STUDENTS PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNANCE AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL: A KENYAN PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTION

BY

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DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

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DEDICATION

For my dear Mother Kwamboka and my Late Father Moses;

For always believing in me with great pride.

And

For my beloved Children: Kwamboka and Moses Junior;

For being the inspiration of everything I do;

And for the inspiration you will both need to soar to the greatest heights of education.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perception of Kenyan secondary school Principals on student participation in school governance. The objectives of the study related to the leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance, the existing modes of student leadership in school governance, the correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance, and the strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance. The study adopted a mixed methods research design and targeted public secondary school Principals and their Deputy Principals from the Central Rift region of Kenya. 202 secondary school Principals, 202 Deputy Principals, and 2 Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association (KSSHA) officials were sampled for the study; giving a total sample size of 406 respondents. The sample for the study was chosen using cluster, simple random and purposive sampling techniques. Two different semi – structured questionnaires were used to collect data from the principals and Deputy Principals. Data from the 2 KSSHA officials was collected through interviews. The data collected was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics presented in the form of frequency tables and descriptive reports; and the hypothesis for the study was tested using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r). The findings of the study showed that in most schools, there is a low level of political literacy, which is one of the key literacies necessary for students' participation in school governance. The findings also determined that majority of secondary schools (78.3%) have not adopted the Student Leaders Councils (SLCs) as a mode of student leadership, and that majority of school principals (62.6%) still prefer the prefect mode of student leadership over the SLC. The findings further showed that students' representation in key governance bodies in the school was still very low (11.35%) and that Principals' approval of student representation in these governance bodies was equally low. The testing of the hypothesis indicated that there is a high positive correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance ($r = .768$; $p \leq .05$). The findings of this study will be useful to policy makers, development partners and capacity building agencies in education in coming up with policy directives for student participation and content for leadership and governance training for both students and school principals. The information will also enable school principals to come up with an enabling environment for student participation in school governance in their schools.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BOG   - Board of Governors

CFS   - Child Friendly Schools

EFA   - Education for All

GOK   - Government of Kenya

IMF   - International Monetary Fund

KCSE   - Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

KEMI   - Kenya Education Management Institute

KSSHA   - Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association

KSSSC   - Kenya Secondary Schools Student Council

MOE   - Ministry of Education

NEPAD   - New Partnership on African Development

PDE   - Provincial Director of Education

PLT   - Participative Leadership Theory

PTA   - Parents Teachers Association

SAPs   - Structural Adjustment Programmes

SASA   - South African School Authority

SDC   - Students Disciplinary Committee

SLC   - Student Leaders Council

SPC   - School Planning Committee

SSA   - Sub-Saharan Africa

UK   - United Kingdom

UN   - United Nations

UNESCO   - United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNDP   - United Nations Development Programme

UNICEF   - United Nations Children Education Fund

USA   - United States of America

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background of the Study

Education stakeholders worldwide are increasingly advocating for effective governance of schools, with a call to have democratic schools where students participate in making decisions that affect their lives in school. This is aimed at bringing down the level of conflict and turbulence in schools that mostly occurs when students feel that they have not been involved in making decisions that affect them. However, this push for good governance in schools should be viewed within the larger context of democratic and authoritarian forms of political governance. Ndulo (2003) and Abraham (2005) explain that democratic governance emphasizes on reason, open-mindedness and participation in all aspects of society. In contrast, authoritarianism is a form of governance where the citizens have little or no say in how the country is run since information is never given in full and there is no regular discussion of issues, or tolerance of varied opinions. In such a system, diversity, critical thought and participation in decision making are not encouraged or are openly suppressed (Diamond, 2008).

Unfortunately, schooling in its current setting is an overwhelmingly authoritarian experience, where students have little or no say in how the school is governed, what is taught and how it is taught, and the decisions that are made on their behalf. Beaudin (2005), Bates (2006), and Gordon and Patterson (2006) point out that school is mostly a hierarchical experience and learning is a passive process of absorbing information selected by others. Street and Temperley (2006) support this observation by pointing out that the student, who holds a central place in the school, is often forgotten or taken

for granted when important decisions are being made. Such lack of student participation in decision making leads to the students opposing decisions made by the school administration, resulting in conflict that is often manifested as student indiscipline or student unrest in schools.

In Kenya, for instance, secondary schools have continuously been plagued with sporadic incidences of student unrest and violence. The first recorded strike in a Kenyan school occurred in Maseno School in 1908 (Sifuna, 2000). Since then, numerous strikes, characterized by violence and massive destruction of property, have occurred in schools across the country. The number of secondary schools that experienced unrest in Kenya reached its peak in 2008, with 300 secondary schools across the country reporting incidences of unrest (GOK, 2008; Kaluoch, 2010; Iravo, 2011; Simatwa, 2012). The impact of such incidences of unrest in schools has vast implications for the schools and students. Teachers have less time to deliver teaching, school property is destroyed and even lives are lost. Some of the worst recorded incidences of violence in Kenyan secondary schools that have had such implications include the St. Kizito Mixed Secondary School tragedy in 1991, where 19 girls perished when their male counterparts invaded their dormitory and gang – raped them, before setting the dormitory on fire; the arson attack at Kyanguli Secondary School in 2001 that left 68 boys burnt to death; and the Nyeri High School incidence in 1999 when some students set ablaze a prefects' cubicle, killing 4 of the prefects who were in the cubicle (GOK, 2008).

Most students interviewed after incidences of unrest in schools attribute their actions to the administration's 'high – handedness' and a lack of consultation between the

students and the school administration when decisions that concern students are made (Sifuna, 2000; GOK, 2001; GOK, 2008; Kindiki, 2009; UNICEF, 2009; Mule, 2011). As a result, there has been an increased emphasis for good governance in schools by adopting a structure that allows students to participate in school governance. Moos (2008) argues that there is need for school Principals to move away from the hierarchical and authoritarian forms of school governance to a system that emphasizes collaboration, participation and education for democracy. In support of this argument, Eacott (2011) emphasizes that school Principals should ensure that there are formal mechanisms in place to allow all students to regularly share their views and to participate in decision making on matters which affect them directly. These mechanisms should allow for consultation and active participation on a range of issues, so as to overcome authoritarian school environments and encourage democracy in schools. A report by UNESCO (2007) also found out that students want to be involved in making decisions about their schools, since being free to express opinions and contribute to decisions and policy making in their schools translates into comprehensive participation of students in school governance.

A report by Plan International (2008) on a study of more than 1200 schools in the United States (US), and a study by Davies (2006) on School Councils in the United Kingdom (UK) showed that schools where school Principals allow for students' participation in decision making have a stronger chance of success at effective school governance. This is because aggression diminishes when students feel supported and listened to by their teachers and the school administration. Gatt (2005) also reports that some genuine progress has been seen in the improvement of school governance in Scottish schools when the school administration treats students with respect and

involves them in decision making through Student Leaders Councils (SLC). The involvement of students in decision making was made possible by the Scottish Schools Act which ruled that school Principals should find out what students think by setting up consultation bodies such as the student council. The students, through the council, are fully involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that guide the schools in their daily operations. Involvement of students in decision making is also evident in El Salvador where a Plan International initiative that started in 2004 with 50 schools offers guidelines to school Principals on how to encourage student participation in the drafting of their rules, thus instilling a culture of self-regulation and respect for the school environment. The step by step manual towards school co-existence and students' participation was launched by El Salvador's Minister of Education in November 2007 as a mandatory tool for all schools in El Salvador (Plan International, 2008).

Legislation has also made student councils mandatory in all secondary schools in South Africa. The South African School Authority (SASA) has created a school governance landscape based on participation and partnership between the state, parents, students, school staff and communities; as well as devolution of power to these key education stakeholders. Tikly (1997), Weber (2002), Sayed (2002), Spillane et' al (2004) and Lewis and Naidoo (2004) all observe that South Africa has moved further than any other Sub-Saharan African (SSA) country in introducing student participation in the governance of its schools on a national level, thus enhancing democratic practice and reducing conflict in schools. In Tanzania, there is a 'Voice of Children' project that aims at giving a voice to students to advocate for their rights, especially in schools. Through the Voice of Children, students are able to express

their opinions and make recommendations on various aspects of their schools. As a result of the project, students in Tanzania are involved in the decision-making processes of some schools. This involvement has had a positive impact in more than one area of school governance. For example, some districts have added more teachers to their schools after receiving direct requests from students (Plan International, 2008).

In Kenya, a National Baseline Survey on Child Participation in School Governance was conducted by UNICEF (2009) in response to the spontaneous and widespread unrest in Kenyan secondary schools, especially during the middle of 2008. The findings of the survey showed that there is dire need to involve all stakeholders, and more especially the student, in matters of school governance. The survey proposed that school Principals should enhance student participation in school governance through representation of students in key decision making panels at both school and national levels. However, the UNICEF (2009) survey only provided baseline information on the level and need for student participation in various aspects of school governance, without fully exploring the exact nature and extent of student participation in school governance.

Other studies on students' participation as a possible mechanism of addressing student unrest and violence in Kenyan schools have advocated for the prefect mode of student leadership to be replaced by the more representative mode of Student Leaders Council (SLC), so as to enable participation of students in school governance. (Muindi, 2010; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011). The findings of these studies indicate that in schools that have experienced indiscipline and unrest issues, students

have raised the failure to involve the students in decisions on matters that affect them, school Principals' highhandedness, and lack of consultation as key causes of indiscipline and unrest.

Thus, programmes addressing effective school governance through students' participation, especially at the secondary school level, need more in-depth evaluation to inform education policy makers and partners. It would be especially important to gain more information on Principals' perceptions on how student participation interventions could be replicated across schools so that students can be effectively involved in school governance.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Secondary schools in Kenya have continuously experienced a crisis of conflict, student unrest and violence. In the period of 2000/2001, over 250 secondary schools were reported to have gone on strike, with this number increasing to 300 in February – July 2008. Overly, the number of reported incidences of unrest in Kenyan secondary schools has increased from 0.9% to 7.5%   between the years 1980 – 2008 (GOK, 2001; GOK, 2008; Kaluoch, 2010; Iravo, 2011; Simatwa, 2012). If this rising trend of turbulence and conflict in schools is left unchecked, Kenyan secondary schools will continue to experience declining standards of discipline, destruction of school property and even loss of lives. Most studies and reports have largely attributed such incidences of student unrest to non – participation of students in school governance. (Sifuna, 2000; GOK, 2001; UNESCO, 2007; GOK, 2008; UNICEF, 2009; Kindiki, 2009; Mule, 2011). Specific studies on the participation of students in school governance as a possible mechanism of addressing student unrest and violence have

advocated for the prefect mode of student leadership to be replaced by the more representative mode of Student Leaders Council (SLC), so as to enable effective participation of students in school governance (UNICEF, 2009; Muindi, 2010; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011).

However, the studies cited above have failed to explore fundamental leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance. The understanding of such literacies is critical in training student leaders on the right values and skills needed for participation in school governance. Further, the studies have mainly centered on students and teachers as the key respondents, thus, very little literature exists on Principals' perceptions on student participation in school governance in the Kenyan context. Development of such literature is important since meaningful student participation in school governance will not be realized without the Principals' support and approval.

Consequently, the information resulting from this study will be useful to policy makers, development partners, capacity building agencies and administrators in education, especially the MOE, UNICEF, KEMI and school Principals, as it will inform policy directives and content for leadership training for both students and school principals, and also enable the nurturing of democratic principles in schools. This will create an enabling environment for student participation in school governance; with the ultimate aim of reducing conflict and unrest in schools.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the perception of school Principals on student participation in school governance in Kenyan secondary schools.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were:

i)   To examine Principals' perceptions on the leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

ii)   To establish Principals' perceptions on the existing modes of student leadership in secondary schools in Kenya.

iii)   To determine Principals' perceptions on student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

iv)   To correlate student participation and enhanced school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

v)   To explore strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

1.5 Research Questions

From the objectives stated above, the following research questions were drawn:

i)   What are the Principals' perceptions on the leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya?

ii)   What are Principals' perceptions on the existing modes of student leadership in secondary schools in Kenya?

iii)   What are Principals' perceptions on student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya?

iv)   What is the correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance in secondary schools in Kenya?

v)   What are the strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance in secondary schools in Kenya?

1.6 Research Hypothesis

The study utilized one hypothesis since the key variables of the study were reflected in one of the objectives (objective iv) from which the hypothesis was formulated. The hypothesis was stated in null form thus:

Ho$_1$: There is no statistically significant correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

(p ≤ 0.05).

1.7 Justification for the Study

This study was necessitated by the fact that most secondary schools in Kenya have been unsuccessful in the management of conflict and have continued to experience sporadic cases of student unrest despite the various legislations that serve as guidelines for the enhanced governance of schools. For most education stakeholders, the concern is that if the trend of turbulence and conflict in schools is left unchecked, schools will continue experiencing violence and destruction of property worth millions of shillings, and worse still, loss of students (and even teachers) lives that often result from these episodes. Further, if this trend is left unchecked, Kenya will not realize the goals and principles of key educational and socio – economic

development agendas such as those of the Child Friendly Schools (CFS), Education For All (EFA) and Vision 2030; which all emphasize democratic leadership and advocate for practices of empowering students to take part in the decision making processes of their schools.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The information resulting from the findings of this study will be useful to policy makers, development partners and capacity building agencies in education as a guide for coming up with ways of ensuring authentic student participation in school governance that will also be acceptable to school principals. Specifically, the MOE and UNICEF can use these findings to come up with policy directives on which areas of school governance students should participate in and which ones they should not. This is especially important in light of the observation by Tikoko and Kiprop (2011) that students may have to be excluded from decision making in key areas of the school due to their youth and lack of expertise. Additionally, capacity building agencies in education such as the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) can use these findings to review their curriculum to include aspects of leadership literacies to be entrenched in leadership training for both students and school principals. As argued by Brooks and Normore (2010) educational leaders, including student leaders, cannot be effective unless they develop literacy in specific knowledge areas. Further, the information from this study will also enable school principals to embed democratic principles in their schools so as to enable an environment for student participation in school governance; with the ultimate aim of reducing conflict in schools.

1.9 Scope of the Study

This study was restricted to secondary school Principals and their deputies from public secondary schools in the Central Rift region of Rift Valley. The Central Rift region was selected since it is one of the three regions of the greater Rift Valley; which recorded the second highest number of school unrests in the years 2008 and 2000/20001. Public secondary schools were used for the study because most of the incidences of unrest reported in the media occurred in public secondary schools as opposed to private secondary schools.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

One key limitation in conducting this study was the reliance on self- report by the school Principals on their perceptions on student participation in school governance; thus limiting the possibility of establishing the veracity of their responses. However, the possible effects of this limitation were mitigated by the use of more than one research instrument in the study (triangulation). In addition to the questionnaire given to the school Principals and their deputies, the researcher also interviewed other educational administrators for information on student participation in school governance.

Secondly, since the study only sampled public secondary school Principals from Central Rift region, the statistical significance of the collected data could be partial in nature, thus making it difficult to generalize the findings to other regions in the country. However, rigid sampling procedures ensured that the selected sample was representative of the population of the study, a factor that enhanced the validity and reliability of the findings for purposes of generalization to other regions.

1.11 Theoretical Framework

This study was hinged on the Participative Leadership Theory (PLT) proposed by Yukl (1998). The PLT is a proactive approach to management based on the key principles of consultation, awareness, and empowerment. At the core of PLT is democracy in modern governance; which has generally been top – down and hierarchical in nature. PLT holds the basic assumption that involvement in decision making improves the understanding of the issues involved by those who must implement the decisions. The theory further argues that people are committed to actions when they have been involved in the relevant decision making concerning those actions. Therefore, when people make decisions together, the social commitment to one another is greater and this increases their commitment to the decision, while reducing the level of conflict and competition, thus making the members of the institution more collaborative in achieving institutional goals (Coutts, 2010).

Consequently, a participative leader, rather than taking autocratic decisions, seeks to involve other people in the decision making process. By so doing, the participative leader brings transformation and purpose to the institution. Murphy (2005) emphasizes that a leader can achieve high results and better cooperation by using participative leadership since it increases the morale and motivation of institutional members. However, the level of participation may depend on the nature of the decision being made, and it is still within the leader's whim to give or deny control to the people in the decision making process.

Thus, the question of how much influence is given to others in the decision making process may vary depending on the leader's perceptions, preferences and beliefs. However, as Kara and Loughlin (2013) observe, participative leadership cannot be used by a leader who is insecure and striving for power. This is because the fundamental principle of the theory is based on power – sharing and the sharing of responsibilities over more people rather than one central figure. In a school setting, a school principal who cannot share the responsibility of decision – making with key stake holders, including the students, cannot be said to be participative.

