally, trust, peaceful conflict resolution, and establishing positive relations with other people. Thus, principals are required look for the good in teachers; because teachers' attitudes will be enhanced when principals show sincere love, care and concern for teachers. The more leaders understand teachers and show love and respect, the better they perform.

School principals with interpersonal intelligence can create a significant variation by building a culture of evidence-based study, and by cultivating innocent and reciprocally respectful interactions (Kaser & Halbert, 2009).

The Content and context of OL

OL cannot succeed without strong learning content and without taking the organizational context into account. OL demands well-planned short and long term strategy and considers the curriculum and instructional strategies in a ways students' learning is enhanced. OL is expected to expand teachers' knowledge of the subjects matter, to acquaint teachers with varieties of teaching methods, to keep up teachers with concepts in the subject they teach in particular and new theories in education in general, to improve classroom management skills, to familiarize with ICT technologies, to improve teachers' action research skills, to support students with special learning needs, and increase the ability to monitor students' work, to provide constructive feedback to students, and other learning needs that emerge from the context. The prevalent OL approaches are linked to immediate problem solving and are pushed by authorities' expectations; as a consequence, they face the risk of being unnatural and ineffective. When OL is linked to the real problems and doubts faced by teachers, it would be more natural, effective, and sustainable. It may be unreasonable to assume that a few lists of teachers' workplace learning agendas can serve as a universal mechanism of teachers' development in all schools; because every school has its own unique contextual aspects. That is why the study participants strongly complained that teachers' development programs are not tied to actual classroom practices. According to their perception, the existing workplace teachers learning programs are not driven by analyses of students' academic performance data rather they are determined by assumptions. A true workplace

learning demands examining students' work and achievement constantly and revising teaching accordingly.

Teachers' proficiency and the use of new professional learning are improved when the learning occurs in the actual work environment and when it develops definite teaching skills. In other words, a real professional learning is more likely to take place in a school context involving teachers than a context that involves a specialist and an authority far from the school. Context based learning brings better results when it is not structured around pre-specified content; when it senses the existing realities and inspires the learners' individual learning desires and when it allows the learner to be open to the elements of diversity of ideas embedded in a collective knowledge of the school members.

Obvious ways of learning are: listening, reading and reflecting, observing and asking. Contacts and actions based on these learning styles can increase teachers' success. Teachers can also improve or strengthen their learning by extra reading, instigating professional discussions and inquiring, looking for exhibition and testing and mirroring the results. These procedures can come to mind in a wide variety of formal and informal situations and can be administered by the learner rather than done to the learner. Day to day professional communication among teachers gives the best chance to satisfy one's definite learning needs. In a nutshell, learning that is embedded in a context enables teachers to shape and reshape the learning needs they have.

Thus, the contents of learning should not be predetermined rather they have to be driven from real problems. Hence, while planning OL the contents of OL and the context of a school need to be well considered. Besides, a school principal is expected to find ways of balancing the rate of learning inside the school with the rapid changes outside of the school environment, probably by facilitating the flow of knowledge from outside as far as it is helpful to OL.

The authentic learning emanates from deeds in contexts. Teachers acknowledge professional learning styles that allow them to experiment with their classroom practice and modify it in the light of reflection and comment from pupils and colleagues (Opfer, Pedder & Lavicza, 2008). Successful teachers' learning brings together three principles: collaboration between

schools; collaboration across time; and collaboration with external partners (Husbands, 2011). In fact, the reform questions brought by outsider associates are an important element to enhance teachers' continuous school-based learning. Many educators have the same opinion that good professional learning considers learning in context - that is classroom and school settings (Buck & Francis, 2011). Premium teachers' learning involves a mix of school-based and well-organized development experience with a significant input from outside knowledge (Timperley et al, 2008).

