# THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND SELECTED CORRELATES OF SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NAKURU COUNTY, KENYA

**BY**

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**ELDORET**

**2019**

# DECLARATION

## DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

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## DECLARATION BY SUPERVISORS

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## DEDICATION

In memory of my dear late Parents:

Mum Esther Kerubo Onditi, and Dad Yuvinalis Onditi Manyura;

for nurturing in me the thirst for education and the desire to always excel

And

For my beloved wife Dr. Emily Nyabisi; and all my children:

for unwaveringly supporting and inspiring me to achieve beyond my dreams

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Finally, all ultimate praise and glory for what it took to complete this work goes back to the Almighty God; without whom all that is done is done in vain.

## ABSTRACT

Secondary schools in Kenya have continued to experience challenges in specific correlates that characterize effective schools. Whereas the role of the school leader in addressing these challenges has been extensively explored in research, there is not much empirical evidence on the role of student leaders in enhancing these correlates of effective schools. Therefore, this study aimed at investigating the relationship between student leadership and selected correlates of school effectiveness in secondary schools in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were to: determine the skills acquired through student leadership in secondary schools in Kenya, establish the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya; establish the relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya; and establish the relationship between student leadership and the effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools in Kenya. The study was based on the Progressive Education Theory, by Dewey, as cited in Levin (1980); and the Participative Leadership Theory as proposed by Yukl (2006). The literature review focused on the concepts of student leadership in schools and the selected aspects of school effectiveness under investigation. The study adopted a mixed method research design whereby data that was presented both qualitatively and quantitatively was collected. The data was collected using questionnaires and interview schedules. The study targeted secondary school head teachers, deputy head teachers and student leaders from public secondary schools. The total sample size was 339 respondents, comprising of 113 headteachers, 113 deputy headteachers and 113 student leaders who were randomly selected from the sampled schools. These sample schools were chosen using cluster, stratified, and simple random sampling techniques. The collected data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive data was presented using tables of frequencies and percentages, while the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to infer on the relationship between student leadership and the selected correlates of school effectiveness. The findings of the study showed that there is a positive correlation between student leadership and academic achievement ($r = .462$), student leadership and student discipline ($r = .547$), and student leadership and effective communication ($r = .457$) in secondary schools. These findings will be useful in helping secondary school administrators and managers, the Ministry of Education, and other key education stakeholders in coming up with ways of strengthening student leadership in schools so as to enhance overall school effectiveness.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ACT | - | Australian Capital Territory |
| CA | - | Communication Apprehension |
| KHRC | - | Kenya Human Rights Commission |
| KSSHA | - | Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association |
| KSSSC | - | Kenya Secondary Schools Student Council |
| KNEC | - | Kenya National Examinations Council |
| NACOSTI | | National Council for Science, Technology and Innovation |
| NNPS | - | National Network of Partnership Schools |
| PALS | - | Peer Assisted Learning Scheme |
| PET | - | Progressive Education Theory |
| PLT | - | Participative Leadership Theory |
| SBA | - | School – Based Accountability |
| SES | - | Socio – Economic Status |
| SLC | - | Student Leaders Council |
| SRC | - | Student Representative Council |
| TCL | - | Teacher Collective Learning |
| UNICEF | - | United Nations Children Education Fund |
| USA | - | United States of America |
| UK | - | United Kingdom |

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# CHAPTER ONE

# BACKROUND TO THE STUDY

This chapter presents the introduction, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, and the research hypothesis. The chapter further discusses the justification, significance, assumptions, scope, and limitations of the study. The theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definition of terms are also presented.

## 1.1 Introduction

There has been a continuous debate among education stakeholders worldwide on how to create effective schools. This is because the perceived effectiveness of a school has the potential of improving the satisfaction of all the members of the school; and consequently nurture a collegial environment that forges strong relationships among the school members (Gordon & Patterson, 2006). Research on school effectiveness has suggested that some schools are more effective than others, which invokes questions about what is effectiveness and what are the factors that contribute to school effectiveness. However, it must be noted that school effectiveness is not a neutral term. Whereas effective schools can be differentiated from ineffective ones, there is no consensus yet on just what constitutes an effective school. Therefore, defining the effectiveness of a particular school always requires choices among competing values; and definitions of school effectiveness are dependent upon a variety of factors.