One of the key strengths of participative leadership is diversity. Diversity brings together peoples' differences so that specific strengths of diverse people can be exploited for the common good of the institution. As observed by Riojas and Flores (2007) schools reflect a wide diversity of the country's population in terms of culture, language and socio – economic backgrounds. Thus, the participative school leader should use these differences to establish a common culture of openness, respect and appreciation of individual differences. In participative leadership, people are also encouraged to learn and develop. The need for democratic leadership means that it is not just one person in the school (the Principal) who will be trained and encouraged to develop in leadership; but rather, every member of the school involved in leadership should be engaged with growth and training in various leadership skills. This argument justifies capacity building as one of the values explored under student participation in this study, since it is assumed that student (leaders) have unique abilities and leadership talents that can be enhanced through capacity building and used for participative leadership in the school.

However, participative leadership is not without disadvantages. Mate (2013) reports that one major flaw of PLT is the amount of time it takes to make decisions. By having to consult all the stakeholders in the decision process, the principal decision maker takes more time than would have been spent if the decision was made individually. The PLT also does not work well where those being consulted lack the necessary skills and knowledge to make key decisions. This may be the case in a school set – up where students lack expertise in some key technical decision areas of the school. Ray (2012) also observes that, in as much as one of the principles of participative leadership is information sharing, sometimes, leaders may not need to share information of sensitive decision areas, especially if it is not imperative for everyone to be privy to such information. However, in PLT, leaders are forced to share vital information, regardless of its sensitive nature. This can lead to possible conflict among the members of the institution; thus defeating and contradicting the principle of conflict reduction using PLT.

The PLT was used to derive the variables that were explored in this study. One key variable is students' participation, which entails the involvement of students in decision making. There is the assumption that if students are involved in making decisions on issues that affect them in the school, they will 'own' the decisions made and this will lead to enhanced governance and reduced conflict in the school. For this to be achieved, the school Principal would have to be a participative leader who seeks to involve students in the governance of the school. However, in as much as school Principals may maintain that they practice participative leadership, they are still the primary decision makers in the school and thus retain the right to restrict, allow, or dismiss input from other members of the school. Thus the decision making power

given to students, and their consequent participation in school governance, will be moderated by the Principals' perceptions of, and level of support given to, student participation in school governance. Other aspects of student participation explored in the study, such as training, areas of consultation and tolerance and respect for diversity, were also drawn from the PLT.

1.12 Conceptual Framework

Based on the PLT discussed above, the key variables for this study were identified and conceptualized as shown in Figure 1. The conceptual framework also helps to link the independent variable (student participation) to the dependent variable (school governance) in a logical manner. It is evident from both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that participation is a crucial component of enhanced governance. If this concept is well adopted in schools, it is expected that students' participation will affect school governance in a positive way. Hence, student participation and its individual facets; including sensitization, representation and capacity building, is hypothesized in this study to be a predictor of enhanced school governance.

However, as the theoretical framework propounds, the leader plays a crucial role in either giving or denying participatory power to the people involved in the decision making process. This means that, the Principals' perception is a moderating variable that will influence students' participation in school governance, as indicated in the conceptual framework. Consequently, the opinion of the principal on student participation, and the level of support to student participation on the part of the Principal is critical in determining the level of intended participation of students in

school governance; as it will determine how much approval and support the principal
will offer to student participation in school governance.

Intervening Variable

Principals' Perceptions
- Opinion
- Support

Independent Variable (IV)

Dependent Variable (DV)

Student Participation
- Sensitization
- Representation
- Training

School Governance
- Enhanced
- Poor

Principals' Perceptions
- Consultation
- Approval

Intervening Variable
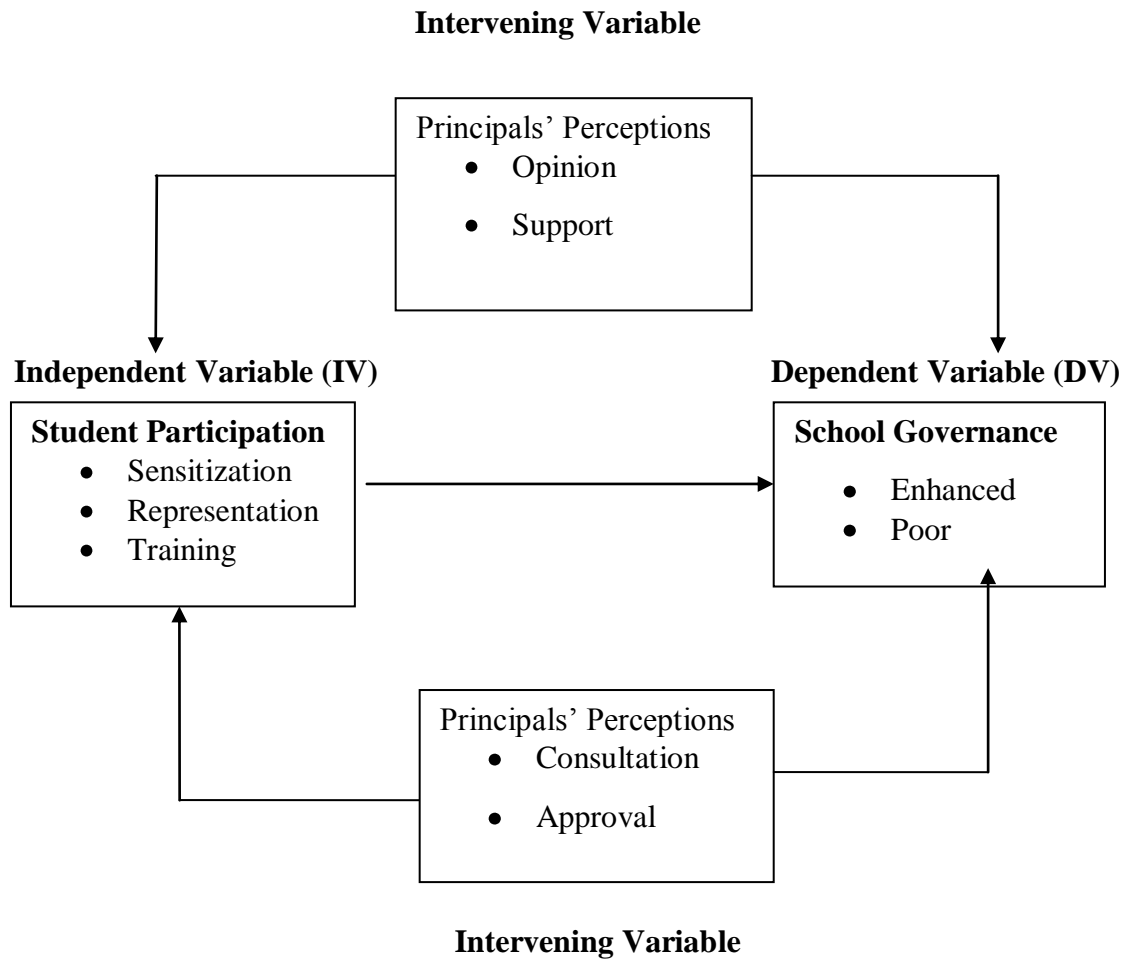
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

(Source: Researcher: 2013)

1.13 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Student Participation -** Student Participation is the involvement of students in the making of decisions that govern the school (Gordon and Patterson, 2006).

- **School Governance -** School Governance refers to the overall management of a school (UNDP, 1995).

- **Principals -** Principals are teachers who are appointed to be in charge of the day to day running of the school and to oversee the implementation of government policies on education in their schools (Wango, 2009).

- **Perception –** Perception refers to the attitude or opinion formed towards something (Nzuve, 2007).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature for this study was reviewed under the following subtitles: The Concept of School Governance, Leadership Literacies that Influence Student Participation in School Governance, Modes of Student Leadership in School Governance; Principals' Perceptions on Student Participation in School Governance; and Enhancing School Governance through Students' Participation. A summary of the literature and the gap in knowledge is also discussed.

2.1 The Concept of School Governance

Bennaars (1993) defines a school as a social unit, characterized by a system of coordinated activity and established to achieve specific goals or aims. For the activities in the school to be coordinated and the goals achieved, then it is essential for the school to be effectively governed. Ainley and Mackenzie (2000) point out that governance issues in the school include organization of the curriculum, financial management, personnel management, student discipline, and resource allocation.

The idea of what constitutes effective school governance has been an issue of debate for the past two decades. Hallinger (2003) points out that debate over the most suitable governance structure for schools has been dominated by two conceptual models, each recognizable by the particular way in which the educational leader makes decisions so as to bring about improved educational outcomes. The first is the hierarchical instructional model that emphasizes a clearly defined structure of authority. Instructional governance identifies strong, directive leadership focused on

instruction from the Principal who is the centre of expertise, power and authority. In such a system, the school Principal wields complete authority over all that goes on in the school. The lines of communication all move downward and there is no provision for students to have their views heard. The values that are enforced in such a system are those that are needed for the efficient functioning of bureaucratic organization and maintenance of social order. These values include, obedience, abiding by the rules, loyalty, respect for authority, quietness, working on a strict timetable, tolerance of monotony and ignoring of personal needs. (Bates: 2006, Street and Temperley: 2006).

Kirby (1992) and Finnigan (2010) argue that this kind of governance is transactional in nature as it is based on an exchange relationship of follower compliance for expected rewards. Hence, the educational leader makes no pretence about the fact that they are in charge. The leaders are decisive, quick to size up a situation and move the school in the direction they believe is best for everyone. Eacott (2011) further points out that in such a system, the school Principal acts on behalf of 'the system' rather than for the interest of the student.

In the second model of school governance, the transformational model, there are no links of authority operating as in the first model. Rather than focus on direct control, supervision and instruction by the Principal, transformational school governance seeks to build the school capacity by distributing authority and power through a shared vision and shared commitment to school change (Spencer: 1998, Murphy et al: 2009, Rhodes and Brundrett: 2009). Thus, transformational governance does not assume that the Principal alone will provide the leadership needed in the school. The

Principal is also geared towards understanding the school members rather than controlling them towards desired ends.

The transformational model, rather than emphasizing top-down leadership, focuses on stimulating change through bottom up participation. Essentially, transformational governance is democratic in nature and the school operates by having representatives of all the interest groups, including students, in the school in decision – making forums; with the school Principal taking the role of the coordinator of views from the different units that make up the school. Seashore et' al (2010) argue that the success of such a system is measured by two broad criteria; first, the extent to which the students' priorities and needs drive institutional decision making, and secondly, the outcomes, that is tangible benefits in terms of services provided as well as the intangible benefit of student empowerment.

For school governance to be enhanced, and for democracy to exist and survive, it requires that schools are governed using the transformational, democratic model so that students are inculcated with democratic values. In support of this argument, Barasa (2007), Moller et al (2005) and Moos (2008) aptly point out that education should be based on democratic principles and schools should serve the functional role of inculcating the virtues of leadership, democracy and participatory processes in their students. Such a democratic school environment, where students participate in decision making at all levels, has numerous implications on school governance. In a democratic school, students would be expected to be involved in some way in school governance, usually through some form of elected student council which has some

powers over matters of significance to students, and on which their views are represented along with parents and teachers.

However, in Kenya, Principals and BOGs of secondary schools are vested with the power to make decisions that impact on students' without consulting the students (Kindiki, 2009). For instance, the Principal and the BOG have the power to suspend or expel students without giving them an opportunity to be heard. However, as Sifuna (2000) points out, there are times when students often revolt against this oppressive nature of school governance, by going on strike. Most of the strikes in schools reflect deeper feelings of frustration by the students. As social people, students think, decide and act with and through others so as to have their views heard. This means that the violence witnessed in most secondary schools is rarely an impulsive act. Instead, large scale violence in schools is generated by smaller issues left undressed.

This is not a situation that is unique to Kenyan secondary schools alone. As Fagbongbe (2005) reports, a conference of Principals of post- primary schools in Nigeria noted that poor communication between school heads and students leads to misunderstandings and generates suspicion and indiscipline in schools, thus making school governance ineffective. This echoes UNESCO's (2007) observation that:

> *School violence is like a volcano which bubbles below the surface*
> *for a long time then suddenly erupts* (UNESCO 2007:23).

However, the concept of school governance has to be viewed within the wider context of political governance. Assefa et' al (2001), Ndulo (2003) Abraham (2005) and Diamond (2008) observe that governance in Africa is in a state of transition with two powerful trends vying for dominance. One is the long standing organization of

African politics and states around autocratic personal rulers; highly centralized and hierarchical. The other is the surge of democratic impulses, principles and institutions governed through transformational leadership. Under a democracy, disputes that arise are likely to be processed, debated, and reacted to; thus managing conflict effectively. In contrast to democracy, authoritarianism is a form of governance where the government is not representative of the people, there is no free political choice and the government is not accountable (Mc Ferson: 2010 and Gilley: 2009).

While initially clear that the goal of political governance was some form of representative democracy, the conspicuous instability of post-colonial governments in Africa leading to a pattern of civil war, revolution and military coups brought about an increasing emphasis on stability and order as more desirable than representation, accountability and human rights. Thus, authoritarian regimes were considered acceptable, even preferable, as a means for social and economic development. However, since the late 1980's, democracy and transformation have increasingly become acknowledged as the goal of political development and effective governance. The UNDP has defined effective governance as the responsible, participatory, transparent, accountable and effective exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels. (UNDP: 1995).

Consequently, African countries have increasingly adopted policies supporting democracies. In addition, Western development agencies have pegged financial support on democratic political reform in developing countries As Ndulo (2003) indicates, international financial institutions, notably the World Bank and the

International Monetary Fund (IMF) foisted Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) with conditionalities as a standard reform package. Donor Pressure has also mounted for good governance with the most recent economic initiative on Africa; the New Partnership on African Development (NEPAD) recognizing that development has, as one of its foundations, the expansion of democratic principles and the deepening culture of human rights. Internal pressure for democratic change and good governance in Africa has also come from trade unions, intellectuals, students, religious groups and the media. In Gilley's (2009) words, democratic governance is not just possible, but necessary, in Africa.

As a result of the clamour for democratic and transformational governance in developing countries, there has been a renewed interest in the question of how to create a culture that is composed of values and behaviours that are supportive of democracy, and that will help to support it in the long run. Mc Ferson (2010), Abraham (2005), Ndulo (2003) and Sifuna (2000) all agree that for democracy to flourish, there must be a politically literate and active citizenry who take a direct and personal responsibility in the workings of society, including the government. However, such democratic behaviour is not genetically conditioned, inborn or inherited, but is acquired or learned.

Among the structures in society that can be used to achieve this objective is the school. As emphasized by Bates (2006), the school is a meeting point of a large number of inter - tangled social relationships. This essentially means that a school is a place which has been specifically arranged and intended so that people may learn things. According to Arthur and Davison (2000), society expects schools to teach

students the values of democracy and a range of social skills necessary for democratic citizenship and practice, which will prepare students to understand and act on their rights and responsibilities. Bottery (2000) further argues that as part of the learning process, students have both a need and a right to be involved in the running and governance of schools. This will entail replacing the prevailing authoritarian model of educational governance with more democratic forms of governance including partnerships with students for participatory decision making processes regarding planning, implementation and resource allocation. This will require school structures in which students are consulted and given opportunities to experience leadership responsibly.

2.2 Leadership Literacies that Influence Student Participation in School Governance

Brooks and Normore (2010) argue that the preparation and practice of leadership and governance in education must be rethought to be relevant for the 21st century schools; and educational leaders, including student leaders, must therefore develop knowledge in specific domains such as cultural literacy, moral literacy, political literacy, spiritual literacy and religious literacy. Each of these domains of literacy is dynamic and interconnected; and ultimately determines the nature of governance in the school.

2.2.1 Cultural Literacy

Riojas and Flores (2007) define cultural literacy as a purposeful attempt to provide students with a common core of knowledge, skills and values. In this regard, culture is used to designate not merely something to which one belongs, but something that one possesses. To be a member of a culture, one must possess a fair amount of knowledge concerning the culture; its norms, rules, rituals and values. Jones (2003) argues that

this knowledge lies at the heart of cultural literacy and is brought into play when people respond to cultural norms in the same way. Acceptance and valuing of these norms, values and routines, and a desire to have them remain, translates to cultural loyalty and literacy.