Using a variety of data-gathering techniques helps school principals and teachers to target improvement efforts and provides important baseline information for monitoring school progress. If OL is to be effective, students' performance data need to be analyzed. The data serve as a starting point to identify instructional gaps and students' learning limitations and strengths and also to plan for better improvement. Hence, a school principal is expected to have the skill to analyze and interpret students' achievement data in order to identify learning problems that are common to students or what students are not learning in a particular grade, the ability to discover what students need to know more and do to be more successful and what teachers need to learn to help students and to close the gaps.

All over the world teachers require more professional learning targeted at teaching and learning and subject matter (Schleicher, 2011). The required results of teachers' learning is obtained when the learning component is targeted at teaching a particular content, when it helps know to use a new teaching method, and when it helps assess whether the student is really acquiring the expected knowledge and skills (Desimone, 2009). Using school data for teachers' learning involves changing statistics and skills into new understanding, utilizing relevant statistical information for decision-making, and in due course enhancing teachers' skills in action research and creating a community of research (Wilkins, 2011).

Organizational/institutional qualities for OL

Shared organizational culture, adequate time for professional dialogue and reflection, learning culture, the accessibility of resources; accessibility of information, relevance and quality of learning agendas, organizational structures that reduce teachers' isolation; policies that offer better autonomy, policies that encourage teamwork, policies that recognize and

rewards new initiatives and good accomplishments are supportive factors for teachers' workplace learning. When these conditions are fulfilled, it is assumed that there is a fertile ground to work together; however, when they are lacked an atmosphere of discomfort is created. A school principal is required to ensure if these conditions are fulfilled to run OL smoothly. When these conditions are absent, a school principal is responsible to develop shared vision with the participation of all stakeholder, to budget specific learning time together with teachers, to reach on consensus on how to nurture new culture of learning, to mobilize adequate amount of financial, human, and materials needed to implement OL, to make accessible all relevant information to all staff members, to evaluate along with teachers the significance and the quality of collective learning topics, to design organizational structure that encourages teachers participation in decision making, to find possible ways of ensuring teacher's autonomy and to look for ways of protecting teachers' time from internal and external interferences, and to develop a policy that favor collective efforts and encourages and values new thinking, creativity and innovation in collaboration with major stakeholders.

Attaining and long-lasting new knowledge and skills require organizational structure that enhances learning in general and the application of new learning in particular. According to Darling-Hammond et al (2008) the schools with well-planned learning time for teachers and with trusting culture are characterized by better reliability in teaching and learning. Teachers are ready to share good practices and to test new methods and more success in finding pertinent solution to classroom problems (Darling-Hammond et al, 2008). Likewise, Day et al (2007) argue that a successful professional learning occurs in contexts that support teachers' positive sense of themselves as teachers, which is critical to their dedication and loyalty to ongoing development.

Commitment of a leader

Commitment is the inner strength that keeps leaders going forward when the rank and file stops. Commitment is also a critical quality of a leader to finish the race, to complete battles and to reach collective organizational goals. It is the driving force that holds the other leadership qualities together and makes other qualities of a leader active. A committed school

leader enjoys challenges and confronts underperformances by developing himself and teachers, by establishing positive relationships with teachers and students. He believes in setting an example, because he knows this influences teachers and students alike. He is always ready to do what he asks teachers to do. He has a passion for helping teachers learn and convinced that good teaching can make a very real difference to all groups of students (fast, average and slow learners). He learns much more by confronting problems. When an obstacle is put before him, he immediately moves in another direction, when he encounters an obstacle again, he tries a new way, he never stop searching for new ways till he defeated the problem. This as clear message for teachers, when teachers do like-wise students' performances will be improved.

Committed school principals create a motivating learning environment and persuade teachers to internalize the real objectives of professional learning and not to cease learning throughout their teaching life. They bring a visible variation to students' academic performance by initiating and involving themselves in teachers' learning programs (Robinson, 2011). To reinforce the above idea, Coldwell et al (2008) states that committed school leaders recognize and appreciate the positive effects of teachers' learning in improving students' results and as a consequence, they place the issue teachers' life-long learning at the top of their reform agendas (Coldwell et al, 2008).