School improvement literature has put great emphasis on the role of school leaders in achieving school effectiveness. Leithwood et al, (2006) and Lezotte (2010) emphasize that the core role of the school leader is to ensure the achievement of the established

mission by creating a good environment in the school. However, educational leadership is mostly associated with the role of the school administration team, and more specifically, the school principal. Much of the focus in education leadership research is with regard to the principal's role as an instructional leader. Such literature has shown that the school principal is supposed to align and monitor programs; and structure processes, resources and staff to support student achievement. The principal is also supposed to manage and direct the human, material, capital and technological resources for efficient and effective school learning climates (Begley 2003; Dempster, 2002; Draper & McMichael, 2003).

However, effective school improvement projects should not always be initiated from the top leadership, such as headteachers, but should include all stakeholders, and build on non-hierarchical relationships in the school. Shannon and Bylsma's (2007) argument is that school effectiveness should flow and draw on the entire school environment. This should include teachers, students and all other school leaders. Further research shows that in order to meet the heightened, multiple expectations placed on them and become effective, schools must strive to have engaged students and teachers. To achieve this, it is argued that schools need to become learning organisations, consciously and continuously pursuing quality improvement. Lezotte (2010) and Langer (2004) observe that within schools that are learning organisations, new types of relationship between students, teachers and leaders evolve. The key in these new types of relationships is to engage students more directly in their learning, to make them co-workers with teachers in the learning process; rather than just recipients of knowledge. This is because students mostly do things because they are interested rather than because they are told. When students feel that they are part of

the management process in their schools, they will help carry forward change more effectively and also strive to achieve at higher levels.

Lobdell (2007) points out that for effective student engagement, two-way effective communication amongst all members in the school is fundamental. Effective communication is critical in sharing of goals, demonstrating mutual respect, and joining in partnerships that are necessary for resolving differences and creating mutual understanding among all members of the school community. Schmoker (2005) argues that the efficiency and effectiveness of a school system depends on its communication system; and that effective schools are characterized by consensus on goals and participation in decision making through effective communication. This means that when members of a shool system communicate with each other effectively, they are able to decide on what needs to be done to achieve the goals of school effectiveness.

Reynolds (2000) further observes that the factors associated with school effectiveness in developing countries are not always the same as those used in school effectiveness research in developed countries. Studies by Hershberg (2004), Welner (2010), ACT (2005) and Mohan (2004) support this assertion by pointing out that in countries such as America, Australia and Malaysia, effective schools are considered to be those that are able to meet the educational needs of the 21$^{st}$ century. These needs include ensuring that all students reach high standards of academic achievement, are able to use technology, are able to think critically and solve problems, and are able to learn on their own throughout their lives.

Further, effective schools in developed countries should have credentialed teachers and safe learning environments. Emphasis is also placed on good school management, with less disciplinary problems for students in effective schools. Thus, student discipline is identified as a very vital element in all effective schools. Discipline is regarded as a process of education and training that is designed to improve and perfect behaviour, so as to develop self controlled adults of the future. Discipline also aims at enhancing a social order in the school, where the rights and responsibilities of students in the school are balanced (Squelch, 2000; Sushila, 2004).

In contrast, school effectiveness in most developing countries is mostly only viewed in terms of academic achievement. Studies on school effectiveness in South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya point out that the concept of school effectiveness is mostly linked to learner achievement; with great emphasis on the academic results of students in examinations. Therefore, the achievement of 'good' examination results is often the only yardstick for evaluating school effectiveness in most developing countries. This means that schools with 'poor' results are generally assumed to be less effective than schools with 'better' results; since the society in general attaches a lot of importance to examination results as a measure of school effectiveness. The resulting effect is that students' academic progress and results are measured frequently, monitored frequently, and the results of these assessments are used to improve the individual student's performance (Makoelle, 2014; Dike, 2001; Musungu & Nasongo, 2008; Oduol, 2006).