However, schools are mosaics that reflect a wide diversity of the country's population. Sadly, students' differences in culture, language and socio – economic background are often viewed from a negative perspective. Thus, the role of the school is to use these differences to establish a common culture of openness, respect and appreciation of individual differences. Riojas and Flores (2007) underscore the importance of students in the school being made to communicate and live through a shared body of cultural knowledge or common vocabulary that is unique to their school. Through this commonality, students will achieve a cultural literacy and a cultural identity.

Cultural identity and literacy in a school can be acquired and reflected through the guiding philosophies and statements expressed either as school mottos, missions or visions. Jones (2003) emphasizes that in the school, there should be a philosophy that relates to leadership, and this philosophy should be internalized by all members of the school, and should guide and determine the nature of activities in the school. Daly and Chrispeels (2008) argue that such philosophies are second only to teaching in having an effect on students' values. For instance, through the school's mission and vision, students can be taught positive values such as tolerance and respect, and new rules of conduct which are specific to the school and aimed at avoiding intolerance and

violence. By instilling such values in the students, the school can prepare the youth for life and leadership in a democratic and pluralistic society.

2.2.2 Moral Literacy

The leadership culture of any school should also seek to enhance moral literacies within the school. Moral literacy constitutes an ability to recognize and interpret moral facts and values; and this ability is a necessary condition for moral judgment and action (Walker et al 2007). The values encompassed under moral literacy include values such as honesty, fairness, respect, responsibility, caring, flexibility, self – regulation, and high tolerance for ambiguity (Christians, 2004). When students are made aware of such values, they can gain understanding of responsible leadership and learn practices that can result in a morally literate student body that respects and upholds moral values; and that offers positive leadership to both the school and society.

Sankar (2003) and Rintoul (2010) contend that the moral literacy of the leader is connected to the leaders' character; and that the leader is empowered, through that character to serve as a mentor to others in the institution on matters to do with moral literacy and leadership. This means that in a school where moral literacy exists, the leaders, including student leaders, are able to guide other members of the school community on the acceptable moral fiber of the school through deliberate role modeling. This view is emphasized by Tuana (2007) who argues that leadership must struggle to lift the moral literacies in a school, and that teaching students about moral literacy is very necessary for schools to produce productive and responsible citizens who can act in a morally literate fashion.

Thus, school Principals and their staff should be willing to articulate positive ideals and convictions to students and make an effort to live these convictions as role models to their students. Further, as Leonard (2007) points out, moral literacy perspectives should be incorporated into student leadership certification and training programs, in an effort to help form their character and aid them in achieving moral literacy and developing standards of right and wrong to guide them in their role as student leaders. However, Walker et al (2007) also emphasize that school Principals must also simultaneously develop their own moral literacy, alongside that of students, through promoting and structuring school wide participatory moral dialogue. This will involve sharing purpose, and acknowledging criticism from the students, through their leaders. Ultimately, if the members of the school have developed moral literacy, accepting instrumental changes in school governance can alter familiar practices and lead to the embracing of new and better ways of school governance (Herman, 2007).

2.2.3 Political Literacy

Leadership and governance in schools is also political in nature and this affects the efficiency of the school governance system, especially with regard to student participation. It is therefore vital for both the students and the school administration to develop political literacy for enhanced participation of students in school governance. According to Achinstein (2006), politically literate people understand differences in opinion, are aware of their rights, and participate in key processes of their institutions. Such awareness and participation in a school setting will be signified by sensitization of students on their right to participate in school leadership and governance, and their representation in key governance and decision making bodies in the school.

However, scholars of the politics of education have long argued that schools operate under edgy political environments. Consequently, educational leaders and school administrators find themselves in a continually controversial arena and struggle to look for ways of balancing, directing, controlling, manipulating and surviving school politics. This necessitates that students incorporated in school governance must be made aware of this edgy environment of school leadership and governance. As Lindell and Whitney (2002) point out, most student leaders would be unprepared for school politics and the conflicts they will most definitely experience with the school administration, their colleagues and school policies. For their effective participation, the student leaders would thus need to be trained on how to act in the school's political climate so as to address the different levels of conflict. The students must therefore be trained to acquire the necessary skills needed to balance, direct, control and manipulate so as to participate in school leadership and governance. Mule (2011) emphasizes this aspect of training by arguing that student leaders should continuously be sent for seminars, conferences and talks on various aspects of leadership.

2.2.4 Religious and Spiritual Literacy

Another vital component of leadership and governance in a school is the level of religious and spiritual literacy. Vogel (2000) points out that spirituality is a broader more inclusive term than religion. Spirituality connotes a personal, internalized set of beliefs and experiences; while religion organizes these beliefs and experiences into collective practices associated with particular institutions. Religion and spirituality are built upon the premise that order, continuity and stability are essential to any institution, and thus strive to bring order, creativity and stability through specific doctrines, practices, and value system (Riaz & Nomore, 2008).

Meehan (2002) explains that, spirituality inspires creativity, inquiry and transformative conduct. Thus, the 'spirit' that is prevalent in a school will determine whether the members of that school will adopt a transformative attitude that will lead to positive changes in key areas of the school such as academic performance, sports and student discipline. Transformation in student discipline is especially critical in reducing the level of conflict and violence in schools. Additionally, ideas on democratization and student participation in school governance will not work if the spirit is lacking in both the students and the school administration. This is because spirituality is an attitude that recognizes something called 'the spirit', and the spirit requires us to know what we have accepted, why we have accepted it or why we are rejecting it (Vogel, 2000). Thus, to embrace a positive 'spirit' that shows a belief in student participation in school governance, school principals need to be allowed to talk about what they are doing and why; in relation to student participation. The principal's role in this case would be to open up avenues of discussion for the other key stakeholders and encourage effective communication for the right 'spirit' to be embraced.

2.3 Modes of Student Leadership in School Governance

Student participation in school governance can only be possible through some form of student leadership through which students can be represented and involved in school governance. However, in spite of the perceived role of the school in instilling leadership literacies and democratic values in students through its leadership and governance structures, the mode of school governance put forward by Western education, and adapted in Kenyan schools, is essentially bureaucratic, instructional

and authoritarian in nature. Bennaars (1993) points out that bureaucratic organizations are marked by a formal hierarchy of positions and by a predetermined set of rules governing activities and relations through authority and autocratic leadership. In such a case, student rights are not a major concern and decisions are made by very few people at the top of the hierarchy, and then executed down the chain of command. As Street and Temperley (2006) the school leader in such a system is mostly preoccupied with authority, decision making and leadership; while students are discussed under the headings of alienation, performance and control.

One aspect of this inherited school system that has been criticized heavily as contravening democratic values is the existence of the prefect system, as a mode of student leadership. This is a system of appointing some students to be in charge of the others in the school and to oversee aspects of students' organization such as checking lateness, reporting misbehaviour to teachers, ensuring order in the classes and dormitories and organizing the cleanliness of the school. In some schools, prefects are also used to mete out discipline to other students. Prefects usually have their authority reinforced by some form of identification, like a difference in their school uniform or wearing of badges (Sifuna, 2000).

A study conducted by Mugali (2011) established that there were prefects in all the secondary schools governance systems in Kenya. Further, the study pointed out that the way in which prefects are appointed establishes the style in which they perform their duties, and their relationship with other students in the school. If the prefects are appointed by the school administration, they will naturally look to the school Principal as their source of immediate authority. Consequently, the other students will

tend to regard the prefects as remote and authoritarian figures. Findings from a similar study by Simatwa (2012) indicated that the prefects in majority of Kenyan schools are appointed by the school Principal with limited consultation and total disregard of the opinion of other students; and their role includes reporting to the school administration about other students and even members of staff. Consequently, there exists a poor relationship between the prefects and the student body since the other students are dissatisfied with the role and significance of the appointed prefects in representing the student body.

This is an implication that the prefect mode of student leadership is usually not an effective form of students' participation or expression of students' power; since its existence is based on satisfying the authorities rather than serving the student body. According to Tikoko and Kiprop (2011), the prefect system creates a unidirectional flow of orders and communication and provides no channels for students to communicate with the school administration. Decisions on matters concerning students' welfare are made by the school administration with no consultation with the student body; and then passed down to the students through the prefects, with no provision for the students to have their views heard. Consequently, any attempts by the students to have a say in the running of the school is viewed with great disapproval and sometimes punishment. This results in resentment from the students and heightened conflict that has even led to attacks on school prefects by other students as revenge for being reported to school authorities, as was the case in the death of four prefects in Nyeri High School in 1999 (GOK, 2008).

School Principals, who are often used to the bureaucratic nature of the school structure, see nothing wrong or undemocratic in the appointment of prefects. However, some schools, especially in the USA, UK and South Africa have adopted an alternative mode of student leadership in school governance; that of the Students Leaders Council (SLC) (Huddleston, 2007). According to Gatt (2005), a SLC is a group of students, usually elected by other students, who meet regularly to listen to what the students have to say, and decide what needs to be done to make the school a better place and how it can be done; and then present these views to the school administration. The students, through the SLC, are fully involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that the schools operate on.

Arthur et al (2008) note that SLCs are an essential feature of a school that promotes active political literacy and democracy. This is because SLCs have the capacity to send powerful messages to all students about the possibilities of participation in school governance and about their value and worth within the school and beyond. The principle of the right of students to express their views and concerns while respecting the rights of others are both enshrined and made real by the presence of an active SLC in the school. Studies conducted in the US, UK, Scotland, Elsalvador and South Africa have shown that schools where school Principals allow for students' participation in school governance, through the SLC, have recorded diminished aggression and conflict from students; since the students feel supported and listened to by the school administration through their student leaders. Additionally, such participation has instilled a culture of self-regulation and respect for the school environment in the students (Plan International, 2008; Davies, 2006; Gatt, 2005; Sayed, 2002, Spillane et' al, 2004 and Lewis & Naidoo, 2004).

In Kenya, the Ministry of Education in conjunction with UNICEF rolled out the student leadership programme in secondary schools in 2009, through the formation of the Kenya Secondary Schools Student Council (KSSSC). The KSSSC is comprised of Kenyan students from both public and private schools who meet yearly to discuss ways of enhancing student participation in school governance; with the aim of increasing student participation in school governance and protecting the traditions of democratic leadership (Mule, 2011). As part of the requirement for this programme, every school in Kenya was required to put in place a SLC, through which students could participate in school governance (UNICEF, 2009).

Muindi (2010) reports that during the 2nd national KSSSC conference, students overwhelmingly voted to end the reign of school prefects and have elected SLCs in schools; by arguing that the prefect mode of student leadership promoted a master – servant relationship between the appointed school prefects and the other students and was thus inconsistent to the principles of a democratic society. In line with this argument, findings from studies done by Tikoko and Kiprop (2011) and Mule (2011) report that in schools where the SCL mode of student leadership has been adopted, the student leaders in the council are able to work and relate more closely with their peers than the prefects appointed by teachers. This is attributed to the fact that the SLC is elected by students who consider the members of the SLC as their 'leaders' as opposed to considering them 'masters' over the other students, as is the case with the prefect mode of student leadership. As a result, discipline and cooperation amongst students is enhanced and those elected as leaders are able to develop a sense of responsibility and leadership skills

2.4 Significance of Principals' Perception on Student Participation in School Governance

The Focal role of the Principal in school governance has been emphasized in studies by Ainley and Mackenzie (2000), Hale and Moorman (2003), Gunn et al (2005) and Ryan and Rottman (2009). These studies have established that Principals play a central role in both the everyday operations of the school and in school governance by shaping the school's beliefs, internal processes, climates and relationships. Finnigan (2010) further identifies Principals as the policy mediators who are responsible for responding to policy initiatives by re-conceptualizing and implementing the policies in their schools. Therefore, as McClure (2000) rightly points out, in as much as the government may pass a policy on student participation in school governance, the policy would be but a guiding framework, and the Principals' definitions and implementation of that policy in the school would be focal to its success. Such definitions encompass the Principals' opinion, support and approval on what student participation should entail.

Consequently, student participation in practice is structured and institutionalized through the perceptions and action of the Principal, since the Principal has the onus to define who participates, how they participate and what decisions are open to participation. As Spillane et al (2002) argue, school Principals may advocate for student participation while in reality, their actions may be focused on supporting efficient functioning of the school with little regard for extending democratic participation to students. This is especially so in light of the argument by Gordon and Patterson that:

The homage Principals receive in the school culture leads many Principals to conclude that they stand alone at the centre of the ideas, planning and executing action that drives school performance
 (Gordon and Patterson, 2006: 207).

The approval, commitment and support to student participation in school governance by school Principals would necessitate the setting up of structures that place less emphasis on their role as leaders, and more on the participation of students as key stakeholders in the governance of schools (Singh and Manser, 2008). However, according to Ryan (2009), one of the greatest impediments to authentic student participation in school governance is the fear by school Principals of losing power and control thus becoming one among equals with their students. Although Principals may have a genuine desire to relinquish power and share governance, they face the serious problem of how to successfully involve students as well as redefine their own roles and find new balances of power relationships within the school.

For instance, a study conducted by Sayeed (2002) established that in adopting student participation in South African schools, all stakeholders in their initial responses emphasized the importance of student participation in school governance. However, a more in-depth interrogation of specific stakeholder's perceptions regarding student participation in school governance revealed that school Principals do not necessarily value participation in itself for advancing democratic governance in the school. In practice then, student participation was found to be sporadic, with little more than information sharing or limited consultation, depending almost entirely on the good graces of the Principals. Such student participation that depends on what is allowed by Principals can be regarded as 'tokenism' as it allows the students to have a voice while denying them the power to ensure that their views are heeded.

In Kenya, studies on student participation carried out by Mule (2011) and Tikoko and Kiprop (2011) also concluded that student participation in secondary schools was still tokenistic in nature. This raises the question as to whether the proposed SLCs will really give students in Kenyan secondary schools a voice, or whether they will simply serve as mechanisms to contain student discontent. Unless the perceptions of key education stakeholders, especially the principal, on student participation in school governance are sought and taken into consideration, there is the inherent danger that the government's efforts to enhance student participation in school governance would only serve hypothetical ends rather than broadening students' participation in school governance in any practical way.

2.5 Enhancing School Governance through Students' Participation

With the increasing decentralization of political and administrative responsibilities to lower levels of governments, local institutions and communities, the notion of student participation has emerged as a fundamental tenet in the promotion of enhanced school governance, since one of the major objectives of education is to produce informed citizens who can participate fully and meaningfully in the governance of their society (Mosher et al, 1994). Recent studies from developed countries indicate that the increasing emergence of student participation in decision making in schools reflects the widely shared belief that flatter leadership and decentralized authority structures have the potential for promoting enhanced school governance (Keedy et al, 2001: Daly & Chrispeels, 2008 and Somech, 2010).

Student participation in school governance has thus been advocated by scholars who reject the belief that school governance should rest singularly in the Principal.

According to Gordon and Patterson (2006), Bush (2008) and Townsend (2011), the task of governing a school in the 21st century can no longer be carried out by the heroic individual leader (Principal) alone. Therefore, school Principals should not be viewed as independent actors who do not acknowledge the power or influence that other school members have in school governance. Consequently, school leadership and governance should be decentralized and distributed beyond the school Principal. (Bush and Bell, 2010 and Chance and Chance 2002).

Colemair and Glover (2010) further argue that participation of key institutional members is important in enhancing overall institutional effectiveness and reducing conflict in the school. Consequently, before making decisions on any area of school governance, the people involved or likely to be involved in the problem need to be identified and consulted. These people can either be the problem owners, the authority holders or the implementers. According to Williams and Johnson (2004), problem owners are the people most affected by the problem. These are people who may be sufficiently inconvenienced or dissatisfied by the decision outcome, and must thus participate in making the decisions.

One key group of problem owners in the school who should participate in making decisions on school governance are the students, since any decisions made in the running of the school will affect their welfare (Williams and Johnsons, 2004). In addition, students should be consulted since they often have a better understanding of the problem as they are closer to the issues that affect them. However, as Gatt (2005) and Lewis and Naidoo (2004) observe, the student, who holds a central place in the school, is often taken for granted and is never consulted on any issue. This means that

schools ought to re-define student participation in school governance so as to make it meaningful for both the school and the students. Hence, governance bodies in the school should be such that students can be represented, and consulted in making decisions on how the school is governed. Ultimately, the more the students are given an opportunity to demonstrate how much their participation can contribute to the governance of the school, the more that democratic engagement will strengthen school governance. It is important to note that democratic structures in the school, such as the SLC will not flourish in an undemocratic climate; but their presence helps to transform the school climate into a democratic one (Achinstein, 2006).