Teachers' approval of school reform

Traditional bureaucratic organizations have failed mainly because they tend to depend excessively on the intelligence of those at the top of the organizations pyramid. The end result of all education reform is student development in terms of knowledge, skill and attitude, thus every reform initiative, if it is to succeed, must begin with recognition of the importance of school reform. Teachers often complain that they are required to participate in professional development that does not address the real challenges they face in their schools and classrooms. From the researcher's experience many teachers do not like 'one-size-fits-all' professional development that targets large number of teachers. Most professional development packages do not consider teachers' varying levels of motivation, interest, knowledge and skills. These poorly conceived and ineffectively implemented professional development leads to objections. Thus, before any change takes place there must be

consensus and a shared sense of need for change. For example, simply telling teachers that scores on national examination must be improved is not enough to generate the sense of necessity that institutional change requires. Teachers have to sense the need for change themselves. If the teachers in a given setting agree about problems and solutions, institutional change is possible, but when they disagree, the possibility of change is limited; therefore, teachers need to be convinced to invest their maximum potential to realize the proposed reform.

Some possible temporary challenges from teachers' side

When this conceptual model is used as a guide, the school principal may face some challenges. The researcher believes that by recognizing these challenges, school leaders can design rational and convincing strategies to implement meaningful OL activities in their schools. Some possible challenges will be: devaluing the potential of OL or assuming that OL does not bring significant change to teaching learning process, changing the prevailing thinking of teachers - 'we are already learned rather than we are still learning', convincing senior teachers that committing a mistake in the process of assisting novice teachers is one of the normal ways of learning, helping teachers not to feel superior when they assist their colleagues and not to feel inferior when they are assisted by their colleagues, convincing teachers sharing what they have known with their colleagues is part and parcel of their professional responsibility and convincing teachers to plan definite time for their professional learning. The researcher feels that these leadership roles are very challenging but they are not impossible.

The purpose of qualitative study is to develop theory. From this case study, two facts and ideas can be theorized from school leadership side and from school leadership and OL side. From school leadership perspective the data show a *leadership actions as a leader-learner motivates teachers for OL more than the management actions as a learned- manager.*

In this study, a leader-learner refers to a head of an organization that has basic management and leadership knowledge and skills but not satisfied with the existing knowledge and always strives for learning and excellence. A learned- manager is conceptualized as a person that has

rich experience, skills and knowledge in management and leadership but take for granted the skills and knowledge he has already acquired as if they work wherever and whenever.

Regarding the interactions between school leadership and OL, the data reveal that *a learning from exemplary principal's actions results in better attitudinal change for OL than a prescribed learning in bringing attitudinal change for OL*. We learn every day from different knowledge; we learn formally and informally and directly and indirectly. However, the depth of learning is determined mainly by the level of motivation we have experienced. The study clearly shows that high altitude of success is determined by attitudinal change as a result of learning from a role model rather than learning from prearranged program by authorities.

10.5 Recommendations

Recommendation for the government school

Based on the findings, the following solutions are recommended in order to mitigate the existing problems in relation to secondary school leadership and OL:

Leadership is all about positive relationship and leading by power of example. One of the major responsibilities of a school principal as a leader is shaping learning culture. A school leader can shape helpful learning culture through building a culture of continuous learning, through modeling and reinforcing desired behaviors and practices. When a leader actions and words are consistent and aligned, the possibility to change outdated or unhelpful beliefs and values will be high.

School Principals are required to work constantly to improve the quality of the staff. One of the first responsibilities of a principal to a newly employed teacher is to make him feel that he is wanted. Besides, when new teachers are transferred to the school; the induction program has to create a sense of belonging and has to improve their readiness to make full contribution. Hence, the principal and vice-principals are expected to place teachers in situations where they are happy and where their abilities are used.

Staff meeting can serve as one of the approaches for OL. Thus, staff meeting is required to have a definite plan and to be centered on something teachers consider important. As long as the principal alone decides what the points of discussion will be, the points of discussion will be considered important by the school administrators, but may be assumed worthless by the

teachers. Thus, it would be helpful if the staff meetings live up to all staff members' expectations. If staff meetings are to be vital to teachers, all teachers are expected to play a visible role in selecting the problems to be discussed on the staff meetings.