Moos (2008) argues that a democratic school climate has implications for both school governance and the curriculum. Democratic education means that democracy is lived through participation in everyday activities of school life. In terms of curriculum, it means at least some choice for students over what they learn. The democratic classroom means greater variety in teaching methods with students participating and being actively engaged in learning on a regular basis. Teachers in such a classroom believe that understanding comes from within the individual, and pupils learn through an active effort on their own part. The teacher's role, therefore, is that of a facilitator who encourages pupils to discover knowledge through active involvement in the learning process. The teacher - student relationship is thus transformed from that of students parroting de-contextualized information back to teachers, to collaborative inquiry; where students engage in constructive criticism, identify and work on problems and contribute their ideas in the learning process. Consequently, classrooms become genuine learning communities where students can understand and interpret concepts (Keedy et al, 2001).

Additionally, as Gronn (2002) stipulates, in a school where students are involved in school governance through participatory decision making, students would get an opportunity to be heard before any punishment is meted out. There would be mechanisms provided to give students a fair hearing and an appeal in case of injustice. Consequently, students will have respect and confidence in the school administration. This is very essential because as Daly and Chrispeels (2008) submit, genuine students' participation that will enhance school governance depends largely on the level of trust between the school Principal and the students. This trust is important because for Principals to talk honestly to students about what's working in the school and what's not working may imply exposing the Principal's ignorance of some issues thus making him vulnerable. It also implies that school Principal's will be open to scrutiny from students, especially on areas that require accountability.

Evidence from research findings indicate that the education system in Kenya operates on the assumption that the best way to govern the school is to reduce students to the level of docility, and not allow them any say in matters to do with school governance. However, this assumption has had negative results on school governance as evidenced in the constant hostility between students and the school administration that is usually manifested in incidences of student unrest. Such incidences of unrest are indicative of students' rejection of ideas and decisions imposed on them by school administrators without consultation and participation (Sifuna, 2000; Kindiki, 2009; Iravo, 2011; Mule 2011).

The implication here is that Students should have a forum for presenting their views on issues that affect them so as to enhance school governance, and bring down the

level of conflict between the students and the school administration. Tikoko and Kiprop (2011) argue that this can only be accomplished by overhauling the power structure within secondary schools so as to incorporate student participation in school governance. This will entail establishing open lines of communication between the students and the school administration, allowing students to organize themselves and elect leaders who present their grievances to the school administration, and shifting from the current situation where students are passive recipients of knowledge to active participation in the teaching-learning process.

Education stakeholders have proposed the setting up of elected SLCs, as opposed to appointed school prefects, as a way of enhancing school governance through student participation. Such student councils may be used to provide genuine feedback on legitimate student grievances in order to govern the school more effectively. Beaudin (2005) and Davies (2006) reaffirm that where they exist in the USA and schools in Britain, student councils provide channels of communication and avenues for democratic governance in the school. Reporting similar findings, a study in Northern Nigeria showed there was a strong approval of the idea of SLCs with majority of the students seeing the SLC either as a forum where complaints could be voiced or as a means by which students would be better placed to have a say in what is going on in the school. This was despite the observation that none of the school sampled for this study had a SLC (Fagbongbe, 2005).

In Kenya, the proposal to replace school prefects with student councils as part of reforms to be introduced for enhancing school governance has been eagerly supported by students. Under this proposed arrangement, students will have a say in the day to

day governance of school affairs alongside BOGs and PTAs (Kaluoch, 2010). While referring to the wave of unrest and violence experienced in secondary schools in 2008, the KSSHA chair in the 2nd national KSSSC conference emphasized this need for students to participate in school governance since this will make the students feel valued, thus bringing down episodes of unrest in schools (Muindi, 2010). This seems to be an acceptance that secondary schools in Kenya should allow an all inclusive governance style in which students have an opportunity to give their input in school affairs through an elected SLC. Essentially, this means that the principle that no one has a monopoly of ideas should be applied in Kenyan secondary schools. GOK (2008) observes that one of the biggest mistakes school administrators commit is to make decisions that have a very significant impact on students without consulting them.

Most of the times, the decisions imposed on students are the same that the students themselves would have gladly owned if they were given an opportunity to participate in their deliberations. The Principal of Christ the King Academy in Nakuru attests to this by indicating that discipline, which is core to the school, is achieved through dialogue between the students and the school administration. As reported by Obwocha (2006), some of the rules in this school have been agreed upon between students and the administration. For instance, in one meeting, students and administration agreed that any girl who leaves the school compound without permission is expelled. Although the school is near Nakuru town, students do not sneak out. This may not have been the case if the rule of expulsion had been passed down to the students without any consultation or dialogue with the administration. Basically, the students feel more bound to a rule they help to create than to one that has just been dictated to them.

2.6 Summary of Literature Review and the Gap in Knowledge

The review of literature in this chapter has shown that school governance systems that are authoritarian and bureaucratic in nature, with school Principals giving little or no room for students to participate in the governance of their schools often result in continued conflict between students and the school administration. (Sifuna, 2000; GOK, 2001; Hallinger, 2003; Street and Temperley, 2006; Gordon and Patterson, 2006; UNESCO, 2007; GOK, 2008; Rhodes and Brundrett, 2009; UNICEF, 2009; Kindiki, 2009 and Mule, 2011).

Consequently, several studies have emphasized the need to change the mode of student leadership in school governance so that students can have a forum to participate in school governance, especially through the adoption of SLCs as a mode of student leadership (Assefa et al, 2001; Fagbongbe, 2005; Gatt, 2005; Abraham, 2005; Bates, 2006; Diamond, 2008; Moos, 2008; UNICEF, 2009; Gilley, 2009; Muindi, 2010; Eacott, 2011; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011). Several studies have also emphasized the significance of Principals' approval, commitment and support in enhancing student participation in school governance (Ainley and Mackenzie, 2000: Maclure 2000; Sayeed, 2002; Hale and Moorman, 2003; Gun et al, 2005; Singh and Manser, 2008 and Ryan & Rottman, 2009).

However, the studies cited above and others conducted in the area of student participation in school governance, especially in relation to Principal perceptions on student participation, mainly emanate from developed countries. It should be noted that the studies on student participation in school governance conducted in Kenya Muindi, 2010; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; UNICEF, 2009; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011),

have mainly centered on students and teachers as key respondents, thus failing to collect empirical evidence on the perception of school Principals on student participation. Therefore, very little literature exists on Principals' perceptions on student participation in school governance in the Kenyan context. Assessing the perception of Kenyan Principals, through systematically collected and analyzed data, is important since studies from outside Kenya have shown that one of the primary risks to authentic student participation in school governance could be that the desire on the part of the school Principal for authentic student participation may not be real.

Additionally, none of the reviewed studies has addressed the fundamental leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance. Knowledge of these leadership training is critical for developing leadership training programmes for both the student leaders and the school Principals; in preparation for authentic student participation in school governance.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the philosophy underpinning this study in relation to other philosophies. The chapter also discusses the strategy for the study including the methodologies adopted, the sample and sampling criteria, and the instruments developed and utilized in pursuit of the objectives. Additionally, the ethical considerations and data analysis methods are discussed.

3.1 Area of Study

This study was conducted in the Central Rift Region in Kenya. Central Rift was chosen for the study since it is one of the three regions of the greater Rift Valley; which recorded the second highest number of school unrests in the years 2008 and 2000/20001 (GOK: 2008). The region was also selected for the study since the diversity of its population reflects the typical public secondary school in Kenya. This is because the region has a sizeable number of Provincial secondary schools that admit students from across the country and there is great diversity even among the principals heading the schools. In addition, the study region was chosen so that sufficient data could be generated in order to answer the research questions and make valid recommendations. As Kombo and Tromp (2006) stipulate, the largest areas which are relevant to the research questions and objectives should be identified since the selection of an appropriate area of study influences the usefulness of the information produced.

3.2 Philosophical Paradigm of the Study

Bryman (2004) identifies a paradigm as a cluster of beliefs and dictates which, for scientists in a particular discipline, influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted. Paradigms are opposing world views or belief system that are a reflection of, and guide the decisions that researchers make. Pragmatists link the choice of approach directly to the purpose of, and the nature of the research questions posed (Creswell, 2012).

Research is often multipurpose and a 'what works tactic' will allow the researcher to address questions that do not sit comfortably within a wholly quantitative (positivism) or qualitative (interpretivism) approach to design and methodology. This research adopted a pragmatic world view in its philosophical paradigm in order to investigate Principals' perception towards student participation in school governance. This pragmatic option allowed for a mixed methods approach to the design of the study, engaging both quantitative and qualitative methods.

3.3 Research Design

Research designs are plans and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell 2009; 2012). This study adopted a mixed methods design, which is an approach to inquiry that combines and associates both qualitative and quantitative forms (Ayiro 2012; Ross 2005). The mixed methods approach is more than simply collecting and analyzing both qualitative and quantitative data; it involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of the study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell and Planoclark, 2007).

The mixed methods approach is associated with the pragmatic paradigm and strategies that involve collecting data in a simultaneous or sequential manner using methods that are drawn from both qualitative and quantitative traditions in a fashion that best addresses the research questions (Ayiro, 2012; Creswell, 2009). The basic assumption is that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in combination provides a better understanding of the research problem, hypothesis and questions, than either method by itself. This makes this type of design overly have a more rigid, valid and reliable outcome. This is because the mixed methods approach consists of integrating, linking and embedding the two 'strands' of designs (Creswell, 2012).

Since this study adopted a pragmatic philosophical paradigm, it therefore lent itself to a mixed methods approach, where data was collected through questionnaires, interviews and document analysis, using the Survey design. The survey strategy was adopted because as Orodho (2005) stipulates, a survey can be used to determine the relationship that exists between specific variables, and the main aim of collecting data in a survey is to test hypotheses for analysis of the relationship between non-manipulated variables, or to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject in the study.

3.4 Target Population

Target population, as Nworgu (1991) explains, is a term that defines all members or elements of a well- defined group with some common, observable characteristics. It is to the target population that the results of the study are generalized. This study targeted all public secondary schools in the Central Rift region of Kenya. The study sought to collect data from the Principals and Deputy Principals of these schools. At

the time of carrying out the study, there were 426 public secondary schools in the region, with an equivalent number of Principals and Deputy Principals (Educational Statistics and Facts, 2010). Principals and their deputies were targeted for this study since, as indicated in the review of literature, they are overly responsible for the governance of the school and are thus a key determinant of the extent to which students can effectively participate in school governance. To validate the responses given by the Principals and Deputy Principals, KSSHA officials at the national and provincial levels were also involved in the study.

3.5 Sampling and Sample Size

Ideally, this study would have had to cover all the 426 public secondary schools in Central Rift region. However, this was not practical due to logistical and administrative reasons. Consequently, sampling had to be done so that a representative sample of the study population was chosen. Sampling in education research is generally conducted in order to permit the detailed study of part, rather than the whole, of population (Ross, 2005). The information derived from the resulting sample is customarily employed to develop useful generalization about the population which may be in the form of estimates of one or more characteristics associated with the population. They may also be concerned with estimates of the strength of relationship between characteristics within the population (Ross, 2005; Creswell, 2009; Mcmillan, 2012).

3.5.1 Sample Size Criteria

A number of factors, including the purpose of the study, population size, the risk of selecting a 'bad' sample and the allowable sampling error are key considerations in

determining the sample size of a study (Ayiro, 2012). These factors were all considered in determining the sample size in this particular study. In addition, the following criteria need to be specified in order to determine the appropriate sample size: level of precision, level of confidence or risk and the degree of variability in the attributes being measured.

Without information about the precision of a measurement, it is impossible to know whether the measurement is applicable to the purpose one has in mind (Ross, 2005; Creswell, 2012). The level of precision, sometimes called sampling error is the range in which the true value of the population is estimated to be. In selecting a sample from a population there is always some degree of sampling error, but the researcher should always strive to minimize such error (Mcmillan, 2012). Sampling error was minimized in this study through random sampling to avoid selection error and non - answer through inclusion of filter questions to check the honesty in the score of the questions in this study.

A confidence interval, on the other hand, is a range of plausible values that accounts for uncertainty in a statistical estimate. A narrow confidence interval implies high precision; a wide interval implies poor precision (McMillan, 2012). The confidence or risk level is based on ideas encompassed under the Central Limit Theorem. The key idea encompassed in the Central Limit Theorem is that when a population is repeatedly sampled, the average value of the attribute obtained by those samples is equal to the true population value (Mukhopadhyay, 2000). The values obtained from samples, in this case the Principals and Deputy Principals were distributed normally

about the true value, with some samples having a higher value and some obtaining a lower score than the true population value.

The degree of variability in the attributes being measured refers to the distribution of attributes in the population (Ross, 2005). Measures of variability provide information about the degree to which individual scores are clustered about or deviate from the average value in a distribution (Mcmillan, 2012). The more heterogeneous a population, the larger the sample size required to obtain a given level of precision. The less variable (more homogeneous) a population, the smaller the sample size required for precision (Creswell & Clark, 2011 and Mcmillan, 2012). In this particular study, the sample size was determined by use of the Krejcie and Morgan table of determining sample size from a given population that is attached as appendix IV. Using the table, the sample size for a target of 426 Principals and 426 Deputy was 202 Principals and 202 Deputy Principals.

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

A sampling technique is a plan specifying how subjects were selected from the target population. The selection method for the elements of the population to be included in the sample is dictated by the research design which determines the sampling methods to be used (McMillan, 2012; Ross, 2005). Use of scientific sampling procedures in selection of a sample often provides many advantages as opposed to a complete coverage of a population (census). It reduces costs associated with gathering and analyzing data, reduces requirements for trained personnel to conduct the field work, improves speed in most aspects of data summarization in reporting and ensures greater accuracy due to the possibility of more intense supervision of field work and

data preparation operation (Ross, 2005). The resources, time and above all, the considerations enumerated above could not allow census in this study, thus sampling.

Consequently, the study adopted stratified random, simple random, and purposive sampling techniques. Random sampling techniques were used since they allow generalizability to a larger population and also allow the use of inferential statistics On the other hand; purposive sampling was used since it allows the researcher to use cases that have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study. A sampling frame consisting of a list of all the 426 secondary schools in the area of study was made and the schools were then stratified into three categories; National, Provincial and District. Schools were then randomly selected from each stratum to proportionately make up the required number of 202 secondary schools, and subsequently the same number of Principals and Deputy Principals. The schools were put into these strata so as to give schools from each category an equal chance to be involved in the study. Purposive sampling was adopted to select the two KSSHA officials who were interviewed for the study.

3.6 Instruments of Data Collection

This study was eclectic in nature; hence, both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were used so as to provide a richer base for data analysis. The main data collection instruments were those used in a survey design and comprised of questionnaires, an interview guide and document analysis. The instruments were constructed on the basis of the objectives of the study.

3.6.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to collect data in this study because as Kombo and Tromp (2006) posit, questionnaires are commonly used to obtain important information about the population and each item in the questionnaire can be constructed to address a specific research objective, question or hypothesis. The main advantage of using questionnaires for this study was that the questions in the questionnaire were standardized, thus all the respondents got to answer the same questions. In addition, anonymity, which was one of the ethical considerations in this study, was also guaranteed by using the questionnaires.

Two questionnaires were used in this study; one for the Principals and one for the Deputy Principals. The questionnaires were self-administered and they were both semi-structured; containing both close-ended and open-ended questions that yielded quantitative and qualitative data respectively. The questionnaires were developed in consultation with the research supervisors and other research experts and were administered first, before the interviews, because they helped to identify key themes that were probed in depth during the interviews.

3.6.2 Interview Guide

Interview guides are, by extension, oral administration of a questionnaire. Interviews were used in this study since, as Kothari (2003) reports, they provide in-depth data that is not possible to get using questionnaires alone. An interview guide was drawn up and was administered in face-to-face interviews with 2 KSSHA officials. The interview guide was only used for the officials because interviewing all the

respondents could have taken a lot of time. The interview guide contained open –
ended questions with no pre – determined responses.

3.6.3 Document Analysis

Information obtained from the respondents through the questionnaire and interviews
was further supplemented with data from document analysis. The sources of
documentary data used in this study included memos and notices written to students
to convey decisions made in schools, minutes of school and student council meetings,
schools' code of conduct, newspaper reports on student governance, and school log
books. All these were analyzed for information pertinent to the study.

3.7 Validity of the Research Instruments

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), validity has in the recent years been
defined as the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific
inferences researchers make based on the data they collect. This simply means that
using the research instruments, the researcher should be able to obtain all the intended
information. Validity is concerned with the degree to which results obtained from the
analysis of data actually represents the phenomena under study. If the data collected is
accurate, then inferences based on such data are accurate and meaningful.

The researcher sought expert opinion on content and construct validity. Comments
solicited from such experts were used to improve the research instrument before
commencing on data collection. Moreover, the instrument was also piloted to
selected Principals and Deputy Principals in Uasin Gishu district which was not part
of the study area. This piloting was significant in establishing the content validity of

the instrument and was used to improve the questions, formats and scales in the research instruments. Content is a non-statistical type of validity that involves the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of behavior domain to be measured.

An instrument has content validity built into it by careful selection of which items to include. Items for the instrument are chosen so that they comply with the test specification which is drawn up through a thorough examination of the subject domain. For purposes of this study, the questionnaires were keenly scrutinized for errors, omissions, ambiguity, relevance and legibility. The questionnaires content and structure were then appropriately amended to remove any ambiguities and enhance content validity.

Further, as Best and Kahn (2003) note, by using a panel of experts to review the specifications and the selection of items, the content validity of an instrument can be improved. To further test the validity of the instruments used in the study, the questionnaire was availed to supervisors together with other experienced researchers of Moi University, and other universities, to review the instruments. The experts were able to review the items and comment on whether the items covered a representative sample of the behavior domain. The results from the piloting together with the comments from the experts were incorporated in the final instrument revision, thus improving its validity.

3.8 Reliability of the Research Instruments

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Creswell, 2012) regardless of what is measured (Ross, 2005). Reliability, therefore, implies the dependability or trustworthiness of the research instrument to consistently yield the same data under similar conditions, after repeated trials. Test - retest reliabilit**y** is a measure obtained through administering the same test twice over a period of time to a group of individuals. Parallel forms reliability is a measure obtained by administering different versions of an assessment tool (both versions must contain items that probe the same construct, skill, knowledge base, attitude, perceptions) to the same group of individuals (Mukhopadhyay, 2000). On the other hand Inter-rater reliabilit**y** is a measure of reliability used to assess the degree to which different judges or raters agree in their assessment criteria. Inter-rater reliability is useful because human observers will not necessarily interpret answers from constructs the same way (Ross, 2005; Creswell, 2012; Mcmillan, 2012).

The reliability of the research instruments for this study was tested through a pilot study which was conducted out of the area of study using respondents who were not sampled during the main study. The test - retest technique was used in determining the reliability; whereby the research instrument was administered twice to the same group of subjects with a time lapse of one week between the first and second test. Using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient, the researcher found a reliability coefficient of 0.82 after the piloting; which according to Cronbach's Alpha Decision Rule in Appendix V, was considered a strong and acceptable measure of reliability by every standard.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Educational researchers have a responsibility to ensure that in whatever research paradigm they work, their research is enacted within a rigorous framework that addresses the epistemological complexities of a study's methodological process and intellectual focus in an ethical manner that allows the recipients of the research to have trust in its outcomes (Nalita & Hugh, 2007). This study was therefore designed to meet the ethical standards of education research in Kenya as discussed below.

First, educational researchers need to be sensitive to the socio-political contexts in which their participants live out their lives, as members of particular communities or institutions (Furlong, 2004). Principals and Deputy Principals, just like any other member of the school, live in the socio - political context of the school, their immediate communities, and the education system; and thus need to be assured of safety from harm or embarrassment as a result of the research process or findings. Thus, it was essential to assure the respondents in this study that publication of the study findings would be done in a manner that the published information cannot be used in ways that carry reputational risks for them or their respective schools. To this end, the respondents were assured that the findings for this particular study will be solely used for research purposes and would be made public only behind a shield of anonymity.

Secondly, before administering the research instruments to the respondents, the researcher obtained informed consent from each respondent through an introductory letter that had a provision for signing consent to participate in the study. This was done because a key ethical principle according to the Belmont Report (1979) is

autonomy, which refers to the obligation on the part of the investigator to respect each participant as a person capable of making an informed decision regarding participation in the research study. The researcher ensured that the participants received a total disclosure of the nature and purpose of the study, the risks, benefits and alternatives. The respondents were then given the opportunity for consideration of the benefits of the study, to ask for any clarification from the researcher; or to opt out of the study altogether.

The researcher also discussed with the participants how privacy and confidentiality concerns would be addressed, and how the participants would be notified of any unforeseen findings from the research that they may or may not want to know. This was done since it is especially important that consent to participate in a study should be voluntary, based on full and open information, with no deception or deliberate misrepresentation of any information, and free from any coercion or promises of benefits resulting from participation (Christians (2000; Furlong, 2004; Ross, 2005; Ayiro, 2012). Additionally, according to Bryman & Burgess (2007), getting into a study setting usually involves some sort of bargain, explicit or implicit in the assurances that the researcher will not violate informants' privacy or confidentiality, or interfere in their activities in the process of conducting the study. This was achieved by the researcher establishing rapport with the respondents of the study once in the field, so as to gain a certain level of trust and openness and to be accepted as a non-judgmental and non - threatening person.

Lastly, justice was also considered as an ethical principle for conducting this research. Justice is a principle that calls for equitable selection of participants thus avoiding

participant populations that may be unfairly coerced into participating. The principle of justice also requires equality in distribution of benefits and burdens among the population group(s) likely to benefit from the research (Furlong, 2004; Ross, 2005; McMillan, 2012). To ensure justice in this study, the schools from which the participants were drawn were randomly selected so as to give each school an equal chance to participate in the study. This was done considering that enhanced policy directives on student participation in school governance would benefit all schools and other key education stakeholders equally.

3.10 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis in this study was the school, specifically, public secondary schools. Data to address the research objectives was collected from school Principals and their deputies in the sampled schools. These two groups of respondents form an integral part of school governance.

3.11 Data Analysis

The data collected in this study was analyzed based on the research questions and research hypothesis. This was done after the data had been processed. Processing of the data involved editing, coding, and tabulation so as to make the data amiable to analysis. The analysis of data collected in this study employed the use of descriptive statistics so as to generate the respondents' opinions with regard to leadership literacies that influence student participation, existing modes of student leadership, Principal's perceptions on student participation, and the correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance. Presentation of the descriptive analysis was done in the form of tables of frequencies and percentages. A qualitative report on

the analyzed data was also generated so that the data could be presented in continuous prose for the various categories and themes of the study.

Inferential statistics was then used to test the stated null hypothesis using the Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r). This was done to establish whether there is any association between student participation and enhanced school governance; and the strength of such an association. Kothari (2003) explains that in the process of analysis, relationships or differences supporting or conflicting with the original hypothesis should be subjected to statistical tests of significance to determine with what validity data can be said to indicate any conclusions. Consequently, the analysis of data formed the basis of the data presentation, interpretation and discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysis and interpretation. The study was concerned with student participation in school governance, from a Principal's perspective. Specifically, the study sought to determine the leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance, Principals' perception of the existing modes of student leadership in school governance, Principals' perception toward student participation in school governance, the correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance, and the strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance. The collected data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The chapter begins by indicating the respondents' response rate, and giving a description of the schools involved in the study; and subsequently presents the analysis of data on each of the five objectives of the study. Finally, the stated null hypothesis is also tested to determine the relationship between the variables under study.

4.1 Demographics

This section presents the response rates of the two sets of sampled respondents, that is, the Principals and the Deputy Principals. Information on the categories of the sampled schools is also presented.

4.1.1 Respondents Response Rate

A total of 404 questionnaires were given out to a sample of 202 Principals and 202 Deputy Principals. Out of these, 189 questionnaires that had been filled in were

collected from the Deputy Principals, compared to 163 questionnaires that had been filled in and collected from the Principals. The total number of questionnaires collected from the sampled Principal and Deputy Principals were 352, giving an overall response rate of 87.13%. The number of questionnaires not received for the Deputy Principals was 13, while that for the Principals was 39. The total number of questionnaires not returned was 52, giving an overall non – response rate of 12.87%. This information is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Respondents Response Rate

	Total Sample	Response Rate
Principals	202	163
Deputy Principals	202	189
Total	404	352

N = 404

The analysis in Table 1 shows that the highest response rate (189 questionnaires) was from the Deputy Principals of the sampled schools. This could be an indication that compared to Principals, Deputy Principals are available in their schools most of the time. Consequently, the Deputy Principals interact more with the students and get knowledge about students' needs and grievances. The overall response rate of 352 out of 404 questionnaires was considered sufficient for the study. This rate was achieved since the research instruments were administered in person; and the researcher and research assistants waited for the respondents to fill the questionnaires then collected them immediately.

4.1.2 Categories of Sampled Schools

The respondents, specifically the Deputy Principals, were asked to indicate the category of their schools using three indicators, that is, school status nationally, by gender, and by boarding facilities. The results are presented and discussed below.

Table 2

School Status Nationally

School Category	Frequencies	Percentage
National	4	2.12
Provincial	60	31.74
District	125	66.14
Total	**189**	**100**

N = 189

As shown in Table 2, 66.14 % of the sampled schools were in the District schools category, 31.74% were in the Provincial schools category, while 2.12% were in the National schools category. This implies that majority of the schools in the area of study are District schools, while very few are National schools. This represents the general picture of secondary schools in Kenya; with more district schools and fewer schools as one moves up the cadre of schools.

Table 3

Category of Schools according to Gender

School Type	Frequency	Percentage
Boys'	28	14.80
Girls'	42	22.20
Mixed	119	63.00
Total	189	100

N = 189

The results in Table 3 above show that 63.0% of the sampled schools were mixed secondary schools, 22.2% were girls' schools while on the other hand there were 14.8% schools which were boys' schools. The study findings indicate that comparatively, majority of the secondary schools used for this study were mixed secondary schools, as opposed to schools of either gender. Again, this is an overall representation of the schools in the country, where there are more mixed secondary schools than gender – specific schools.

Additionally, the analysis of data showed that there were 112 boarding schools among the sampled schools compared to 77 schools which were day schools. This implies that majority of the schools within the study area have boarding facilities which enable students to stay in school throughout the school term. This could be a contributory factor to the increasing cases of student unrest, as most incidences of unrest and violence are usually reported in boarding schools as opposed to day schools.

4.2 Leadership Literacies that Influence Student Participation in School Governance

The first objective of this study was to establish the leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance in secondary schools. To achieve this objective, the school Principals were asked to respond to questions relating to the four key leadership literacies identified in the literature review. The findings are discussed below.

4.2.1 Cultural Literacy

As discussed in the literature review, one key aspect that influences student participation in school governance is the level of cultural literacy among the members. Such cultural literacy can be acquired and reflected through the guiding philosophies and statements of a school expressed either as school mottos, visions or missions. To analyze the level of cultural literacy in the sampled schools, the respondents were asked to give information on several aspects of their schools' guiding statements and philosophies.

4.2.1.1 Level of Internalization of the School Motto

The Principals were first asked to indicate the level of internalization of the school motto by the school community. The responses are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Level of School Motto Internalization

Level of Internalization of school motto	Percentage
High	58.28
Neither high nor Low	19.02
Low	19.02
No opinion	3.68
Total	**100.00**

N = 163

Table 4 shows that 58.28% of the Principals indicated that the level of internalization of the school motto by the members of the school community was high, 19.02% Principals indicated that the level of internalization of the school motto was neither high nor low, 19.02% Principals indicated that the level of internalization of the school motto was low, while on the other hand, 3.68% Principals had no opinion on the level of internalization of the school motto by members of the school community.

The responses indicate that majority of the Principals believe that the level of internalization of the school motto by members of the school community is high in most schools; an implication that most members of the school community understand their school mottos. Such an understanding of the school motto is important in fostering a positive leadership culture that encourages student participation in school governance; since as Jones (2003) and Riojas and Flores (2007) emphasize, a school should have a philosophy that relates to its leadership culture, such as a school motto or vision statement; and this philosophy should be internalized by all members of the school.

Most of the school mottos given in this study contained wordings that extolled the members of the school towards working hard to become the best. Examples of such mottos given in this study included:

- Strive for the best
- Arise and shine
- Strive to excel
- Shine all round

- Hard work for success
- Arise strive and reign
- Passing for the highest mark
- Spring to success

If such mottos are fully internalized by members of the school, then they will guide actions, including leadership actions that seek to realize the impetus enshrined in the mottos.

4.2.1.2 Determination of School Activities by the School Vision

The Principals were further asked to indicate the frequency with which the vision of their schools determines the pace of activities within their respective schools. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Determination of Pace of Activities in Schools by the School Vision

Determination of School activities by Vision	Perecentage
Most of the time	44.17
Occasionally	48.47
Never	3.68
No opinion	3.68
Total	100.00

N = 163

Table 5 shows that 44.17% of the Principals indicated that the school vision determines the pace of activities in their respective schools most of the time, 48.47% Principals said that the pace of activities in their schools is occasionally determined by the vision of the school, while 3.68% Principals noted that the school vision never determines the pace of school activities. A further 3.68% Principals had no opinion on the determination of the pace of school activities by the school vision.

From these findings, it can be deduced that the level of determination of school activities by the school vision varies from one school to the other, but in majority of the schools, the pace of activities is determined by the school vision either most of the time or occasionally. These findings underscore the need for school administrators to be sensitized on the importance of having a vision that is aimed at inculcating positive values in the members of the school community. As Chrispeels (2008) argues, philosophies such as the school vision are second only to teaching in having an effect on students' values. For instance, through pegging the school's activities on the school's vision, students can be sensitized on the rights of others, thus encouraging responsible action to secure the rights of all by avoiding intolerance and violence in the school. This is an element that is very important if students are to effectively participate in school governance.

The vision statements for majority of the schools sampled for this study made mention of positive values that should guide the school members in their daily activities. Examples of these values and the respective mission statements from which they were drawn are:

Value	Vision Statement
Excellence	To become a centre of excellence in the provision of education
Morality	To develop an all round child / student; both morally and academically
Participation	To produce well modeled citizens empowered adequately to participate effectively and efficiently in nation building
Self - Drive	To provide quality teaching for self – driven individuals
Responsibility	To produce responsible citizen through education

Such values as contained in the vision statements sampled above are especially important for student leaders incorporated into school governance since the students will be made aware that their participation in school governance should be guided by values such as excellence, morality, participation, self – drive and responsibility.

4.2.2 Moral Literacy

Student participation in school governance is also influenced by the level of moral literacies within the school. Moral literacy constitutes an ability to recognize and interpret moral facts and values; a necessary condition for moral judgment and action. The values encompassed under moral literacy include values such as honesty, fairness, respect, responsibility, caring, flexibility, self – regulation, and high tolerance for ambiguity.

4.2.2.1 Moral Values and Beliefs in Schools

To test the level of moral literacy in the schools, a scoring strategy was adopted for the stated values where a score of 1 was adopted for a high rating, 2 for a neutral rating and 3 for a low rating. The Principals were asked to rate the moral values and beliefs that guide the daily activities in their respective schools. The results were analyzed and are as presented in Table 6

Table 6

Rating of Moral Values and Beliefs

Value	High		Neutral		Low	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Honesty	107	65.6	37	22.7	19	11.7
Fairness	116	71.2	25	15.3	22	13.5
Responsibility	104	63.8	29	17.8	30	18.4
Caring for others	101	62.0	45	27.6	17	10.4
Mean Rating		65.65		20.85		13.5

N = 163

Table 6 shows that on average, 65.65% Principals rated the moral values presented to them highly, 20.85% Principals rated the moral values as neutral, while 13.5% Principals gave a low rating for the moral value. This means that that in most schools, the moral values are well embraced by the school members.

These findings on the rating of different moral values and beliefs in schools are important especially in light of the observation by Christians (2004) and Tuana (2007) that moral literacy is a crucial element in fostering a positive leadership culture that

encourages participation in schools; and that schools must struggle to lift the moral literacies in their members since it is a skill that must be crafted and honed by students so as to produce productive and responsible leaders who can participate in the governance of their schools in a morally literate fashion.

In enforcing the values stated above, majority of the Principals indicated that they encourage high discipline levels amongst the students and student leaders, reward high performing students and also hold frequent talks and guidance programs with students on the importance of these values, especially in leadership and school governance, sometimes with the help of motivational speakers. The values are further emphasized during assemblies, school functions and ceremonies. In some cases, the values are boldly displayed in strategic areas of the school, such as classroom walls; and they are also incorporated in the school rules and regulations. Additionally, parents were also involved in emphasizing these values to the students, especially during occasions such as annual general meetings, academic days and prize giving days.