All the staff member in general and senior teachers in particular are expected to promote lots of school- based 'tries' (pedagogical experiments) and be willing to tolerate mistakes and occasional failures. This is possible when teachers are ready to show their willingness in practice to act always as 'critical friends' for one another.

Recommendation for policy –makers

Leadership is a critical factor to the success of a school. Thus, principals should be given refreshment training that targeted to make them proactive in their own learning and at the same time their voices need to be heard much more in the policy formulation and in shaping the future agenda of OL.

In the studied government school, the teachers did not satisfy with CPD. Many of them complained that the existing CPD cannot prepare teachers to develop new knowledge and skills. The objective of the OL learning is not to replicate the existing knowledge and skills, but to construct the new ones. Thus, the policy- makers are required to appreciate and support bottom-up learning approach rather than prescribing top-down teachers' learning. Furthermore, if teachers are to be effective teacher- learners, it would be good organizing strong subject matter association to bring together teachers easily for professional dialogue and reflections.

Recommendations for future research

Any research cannot be complete; thus this study is not exceptional. Although it is hoped that this study answered the research questions, there are also many related questions that require deep investigation. For example, the reasons why the government school principal and vice-principals show similar leadership behaviors in managing teachers' continuous professional development require investigation. Furthermore, the question about 'to what extent the existing principals' leadership training program is relevant in making school principals transformational leaders' has to be researched.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Interview guide for secondary school Teachers

1. Would you tell me about your qualification, area of specialization, and experience in teaching profession?
2. Are you familiar with concept OL? If you are familiar what is your understanding of OL?
3. Please, would you tell me your view about the importance and the how of organizational learning at the school level?
4. What are the major learning strategies in your school?
5. How do you evaluate your school principal's leadership roles in modeling the way for OL?
6. Would you explain the procedures and participation of teachers in setting the school's vision, and goals?
7. How do you evaluate the culture of the school management in setting the vision and goals of the school?
8. What leadership behaviors / actions encourage/ hinder OL?
9. From your experience, in what specific ways school principal encourages teachers for OL?
10. To what extent the school principal is committed to encourage inquiry, professional dialogue to improve learning?
11. Do you think that your professional needs are addressed through organizational learning?
12. In your opinion, to what extent diversity of opinions are respected and valued by the staff and school principal?
13. How do you judge the overall conduciveness of the organizational climate to enhance organizational learning?
14. To what extent the current organizational learning is relevant to your professional need?

Additional questions for newly employed teachers

15. How do you evaluate the commitment of the school principal in facilitating induction program?
16. How do evaluate senior teachers and school principal's roles in shaping your belief of the profession?

Appendix B

Interview guide for secondary school principals and vice-principals

1. Please, would you tell me about your qualification, area of specialization and service years in teaching and leadership position?
2. How do you define the concept OL?
3. What is your understanding about the importance of OL in schools?
4. What are the major strategies of OL in your school?

5. Would explain some of the strategies you use to motivate teachers for organizational learning?
6. How do you shape the school's culture to facilitate OL?
7. What specific roles do you play as a leader in creating sustainable organizational learning culture in your school?
8. Is there a culture that encourages, recognizes and celebrates innovative ideas and achievements?
9. How do you evaluate the teachers' willingness and commitment to update their subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills?
10. What potential challenges have you faced in leading the teachers for organizational learning?

Observation checklist

NO	Items	Yes	NO
1	The school teachers work together to improve the students' learning		
2	There is specified time for teachers to learn from each other.		
3	There are well-identified learning strategies for teachers in the school.		
4	The relationship between the school management and teachers is smooth and collegial in its nature.		
5	The leadership and management roles of the school principal are balanced.		
6	The best performances are recognized and appreciated by the school principal.		
7	The setting of the agenda of the staff meeting is participatory.		
8	New ideas are welcomed while staff meeting.		
9	All teachers show active participation on staff meeting.		