4.2.3 Religious and Spiritual Literacy

As mentioned in the literature review, the level of religious and spiritual literacy is also a vital component of leadership and governance in a school. Whereas spirituality connotes a personal, internalized set of beliefs and experiences (such as those contained in the belief systems of various religious denominations); while religion organizes these beliefs and experiences into collective practices associated with particular institutions (such as the holding of religious services). The respondents were thus asked questions on the sponsorship of their schools by the different

religious denominations, and the frequency of religious services; so as to determine the level of spiritual and religious literacy in the schools.

4.2.3.1 Sponsorship of Schools by Religious Denominations

The Principals were asked to indicate the sponsorship of their schools by the different religious denominations. The results were tabulated and presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Sponsorship of schools by Religious Denominations

Religious Denominations	Frequency	Percentage
Catholic	48	29.45
Protestant	42	25.77
Seventh Day Adventist	12	7.36
Hindu	2	1.23
Muslim	8	4.90
Not Applicable	51	31.29
Total	**163**	**100**

N = 163

The results in Table 7 indicate that 48 of the sampled schools were sponsored by the Catholic Church while 42 schools were sponsored by the Protestant churches which include: The African Inland Church, The Anglican Church, Redeemed Gospel Church, Presbyterian Church of Eastern Africa and the Baptist church. A further 12 schools were sponsored by the Seventh Day Adventist Church, 2 schools were sponsored by the Hindus, while 8 schools were sponsored by the Muslims. However, 51 of the sampled schools were not sponsored by any church and were mainly run by

District Education Boards (DEB). The findings show that majority of the sampled schools (68.71%) were sponsored by some religious denomination, and only 31.29% were not church - based; indicative of a high level of spiritual literacy. The findings further show that most of the church – sponsored schools are sponsored by either the Catholic Church or the Protestant churches and therefore the values, practices and beliefs of the schools will mostly be guided by the religious faiths they are affiliated to.

4.2.3.2 Frequency of Religious Services in Schools

The Principals were further asked to indicate how often religious services are held in their schools. The findings are indicated in Table 8.

Table 8

Frequency of Religious Services in Schools

Frequency of Religious Services	Frequency	Percentage
Once a week	80	49.1
More than once a week	52	31.9
Once a month	6	3.68
More than once a month	6	3.68
Occasionally	19	11.64
Total	163	100.00

N = 163

Table 8 indicates that out of the sampled schools, 80 schools hold their religious services once a week, 52 schools hold their religious services more than once a week, 19 schools hold their religious services occassionally while 6 schools hold their

religious services once every month. The study findings show a high level of religious literacy since majority of the schools adhere strictly to their religious practices as shown by the number of schools that hold their religious services once or more than once a week.

The religious and spiritual literacy exhibited in most schools is important since religion is built upon the premise that order, continuity and stability are essential to any civil society. As observed by Riaz and Nomore (2008), religion brings order, creativity and stability through specific doctrines and practices, such as holding frequent church services. Such order, stability and creativity is necessary for effective leadership and participation of key stakeholders, especially the student, in the governance of the school.

4.2.4 Political Literacy

The literature reviewed also emphasized that the level of political literacy affects the efficiency of the school governance system, especially with regard to student participation. Political literacy is evident when people are aware of their rights, and participate in key processes of their institutions. Such awareness and participation in a school setting will be signified by sensitization of students on, among other rights, their right to elect their student leaders through whom they will be able to participate in school governance, and their representation in key governance bodies in the school. Further, political literacy calls for the empowerment (through training) of those who are required to participate in governance (in this case, the student leaders).

To explore the level of political literacy in the sampled schools, the respondents were asked to answer several questions that indicated the level of awareness, representation and leadership training of the students in their schools.

4.2.4.1 Student Rights

To first test the level of political literacy in schools, the Principals were required to indicate their agreement or disagreement that students are entitled to certain rights, and the findings are as indicated in Table 9.

Table 9

Students' rights

Student Rights	A		N		D	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
The right to be heard before punishment	150	92.0	7	4.3	6	3.7
The right to demand for accountability	47	28.9	12	7.4	104	63.8
Freedom of assembly	54	33.1	31	19.0	78	47.9

N = 163

Table 9 indicates that 92% of the Principals agreed that students have a right to be heard before punishment, 4.3% Principals were undecided on the statement, while a further 3.7% Principals disagreed with the statement. The findings show that majority of the Principals were in agreement that students have the right to be heard before punishment is given. These findings reflect the arguments by Keedy et al (2001) and Gronn (2002) that in a school, students should get an opportunity to be heard before any punishment is meted out. There should also be mechanisms provided to give students a fair hearing and an appeal in case of injustice. In such a system, students will have respect and confidence in the school administration, and will learn the skill

of listening to others before passing their own judgement once they are in leadership positions.

However, on the question of the right of students to demand for accountability, only 28.9% of the Principals agreed that students should have such a right. The majority of the Principals, 63.8%, disagreed that students have the right to demand for accountability from the school administration, with a further 7.4% Principals being undecided on the statement. This shows that majority (63.8%) Principals disagreed with the statement; an implication that students have not been given the right to demand from the school administration accountability, especially in terms of finances.

Similarly, only 33.1 % of the Principals agreed that students have the right to freedom of assembly, while 47.9% disagreed with the statement. On the other hand, 19.0% Principals were undecided on the statement. It seems therefore that majority of the Principals (47.9%) were in disagreement with students' freedom of assembly; an implication that most Principals do not believe that students should have the right to freely assemble when need arises.

These findings, which are a pointer to low levels of political literacy in schools, indicate that most Principals are unwilling to grant students rights or entitlements that may lead to students questioning the authority of the school administration; that is, the right to demand for accountability and freedom of assembly. These findings are in agreement with Sifuna (2000), Bates (2006), Street and Temperley (2006) who argued that school governance is seen as the ordering of behaviour through hierarchical systems of control within essentially bureaucratic cultures. In such a case, some

student rights are not a major concern, and school Principals are mostly preoccupied with authority, decision making and leadership while students are discussed under the headings of alienation, performance and control. This, as attested by Mule (2011), Kindiki (2009) and UNICEF (2009) has often been the root cause of unrest in schools.

However, the findings are contrary to the observation by Arthur and Davison (2000) who argue that society expects schools to teach students the values of democracy and a range of social skills necessary for democratic citizenship and practice. Such a democratic citizenship education should prepare the students to understand and act on their rights and responsibilities, so as to effectively participate in the leadership of their communities, including the school community.

4.2.4.2 Students Awareness of their Right to Elect a Student Leaders Council

To further test the level of political literacy in the sampled schools, the 142 respondents who reported that the mode of student leadership in their schools was purely prefectorial were asked to state whether the students in their schools had been made aware of their right to elect a SLC. From the responses given, it was apparent that only 31 of the schools with the prefect system had made their students aware of their right to elect a SLC; while 111 schools had not made the students aware of this right. This information implies that majority of the schools had not made their students aware of their right to democratically elect a representative SLC. In emphasizing this lack of awareness, one of the KSSHA officials also noted that:

> *A larger percentage of students have not been made aware of their right to elect a SLC… how can the students be aware, yet schools without active SLCs do not attend the KSSSC forums? It is through such forums that awareness on SLCs is created.*

(Source: KSSHA Official, 28th June 2012)

These findings point to the low levels of political literacy in secondary schools; since as Bottery (2000) stipulates, political literacy, which is enshrined in democratic citizenship education should prepare the students to understand and act on their rights and responsibilities; and that students have both a need to know that they should participate in school governance, and a right to be involved in the running and management of schools. By not making students aware of their right to elect a student leaders council, the school administration is thus failing to prepare the students to understand and act on their rights and responsibilities, and also denying them the right to be involved in the running and management of their schools.

4.2.4.3 Students Representation in School Governance Bodies

Since representation is also a key aspect of political literacy, the Principals were asked to indicate whether students in their schools are represented in key school governance bodies; that is, the Board of Governors (BOG), Parents Teachers Association (PTA), School Planning Committees (SPC), and Student Disciplinary Committee (SDC). The responses are as indicated in table 10.

Table 10

Students' Representation in School Governance Bodies

	Yes		No		Total
	F	%	F	%	
BOG	0	0.0	163	100	163
PTA	18	11	145	89	163
SPC	14	8.6	149	91.4	163
SDC	42	25.8	121	74.2	163

N = 163

Table 10 shows that all the 163 Principals attested to the fact that students are not represented in their BOG meetings. Further, only 18 Principals indicated that students are represented in PTA meetings. Similarly, only 14 of the schools had students represented in the SPCs, and 42 Principals indicated that students are represented in the SDCs.

These findings are a pointer to the very limited nature of student representation in key governance bodies of the school; a further indicator of the low levels of political literacy in schools. The findings are contrary to the report by Kaluoch (2010) that students should have a say in the day to day governance of school affairs by being represented in BOGs and PTAs and other decision making bodies in the school so as to allow an all inclusive governance style in which students have an opportunity to give their input in school affairs.

4.2.4.4 Training of Student Leaders Council

Lastly, to test the level of training of student leaders, which is a further indicator of political literacy in schools, the respondents who indicated the existence of SLCs in their schools were asked to report on whether students in the SLC had received any form of leadership training. The findings are as presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Training of Student Leaders Council

Period of Training of SLC	Frequency
More than one year Ago	6
Less than 1 year Ago	11
Never been trained	30
Total	**47**

N = 47

Whereas majority of the respondents, 30, reported that their SLCs had never received any form of leadership training, only 17 respondents reported that their student leaders had been trained; with 6 respondents indicating training having taken place more than a year ago, and 11 indicating training having taken place less than a year ago. The analysis in Table 11 is an indication that even where SLCs have been put in place, majority of the student leaders have not received any form of training in leadership skills.

This is despite the observation by Lindell and Whitney (2002) that school leadership is an edgy environment and students incorporated in school governance must possess, or be trained to acquire, the necessary skills needed to balance, direct, control and manipulate, so as to survive in leadership. Without such training, most student leaders would be unprepared for school politics and the conflicts they experience with the administration, colleagues and school policies. The findings are also contrary to Leonard's (2007) observation that training of student leaders in positive values should be an effort to help form their character and aid them in achieving and developing standards of right and wrong to guide them in their role as student leaders.

The respondents who indicated that their SLCs had undergone some form of training reported that the student leaders had undergone training in skill areas such as effective communication, leadership and governance, interpersonal relations, conflict management, temperance and mobilization skills. These are among the key skills considered very crucial for one to become an effective leader.

4.3 Mode of Student Leadership in Secondary Schools

Since student participation in school governance can only be possible through some form of student leadership, the second objective of this study was to establish Principals' perceptions on the existing mode of student leadership in secondary schools. To achieve this objective, the school Principals and Deputy Principals were asked to provide responses to various questions relating to the mode of student leadership in their schools.

4.3.1 Existing Mode of Student Leadership in Secondary Schools

The Deputy Principals who participated in the study were first asked to indicate the existing mode of student leadership in their schools. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Existing Mode of Student Leadership

Mode of Student Leadership	Frequency	Percentage
Appointed School Prefects	92	48.7
Elected School Prefects	50	26.50
Both Student Leaders Council and Prefects	6	3.10
Elected Student Leaders Council (SLC)	41	21.70
Total	189	100

N = 189

Table 12 shows that 48.7% of the sampled schools had an appointed school prefect body, while 26.5% schools had elected school prefects. On the other hand, only

21.7% of the sampled schools had an elected SLC, while a further 3.1% schools had both the SLC and a prefect body.

These findings indicate that the existing mode of student leadership in majority of schools is still the prefect system as opposed to the SLC, as shown by the total of 75.2% of schools that had the prefects as their mode of student leadership. While agreeing with these findings, one of the KSSHA officials interviewed for this study observed that most secondary school principals have continued to exhibit reluctance in embracing the SLC as a mode of student leadership.

However, this is contrary to the recommendations of the National Baseline Survey on Child Participation in School Governance conducted by UNICEF (2009) and Gatt's (2005) observation that schools should put in place a Student Leaders Council through which students can participate in school governance. The findings further contradict the concept of a democratic school as espoused by Arthur et al (2008) and Achinstein (2009); who view school or students' councils as one of the essential features of a school that promotes active political literacy, participation and democracy.

4.3.2 Mode of Student Leadership Preferred by School Principals

The Principals who participated in the study were asked to indicate their preferred mode of student leadership. The results are as shown in Table 13

Table 13

Preferred Mode of Student Leadership

Preferred Mode of student leadership	Frequency	Percentage
Appointed school Prefects	37	22.4
Elected school prefects	35	21.5
Both SLC and Prefects	30	18.4
Elected SLC	61	37.4
Total	163	100.00

N = 163

Table 13 shows that only 37.4% Principals indicated that an elected SLC is their preferred mode of student leadership. However, 22.7% Principals indicated that appointed school prefects was their preferred mode of student leadership, with a further 21.5% Principals indicating that elected school prefects body was the preferred mode of student leadership; giving a total preference of 44.2 % for the prefect mode of student leadership. A further 18.4% Principals indicated that both the SLC and the prefect's body was the preferred mode of student leadership.

From these findings, it can be deduced that majority of the Principals in secondary schools still prefer the prefect system over the student leaders council, as represented by the total 62.6% principals who chose some form of prefect system over the 37.4% who chose the SLC as the preferred system of student leadership. Some of the reasons given by both the Principals and the KSSHA officials for this preference is that prefects, especially those appointed by the school administration will work better with the administration in keeping the administration objectively informed on what is happening in the school, as opposed to elected student leaders who will tend to 'side' with the students. Further, the respondents argued that the other students are more

likely to fear and obey appointees of the school administration, than students they have elected into leadership. Moreover, the Principals argued that elected student leaders would want to be involved in all decisions made in the school so that they can report to the students who elected them, as opposed to prefects who faithfully pass down directives by the school administration to the other students.

These findings echo the assertion by Sifuna (2000) that school principals, who are often used to the bureaucratic nature of the school structure, see nothing wrong or undemocratic in the selection of prefects, because the emphasis in most African educational institutions on blind obedience to school authority is constituted through the prefect system. This is despite the observation by Simatwa (2012) that other students are dissatisfied with the role and significance of the appointed prefects; and the emphasis placed by UNICEF (2009) in their National Baseline Survey on the need for every school in Kenya to put in place an elected SLC through which students can participate in the governance of their school. The findings also contradict the argument raised for the need for schools and school Principals to allow an all inclusive and participatory governance style in which students have an opportunity to give their input in school affairs, through SLCs (Muindi, 2010; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011).

4.3.3 A Comparison of the Two Modes of Student Leadership

This section analyzes data that seeks to make a comparison of the level of success of the two modes of student leadership; and the likelihood of replacing the prefect mode with the SLC in schools where the SLC does not exist. Data for this analysis was collected from the 47 respondents who indicated that a SLC was in existence in their

schools, and from the 148 respondents who indicated that some form of the prefect mode of student leadership exists in their schools.

4.3.3.1 Level of Success of the Two Modes of Student Leadership

The respondents were asked to rate the level of success of the SLC and prefect modes of student leadership in presenting students issues to the school administration. The findings are indicated in Table 14.

Table 14

Level of Success of the Two Modes of Student Leadership

	Frequencies (%)	
	SLC	**Prefects**
Very successful	23.40	21.60
Generally successful	68.09	64.92
Generally Unsuccessful	6.38	8.78
Very Unsuccessful	2.13	4.70
Total	100	100
	N = 47	N = 148

From the analysis in table 14, a total of 91.49% of the respondents indicated that the SLC was successful in presenting students' issues to the school administration. Conversely, only 8.51 % of the respondents said that the SLCs were unsuccessful in presenting students' issues to the administration. On the other hand, the prefect mode of student leadership was rated successful in presenting the students issues to the school administration by 86.52% of the respondents, while 13.48% rated it unsuccessful in presenting students issues to the school administration.

The findings presented in table 14 show that in schools where they exist, both the SLC and the prefect mode of leadership are rated favourably in as far as their success in presenting students' issues to the school administration is concerned; with majority of the respondents rating them as either very successful or generally successful in both cases.

The main reason given for the high rate of success of the SLC is that since the SLC is elected by the students, it feels obligated to fully represent issues concerning the student body to the school administration. Further, the respondents argued that such presentation is usually effective because by the time the SLC goes to the school administration, the members have fully discussed the issues to be presented to the administration with the other students. These arguments support the view that SLCs may be successfully used to provide genuine feedback to the school administration on legitimate student grievances in order to govern the school more effectively (Beaudin, 2005 and Davies, 2006). This is because the council is seen either as a forum where students' complaints could be voiced, or as a means by which students would be better placed to have a say in what is going on in the school. Additionally, the SLC is more acceptable to other students as a means of representation since it is a mode of student leadership put in place by the students themselves.

The high rating of the level of success of the prefect mode of student leadership also agrees with Sifuna's (2000) observation that school administrators who are used to the bureaucratic nature of the school structure see nothing wrong in the selection and utilization of prefects. However, Sifuna (2000) also observes that the prefect system is usually not a form of students' self governance or expression of students' interests,

since its existence is based on satisfying the school authorities rather than serving the student body. Thus, it is often rejected by the other students as a means of presenting their grievances to the school administration.

4.3.3.2 Likelihood of Replacing the Prefect Mode with the SLC

The 148 respondents were further asked to respond on how likely or unlikely it was for the school administration to allow the prefect mode in their schools to be replaced by a SLC. The responses are as indicated in Table 15.

Table 15

Likelihood of Replacing the Prefect Mode with Student Leaders Council

Likelihood	Frequency	Percent
Very much likely	24	16.2
Neither likely nor unlikely	18	12.2
Very much unlikely	98	66.2
No opinion	8	5.4
Total	**148**	**100**

N = 148

Table 15 shows that majority of the respondents 66.22% considered it very much unlikely for the school administration to be willing to replace the prefect system with a SLC. Only 16.2% respondents considered it very much likely that the school administration would be willing to replace the prefect system with a SLC. A further 12.2% indicated that it was neither likely nor unlikely that the school administration would be willing to replace the prefect system with a SLC, while 5.4% respondents

remained non – committal by indicating that they had no opinion on whether the school administration is likely or unlikely to replace the prefects with the SLC.

These findings show that majority of the school principals are still unwilling to fully embrace the SLC as a mode of student leadership in secondary schools. This unwillingness of the school administration to give up the prefectorial system in favour of the SLC is an indication that although Principals may have a genuine desire to relinquish power and share governance, they face the serious problem of how to successfully find new balances of power relationships within the school so as to incorporate students into leadership and school governance. This, as Ryan (2009) argues, makes Principals bypass democratic and participatory options such as the SLC and draw on the hierarchical power associated with the bureaucratic prefectorial system.

4.4 Principals' Perceptions on Student Participation in School Governance

The third objective of this study was to assess Principals' perception on student participation in school governance at secondary school level. To achieve this objective, the Principals' and Deputy Principals were asked to respond to questions on student participation in school governance.

4.4.1 Principals' Approval of Student Representation in Governance Bodies

The Principals were first asked to indicate their opinion on whether students should be represented in the key school governance bodies. Their responses were scored and the results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Principals' Approval of Student Representation in School Governance Bodies

Governance body	A		N		D	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
BOG	49	30.1	7	4.3	107	65.7
PTA	79	48.4	6	3.7	78	47.9
SPC	58	35.6	13	8.0	92	56.4
SDC	144	88.3	0	0.0	19	11.7

N = 163

The data presented in Table 16 shows that 107 Principals disagreed that students should be represented in the BOG, while 49 Principals agreed on the representation of students in the BOG. The remaining 7 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. The findings show that majority of the Principals do not approve of students' representation in the BOG. On representation in the PTA, 79 Principals agreed that students should be represented in the PTA, 78 Principals disagreed with the statement, while 6 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed that students should be represented in the PTA. The findings show a mixed reaction on the approval of student representation in the PTA, with slightly more Principals being in agreement with the idea. Further, 58 Principals agreed that students should be represented in SPCs, 92 Principals disagreed, while 13 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed that students should be represented in SPCs. It seems therefore that majority of the Principals do not approve of student representation in the SPCs.

However, 144 Principals agreed that students need to be represented in SDCs, with only 19 Principals disagreeing with representation of students in SDCs. The SDC therefore seems to be the only governance body that the Principals approve of for

students to be represented in; as attested by majority of the Principals who were in agreement with the statement that students should be represented in SDCs.

Contrary to this, the KSSHA officials interviewed for this study seemed to agree that students should be represented in all school governance bodies; although it should be determined when students should be represented and when they should not. In explain this, one of the KSSHA official observed that:

> *Some of the issues discussed in the BOG, PTA, SPC and SDC are too sensitive and call for a lot of confidentiality. Such issues are not meant for the students' ears… otherwise, there will be a lot more trouble in our schools…*

(Source: KSSHA Official, 12th June 2012)

4.4.2 Consultation between Students and the School Administration

The Principals were further asked to indicate the frequency with which the school administration should consult students when making decisions about the school. The results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Principals' Approval of Frequency of Consultations with students

Consultation with students	Percentage
Never	29.4
Occasionally	52.2
Most of the time	14.7
Always	3.7
Total	100.00

N = 163

Table 17 shows that 29.4% of the Principals totally disapproved of any consultation with students by indicating that the school administration should never consult students when making important decisions. Similarly, 52.2% Principals were of the view that the school administration should occasionally consult the students when making decisions about the school. Only 3.7% of the Principals fully approved of frequent consultations with students by indicating that students should always be consulted when decisions about the school are being made; with a further 14.7% approving of consultation with students most of the time.

These findings show that the approval by school principals for frequent consultation with students when making decisions is still low. Since most of the decisions in any school affect the well being of the students, the findings are an indicator that crucial decisions about the students will be made without the input of the students themselves. This is in line with Gatt (2005) and Street and Temperley's (2006) observation that the student, who holds a central place in the school, is often forgotten or taken for granted when important decisions are being made. Such lack of student consultation in decision making leads to the students opposing decisions made by the school administration, resulting in conflict that is often manifested as student indiscipline or student unrest in schools.

4.4.3 Areas of Consultation between the Students and the School Administration

On the other hand, the Deputy Principals were asked to indicate the frequency with which students should be consulted in key areas of school governance. The responses are indicated in Table 18.

Table 18

Areas of Consultation between the School Administration and Students

Area of Consultation	Frequently		Neither Frequently nor Rarely		Rarely	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
School Rules and Discipline	56	29.6	0	0.0	133	70.4
Co-curricular Activities	126	66.6	35	18.5	28	14.8
Performance Targets	161	85.2	14	7.4	14	7.4
Staff Appointments	0	0.0	0	0.0	189	100.00
Procurement of Learning Resources	28	14.8	35	18.5	126	66.6
Adjustment of School Fees	0	0.0	21	11.1	168	88.9

N = 189

As shown in Table 18, 29.6% of the Deputy Principals indicated that students should be frequently consulted on school rules and discipline, while 70.4% Deputy Principals cited that students should rarely be consulted on matters concerning school rules and discipline. These findings show that the approval of frequent consultation on school rules and discipline is low. Similarly, all the Deputy Principals (100%) did not approve of consultation with students on staff appointments; and none of the Deputy Principals were of the opinion that students should be frequently consulted in matters to do with adjustment of school fees. Also, only 14.8% of the Deputy Principals observed that the school administration should frequently consult students on matters pertaining to procurement of learning resources, while the majority (66.6%) indicated that students should rarely be consulted on procurement of teaching and learning resources.

On the other hand, 66.6% of the Deputy Principals indicated that they approve of frequent consultation with students on co – curricular activities, while 14.8% indicated that students should rarely be consulted on co-curricular activities in their schools. From the findings, it seems that majority of the school administrators approve of frequent consultation with students on matters involving co-curricular activities. Similarly, 85.1% of the Deputy Principals cited that students should frequently be consulted on the setting of performance targets, while 7.4% Deputy Principals indicated that students should rarely be consulted on setting of performance targets. The findings imply that majority of the schools approve of consultation of students on the setting of performance targets.

While agreeing that there should be frequent consultation between the school administration and the students, one of the KSSHA officials however cautioned on blanket consultations with students thus:

> *Yes, there should be consultation, but not on everything. Lets know which areas are open for consultation… Imagine consulting students or bringing them in to discuss something that involves money, say like a construction project. There are things about that that students will never understand… like the hidden costs… then the students will accuse the administration of embezzlement… and you know what will happen in such a case…*

(Source: KSSHA Official, 12th June 2012)

The general picture presented by these findings on areas of consultation between students and the school administration is that the school administration has no problem consulting students in areas of school governance that do not directly deal with finances. However, the administration would rarely consult students when making decisions that will have a direct impact on the acquisition or utilization of

school finances or resources. This is contrary to the observation by Bottery (2000) that democratic forms of governance should include partnerships with students for participatory decision making processes and consultation regarding all aspects of school governance, including planning, implementation and resource allocation.

4.4.4 Communication on Students' Grievances

The Principals were then asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement that students need to be given a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration. The results are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

Communication of Students' Grievances to the School Administration

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
Agree	110	67.5
Disagree	48	29.4
Neither Agree nor disagree	5	3.1
Total	**163**	**100.0**

N = 163

Table 19 shows that out of the 163 Principals, 110 Principals agreed that students should be given a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration, while 48 Principals disagreed with the statement. The remaining 5 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed that students should be given a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration. It can therefore be

concluded that majority of the Principals were in agreement that students should have a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration.

The reason given for this is that such communication will ensure that students' concerns are identified and addressed well and on time. This will in turn reduce the tensions often witnessed between the students and the school administration. Further, the respondents argued that students will feel appreciated where such communication exists and this will make them 'own' any rules or outcomes emanating from such a process. Such communication will also provide a chance to correct mistakes by both parties amicably thus averting the strikes prevalent in secondary schools. These findings support the argument by Beaudin (2005) and Davies (2006) that students need to be given a chance to air their grievances to the school administration for effective management of the school.

4.4.5 Emphasis Placed on Student Participation in School Governance

The Principals were further asked to rate the emphasis placed on student participation in school governance. Their responses were scored and the results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Emphasis on Student Participation in School Governance

Emphasis	Frequencies	Percentages
Too Much	42	25.7
About right	91	55.8
Too little	30	18.4
Total	**163**	**100.0**

N = 163

Table 20 shows that 25.7% of the Principals indicated that the emphasis placed on student participation in school governance is too much, while 18.4% felt that the emphasis given to student participation was too little. However, the majority, 55.8%, of the Principals cited that the emphasis on student participation in school governance was about right. The findings indicate that most Principals were of the idea that the emphasis placed on student participation in school governance was about right, implying that Principals are not fully opposed to the idea of students' participation in school governance.

These findings reflect the observation by Sayeed (2002) that all stakeholders in their initial responses emphasize the importance of student participation in school governance; thus indicating a willingness on their part to embrace democratic school governance. This means that at *prima facie* the school principals appear willing to embrace the concept of student participation in school governance.

4.4.6 Loss of Authority as a Result of Students' Participation

Further, the Principals were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement on the statement that student participation in school governance would lead to loss of authority by the school administration. The results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21

Loss of Authority as a Result of Student Participation

Loss of Authority	Percentage
Agree	69.90
Neither agree nor disagree	7.40
Disagree	12.70
Total	**100.00**

N = 163

The results in Table 21 show that 69.9% of the Principals agreed that student participation in school governance would lead to loss of authority by the school administration, while 12.7% Principals disagreed that the school administration would lose authority as a result of student participation in school governance. The remaining 7.4% neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement. The findings imply that majority of the Principals (69.9%) believe that participation by students in school governance would lead to loss of authority by the school administration in one way or the other.

However, the KSSHA officials interviewed had a contrary opinion to this, since they did not perceive any loss of authority to the school Principal if students participate in school governance. In emphasizing this, one of the KSSHA officials argued that:

> *...Oh no! How can a Principal lose their authority? A Principal will always remain the authority figure in the school. Principals only need to know how to exert their authority positively in light of the incorporation of SLCs in schools. This feeling that Principals will lose their authority if students are bought on board in school governance is so wrong.*

(Source: KSSHA Official, 28th June 2012)

As earlier argued by Sayeed (2002), all stakeholders in their initial responses emphasize the importance of student participation in school governance. However, a more in-depth interrogation of specific stakeholder's perspectives regarding student participation reveals that the Principals do not necessarily value student participation in itself for advancing democratic governance in the school. This is also reflective of the argument by Ryan (2009) that one of the greatest impediments to authentic student participation is the fear by school Principals of losing power and control thus becoming equals with students. Although Principals may have a genuine desire to relinquish power and share governance, they face the serious problem of how to successfully involve students as well as maintain their authority and find new balances of power relationships within the school. This makes Principals bypass democratic and participatory options and draw on the hierarchical power associated with the bureaucratic system of school governance.

4.5 Correlation between Student Participation and Enhanced School Governance

The fourth objective of this study was to correlate student participation and enhanced school governance. To answer this objective, Principals were required to indicate their opinion on whether student participation enhances particular areas of school governance. The results are presented in Table 22.

Table 22

Correlation between Student Participation and Areas of School Governance

School Governance Area	A		N		D	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Student Discipline	144	88.4	7	4.3	12	7.4
Co-curricular Activities	128	78.6	0	0.0	35	21.5
Academic Performance	163	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Procurement of Learning Resources	59	36.2	9	5.5	95	58.3
Staff Appointments	24	14.7	0	0.0	139	85.2
Fees Collection	47	28.8	12	7.4	104	63.8

N = 163

Table 22 shows that 144 Principals agreed that student participation enhance student discipline, 12 Principals disagreed with the statement, while 7 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed that student participation enhances student discipline. Therefore, majority of the Principals are of the opinion that students' participation would enhance the level of student discipline in schools.

Similarly, 128 principals agreed that student participation would enhance co – curricular activities, with only 35 principals disagreeing on this. On academic performance, all the 163 Principals agreed that student participation would enhance academic performance. These findings indicate that all Principals agree that the academic performance of students can enhanced by involving students in decision making especially in areas where academic performance of the students is concerned.

On the contrary, only 59 Principals agreed that student participation would enhance procurement of learning resources, while 95 Principals disagreed with the statement. The remaining 9 Principals neither agreed nor disagreed that student participation would enhance procurement. The findings show that Principals hold the perception that student participation is not necessary in enhancing procurement of learning resources in secondary schools.

Similarly, only 24 Principals agreed that student participation would enhance the process of staff appointments, while the majority of Principals, 139, disagreed that student participation would enhance staff appointments. The findings are an implication that majority of the Principals do not perceive student participation as enhancing the process of staff appointments. Likewise, Majority of the Principals were of the opinion that student participation would not enhance school fees collection as shown by the 104 Principals who disagreed that student participation would enhance fees collection. Only 45 principals agreed with this assertion, with a further 12 Principals neither agreeing nor disagreeing.

The findings presented in Table 22 demonstrate that Principals perceive student participation as enhancing some areas of school governance and not others (with a mean of 57.55% agreeing that student participation enhances school governance). It is notable that the areas of school governance that school principals do not correlate with student participation are those areas that involve decisions about school finances and require some level of accountability. Such a perception is contrary to the idea that procedures in the school that prepare students for participation in school governance should be those that allow the students to participate in, and influence decision

making in all key areas of school governance (Farrant, 2004; Bates, 2006 and Wango, 2009).

Daly and Chrispeels (2008) also submit that for genuine students' participation that will enhance school governance, the Principal must fully trust the students and talk honestly to them about what's working in all areas of the school and what's not working. However, such trust may imply that the Principal will become vulnerable, and will be open to scrutiny from students, especially on areas that require accountability.

4.6 Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis for this study stated in null form was:

Ho$_1$: There is no statistically significant correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance in secondary schools in Kenya.

The data analysis for objective four (as presented in Table 22) was mainly based on qualitative analysis of the data seeking a correlation between student participation and school governance. Therefore, the testing of the hypothesis analyzed the data quantitatively, seeking to establish the statistical significance of the correlation between the Independent Variable (student participation) and the dependent variable (school governance). The hypothesis was tested using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r) at $p \leq 0.05$ significance level, so as to establish the linear relationship between the variables.

The interpretation of the strength of the correlation coefficient presented in Table 23 is based on Amin's (2005) approach. This approach emphasizes that when the (r) value is 0, there is no correlation, and therefore no relationship between the two variables. A value of .1 to .3 implies a low correlation, .3 to .5 implies a medium correlation, whereas a value of .5 to .9 implies a high correlation. A result of 1 means that there is a perfect positive correlation between the two variables. Similarly, negative values would imply negative relationships between the variables.

Table 23

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient on Student Participation and School Governance

		Participation	Governance
Participation	Pearson Correlation	1	.768[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	163	163
Governance	Pearson Correlation	.768[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	163	163

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

The analysis in Table 23 shows a significant and high positive correlation ($r = .768$; $p \leq .05$) between student participation and enhanced school governance at secondary school level. Since the calculated P value of .000 was also less than the level of significance of .05, the hypothesis that 'There is no statistically significant correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance at secondary school level ($p \leq 0.05$)' was rejected. Consequently, the unstated alternative hypothesis was accepted. This means that there exists a statistically significant positive correlation between students' participation and enhanced school governance at secondary school

level. However, the testing of this hypothesis only shows a correlation, and not necessarily a causal relationship, between the two variables.

4.7 Strategies for Enhancing Student Participation in School Governance

The fifth objective for this study was to recommend strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance. The respondents were given an open ended question to respond to so as to capture their opinions on the strategies for student participation in school governance. The responses from the interviewed KSSHA officials on strategies of enhancing student participation were also used to answer this objective.

One of the key strategies that was recommended for enhanced student participation was the enactment of a clear policy guideline indicating which areas of school governance students could participate in and which areas should be left for the sole discretion of the school administration. The KSSHA officials interviewed further emphasized that students cannot just be allowed to participate in some areas of school governance as they may not understand the implications of decisions made in such areas. One such area that was singled out was the area of school finances. The respondents argued that allowing students to participate in the financial decisions of the school could lead to unfounded allegations of misappropriation of school funds.

Secondly, the respondents recommended that both the students, Principals and other key education stakeholders should undergo extensive training on student participation and its significance on school governance. The students in the SLCs should further undergo continuous meaningful training on key aspects of leadership; and be made to

understand the challenges inherent to leadership. The Principals on their part should be sensitized on the benefits of democratic and participatory school governance before they can fully embrace the concept of student participation.

A further recommendation was to have school Principals rotated after a given period of time. This was in realization of the fact that school Principals who serve in one school for a long time tend to develop a sense of 'ownership' towards the school, thus making it difficult for such Principals to embrace certain aspects of change that need to be introduced in 'their' schools. The respondents further argued that such rotation would expose school Principals to varying school cultures; some of which may make them more positive to changes in school governance systems.

Additionally, schools should be encouraged to nurture environments where there is freedom of speech, where everyone is entitled to their own opinion and where there is no victimization for positive criticism. Such an environment would make students feel free to air their views and opinions to the school administration without fear. Further, the school administration should adopt an open door policy where students can consult with the administration on issues concerning them without having to go through unnecessary bureaucratic channels.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three major sections; summary, conclusions and recommendations. These divisions were informed by the purpose, objectives, and the results of the study.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to establish the perception of school Principals on student participation in school governance in Kenyan secondary schools. This study was guided by the fact that very few empirical studies have been done to establish the perception of Principals on how student participation through SLCs would affect school governance. The objectives of the study explored issues of leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance, existing modes of student leadership in secondary schools, the perception of Principals on student participation in school governance, the correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance, and the strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance at the secondary school level.

Literature was reviewed based on the concept of school governance, leadership literacies that influence student participation in school governance, existing modes of student leadership, Principals' perception of student participation in school governance, and enhancing school governance through student participation. The study adopted a mixed method research design and targeted a total of 426 Principals

and 426 Deputy Principals. Data was collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. The data analysis employed the use of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics and was presented using tables of frequencies and percentages. The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to test the stated null hypothesis.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The analysis of data revealed the following findings:

i) The level of cultural, moral and religious literacies in most schools is high since the schools have philosophies, statements and practices that inculcate in students positive values that would enhance their positive participation in school governance. However, in most schools, the level of student representation, awareness and training in leadership is low, and this is an indication of a low level of political literacy; which is equally very crucial for students' participation in school governance to succeed. This is contrary to the arguments by Arthur and Davison (2000) and Achinstein (2006) that schools should teach students a range of skills necessary for democratic participation, so as to prepare the students to understand and act on their rights and responsibilities for effective participation in the leadership of their communities, including the school community. Otherwise, most student leaders would be unprepared for school politics and the conflicts they will most definitely experience with the school administration, their colleagues and school policies once involved in school governance (Lindell and Whitney, 2002).

ii) Most secondary schools still adhere to the traditional, and bureaucratic, prefect mode of student leadership as opposed to the proposed SLC that is regarded as

the best mode of student leadership worldwide. Further, most secondary school principals still prefer the prefect system of student leadership over the SLC. This is despite the recommendation by UNICEF (2009) that all schools should put in place a SLC through which students can participate in school governance; and the observation that other students are dissatisfied with the role and significance of the appointed school prefects, thus necessitating schools and school Principals to allow an all inclusive and participatory governance through SLCs (Simatwa, 2012; Muindi, 2010; Mule, 2011; Mugali, 2011; Tikoko & Kiprop, 2011).

iii) School Principals perceive students participation in school governance as a loss to their authority in the school, and do not fully approve of student representation in key governance bodies of the schools such as the BOG, PTA and SPC. Consequently, student representation in these key governance bodies of the schools is very low. Additionally, approval by principals for consultation of students on some important aspects of the school, especially those that touch on finances, is low. Areas of school governance where students are allowed to participate, and are consulted in, are those considered low – risk to the authority of the school administration. These findings agree with the definition of a bureaucratic school that defines the school Principal as the ultimate figure of authority and decision maker in the school (Rhodes and Brundrett, 2009; Mule, 2011; Sifuna, 2000).

iv) There is a strong positive correlation between student participation and enhanced school governance. Most Principals, despite their low approval of student representation and consultation, still attest to a strong positive

correlation between student participation and school governance, especially in areas such as co – curricular activities, performance targets and student discipline. However, the Principals also indicated that student participation would not enhance governance in some areas such as procurement, staff appointments and fees collection.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were made based on the findings of this study:

i) School governance is still bureaucratic in nature, with power and authority being vested in the Principal and student governance being mainly through appointed school prefects.

ii) Most schools are adequately preparing students to fit into a bureaucratic society that emphasizes obedience to rules and authority; as opposed to critical thinking, questioning of the status quo and awareness of individual and social rights.

iii) School Principals do not approve of student participation in areas that touch on school finances, and do not allow students to hold them accountable for decisions made in such areas. This is indicated by a lack of student representation in key decision making organs of the school.

iv) Despite Principal's genuine desire to relinquish power and share governance, they face the serious problem of how to successfully involve students as well as maintain their authority as school principals.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of this study:

i) Schools should strengthen their leadership cultures by equipping students with all the literacies needed to participate in school governance. This is especially true for political literacy where students should be made aware of, trained, and allowed to exercise their rights and responsibilities.

ii) Secondary school Principals should facilitate a shift from the prefect system of student leadership to the student leaders council. This will make the school a democratic institution with mechanisms for authentic student participation in the school.

iii) The Ministry of Education should come up with clear policy guidelines on which areas of school governance students can participate in and which areas they should not be involved in. This will enable the school administration to put in place mechanisms to ensure that students' participate in the defined areas of school governance through consultation and representation in key decision making bodies of the school, such as the BOG, PTA and SPC.

iv) School Principals should be trained on how to embrace student governance in their schools and how to achieve a balance between student participation and their own authority. The Principals would need to learn how to establish an enabling environment that encourages the students to participate in school governance in a climate of commitment, trust and empathetic understanding.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

i)   A study should be conducted to find out the perception of other key education stakeholders on student participation in school governance

ii) A study should be conducted to assess in depth the implication of student participation the governance on specific aspects of the school such as academic performance, discipline, staff morale, among others

iii) There is need to investigate the role of parental involvement in enhancing student participation in school governance.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE 1 – PRINCIPALS

This Questionnaire is for a study on student participation in school governance in secondary schools. The information provided will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than for the research study. You are not required to indicate your name anywhere in this Questionnaire.

Please put a tick [√] in the box next to the right response (where appropriate)

Part I- Leadership Literacies that Influence Student Participation

1. What is your school Motto?

_____

_____

2. In your opinion, what is the level of internalization of the school Motto by the members of the school community?

(a) High	[ ]
(b) Neither High nor low	[ ]
(c) Low	[ ]
(d) No opinion	[ ]

3. What is the Vision of your school?

_____

_____

4. How often does the vision of the school determine the pace of activities in the school?

(a) Most of the time	[ ]
(b) Occasionally	[ ]
(c) Never	[ ]
(d) No opinion	[ ]

5. On a scale of 1 – 3, indicate whether the following moral values and beliefs guide the daily activities in your school. (A score of 1 means the value is highly rated while a score of 3 indicates a low rating. A score of 2 is a neutral score)

Value	1	2	3
Honesty			
Fairness			
Responsibility			
Caring for others			

6. What efforts are made by the school administration towards enforcing the values stated in 8 above?

_____

_____

_____

7. Indicate whether your school is affiliated (or sponsored) by any of the following denominations

    (a)   Catholic
    (b)   Seventh Day Adventist
    (c)   Protestant Church (Specify)_____
    (d)   Muslim
    (e)   Hindu
    (f)   Any Other (Specify)_____
    (g)   Not Applicable

8. How often are religious services held in your school?

    (a)   Once a week
    (b)   More than once a week
    (c)   Once a month
    (d)   More than once a month
    (e)   Occasionally
    (f)   Not applicable

9. Indicate whether you agree or disagree that secondary school students should acquire the following skills in school in order to become functional members of society

Key: A- Agree, N- Neither Agree nor Disagree, D- Disagree,

Qualities	A	N	D
Unquestioning respect for authority			
Conformity to the status quo			
Self – respect and responsibility			
Critical thinking and inquiry			
Independence of thought and action			
Tolerance of diversity			

10. Do you agree or disagree that students should be entitled to the following rights in the school?

Key: Agree, A- Agree, N- Neither Agree nor Disagree, D- Disagree,

Students Right	A	N	D
The right to be heard before punishment is given			
The right to well prepared teaching			
The right to demand for accountability			
Freedom of movement in and out of school			
Freedom of assembly			

PART II – Preferred Mode of Student Leadership

11. Which is your preferred mode of student leadership in schools?

    (a) Elected Student Leaders Council   [   ]
    (b) Elected School Prefects   [   ]
    (c) Appointed School Prefects   [   ]
    (d) Both Student Leaders Council and Prefects   [   ]

12. Give a reason for your answer in 11 above

_____

_____

PART III: Student Participation in School Governance

13. Indicate whether students in your school are represented in the following school governance bodies.

	YES	NO
(a) Board of Governors	[ ]	[ ]
(b) Parents Teachers Association	[ ]	[ ]
(c) School Planning Committees	[ ]	[ ]
(d) School Disciplinary Committee	[ ]	[ ]

14. Indicate whether you agree or disagree that students should be represented in the following school governance bodies

Key: A- Agree, N- Neither Agree nor Disagree, D- Disagree.

Governance body	A	N	D
Board of Governors			
Parents Teachers Association			
School Planning Committees			
Students Disciplinary Committee			

15. How often do you consult students when making decisions about the school?

(a) Always	[ ]
(b) Most of the time	[ ]
(c) Occasionally	[ ]
(d) Never	[ ]

16. Do you agree or disagree that students should be given a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration

    (a) Agree   [ ]

    (b) Neither agree nor disagree   [ ]

    (c) Disagree   [ ]

17. Give a reason for your answer in 16 above

PART IV- Principals Perception on Student Participation in School Governance

18. Would you say the emphasis placed on student participation in school governance is too much, too little, or just about right?

    (a) Too much   [ ]

    (b) About right   [ ]

    (c) Too little   [ ]

19. Do you agree or disagree that student participation in decision making in the school would lead to loss of authority by the school administration?

    (a) Agree   [ ]

    (b) Neither agree nor Disagree   [ ]

    (c) Disagree   [ ]

Part V – Correlation between Student Participation and Enhanced School Governance

20. Indicate whether you agree or disagree that student participation is effective in improving the following areas of school governance

Key: A- Agree, N- Neither Agree nor Disagree, D- Disagree.

Area of Governance	A	N	D
Student discipline			
Academic performance			
Procurement of learning resources			
Staff appointments			
Co-curricular activities			
Fees collection			

21. Suggest any two strategies of enhancing student's participation in school governance

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank You for Your Responses

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE 2 – DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

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Please put a tick [√] in the box next to the right response (where appropriate)

Demographic Data

1. Category of School

   (a) (i) National   [ ]

      (ii) Provincial   [ ]

      (iii) District   [ ]

   (b) (i) Boys   [ ]

      (ii) Girls   [ ]

      (iii) Mixed   [ ]

   (c) (i) Day   [ ]

      (ii) Boarding   [ ]

PART I: Mode of Student Leadership

2. What mode of student leadership exists in your school?

   (a) Elected Student Leaders Council   [ ]

   (b) Elected School Prefects   [ ]

   (c) Appointed School Prefects   [ ]

   (d) Both Student Leaders Council and Prefects   [ ]

  * If your answer to question 2 above is (a), answer questions 3 – 8.   If your answer is (b), (c) or (d) skip to questions 9-13.

3. When was the student Leaders council put in place in your school?

   (a) Less than 1 year ago   [ ]

   (b) More than 1 year ago   [ ]

4. How would you rate the level of support given to the Student Leaders Council in your school?

    (a) Adequate   [ ]
    (b) Fair   [ ]
    (c) Barely adequate   [ ]

5. How successful is the Student Leaders Council in presenting students' issues to the school administration?

    (a) Very successful   [ ]
    (b) Generally successful   [ ]
    (c) Generally unsuccessful   [ ]
    (d) Very unsuccessful   [ ]

6. Give a reason for your answer in 5 above

_____

_____

7. Indicate the period when the Student Leaders received the training?

    (a)   More than 1 year ago   [ ]
    (b)   Less than 1 year ago   [ ]
    (c)   Never been trained   [ ]

8. Indicate any two skill areas in which the student leaders in your school have been trained

_____

_____

(Answer question 9 – 18 if your answer to question 2 was (b) or (c)

9. How successful is the prefect system in presenting students' issues to the school administration?

    (a) Very successful   [ ]
    (b) Generally successful   [ ]
    (c) Generally unsuccessful   [ ]
    (d) Very unsuccessful   [ ]

10. Give a reason for your answer in 9 above

_____

_____

11. How likely or unlikely is it for the school administration to allow the prefect system in your school to be replaced by a Student Leaders Council?

    (a) Very much likely   [ ]

    (b) Neither likely nor unlikely   [ ]

    (c) Somewhat unlikely   [ ]

    (d) Very much unlikely   [ ]

    (e) No opinion   [ ]

12. Give a reason for your answer in 11 above

_____

_____

13. Have the students in your school been made aware of their right to elect a Student Leaders Council?

    (a) Yes   [ ]

    (b) No   [ ]

Part II – Student Participation in School Governance

14. Indicate the frequency with which students are consulted with regard to the following areas in the school:

AREA	Frequently	Neither Frequently nor rarely	Rarely
School rules and discipline			
Co-curricular activities			
Staff appointments			
Performance targets			
Procurement of learning resources			
School fees			

15. Recommend any two strategies for enhancing student participation in school governance

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank You for Your Responses

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE – KSSHA OFFICIALS

This Interview is for a study on student participation in school governance in secondary schools. The information provided will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than for the research study.

1. In your opinion, have schools adopted the student leaders councils as a system of student leadership?

2. Would you say the emphasis placed on student participation in school governance is too much, too little, or just about right?

3. In your opinion, have the students been made aware of their right to elect a student leaders council?

4. In your opinion, would student participation in school governance lead to loss of authority by the school administration?

5. Do you agree or disagree that Principals should consult students when making decisions about the school, and what should be the areas of such consultations if any?

6. Do you agree or disagree that students should be represented in the BOG, PTA, SPC or SDC?

7. In your opinion, would student participation in decision making be effective in improving school governance?

8. Do you agree or disagree that students should be given a chance to communicate their grievances to the school administration?

9. In your opinion, what are some of the rights students should be entitled to in school, and why should they be entitled to these rights?

10. What policy guidelines would you recommend for enhancing student's participation in school governance?

APPENDIX IV: RECOMMENDED SAMPLE SIZE FROM A GIVEN POPULATION

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	246
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	181	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	180	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	190	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	200	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	210	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	220	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	230	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	240	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	250	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	260	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	270	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Key: "N" is Population Size
      "S" is Sample Size.

Source; Krejcie & Morgan (1970).

APPENDIX V: CRONBACH'S ALPHA DECISION RULE

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent
$.9 > \alpha \geq .8$	Good
$.8 > \alpha \geq .7$	Acceptable
$.7 > \alpha \geq .6$	Questionable
$.6 > \alpha \geq .5$	Poor
$.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Source: Golafshani (2003).