Townsend (2007) notes that this notion of academic achievement-oriented concentration of school effectiveness has led to the initiation of measures of school

effectiveness that only focus on testing as opposed to competency and capacity building in individual students. It has also been reported that this emphasis on examinations does not provide a systematic intervention system to improve learner achievements in other areas and also improve overall school effectiveness. Gray (2004) argues that although examination results are a measure of school effectiveness, they do not give the whole picture with regard to the effectiveness of a school. Such results also give very little information about the other outcomes of the educational process. Consequently, whereas academic measures have been widely used to identify good practices in effective schools for developing countries, there is still need for the empirical exploration of other correlates or measures of school effectiveness. Such measures should capture more of the school processes and measure a broad range of outcomes for both the students and the school.

Many secondary schools in Kenya no longer function in safe and effective contexts because of lack of monitoring of these other correlates of school effectiveness; especially, student discipline and effective communication. As Birgen (2007) points out, moral depravity, drugs and violence have become major problems facing secondary schools in Kenya today. Schools are often faced with sporadic incidences of unrest that lead to destruction of school property and even loss of lives. Such incidences impact negatively on school infrastructure, teaching time and parents' financial ability to pay for the destruction.

Nyabisi (2012) emphasizes that one of the major reasons for conflict and indiscipline in schools is misunderstanding, which is often caused by poor communication between the students and the school administration. This echoes the report of the task

force on student discipline and unrest in secondary schools (GOK, 2001) which revealed that in Kenyan schools, there exists lack of clear channels of communication between the headteacher and other education stakeholders, especially the students. Such lack of some degree of freedom of expression may build up pressure and create situations where students may have no way of expressing their frustrations; thus leading to disruptive behaviour in schools.

This would therefore be a strong and valid argument to involve students in initiatives to enhance school effectiveness. As argued by Hay and Dempster (2004), student participation in various aspects of school governance is an important concept with potential for positive impact in enhancing the effectiveness of schools and the overall development of the student. Students can participate in school governance through student leadership. Student leadership refers to the work of student representative bodies, through which the school has the perceived role of instilling leadership knowledge and practices in students (Huddleston, 2007). The concept of student leadership is based on distributive leadership which, as Spillane (2006) observes, moves beyond identifying leadership solely in the traditional leader, to recognizing the leadership functions that may be assumed or assigned to other leaders within the school, including student leaders.

Marzano et al (2005) emphasize that students can often "slip through the cracks" and go unnoticed, especially in larger schools with many members. In a large impersonal school where there is little contact between teachers and students, students are less likely to affect school effectiveness; and student violence will be higher in such schools. This is because students feel that they cannot influence what will happen to

them; and that their future is dependent upon the actions of others, rather than on their own efforts. Thus, there is need for empirical evidence on how to involve the students in school governance, through student leadership, so as to facilitate student participation in enhancing the specific correlates of school effectiveness.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Research has shown that various factors characterize an effective school, key among which are school leadership, improved academic achievement, enhanced student discipline and effective communication. However, secondary schools in Kenya have continued to experience challenges in these correlates of effective schools. There continues to be a crisis of student discipline in schools which is manifested through student unrest and violence; and these incidences have largely been attributed to lack of effective communication between students and the school administration. If this trend of lack of effective communication which results in declining standards of student discipline is left unchecked, Kenyan secondary schools will also continue to experience a decline in academic achievement in schools, thus ultimately compromising on overall school effectiveness.

Studies have emphasized school leadership as a key factor in addressing the challenges identified with these correlates of school effectiveness. The studies have pointed out that the school leaders' efficiency in performing their roles is one of the defining factors of an effective school. However, such studies have over - emphasized the role of the head teacher as the only major school leader, with very little empirical evidence on how student leadership can enhance the specific correlates of school effectiveness. This study therefore sought to fill this gap by exploring ways in which

student leadership can enhance school effectiveness, with specific reference to academic performance, student discipline and effective communication as correlates of school effectiveness.

### 1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between student leadership and selected correlates of school effectiveness in secondary schools in Kenya.

### 1.4 Objectives of the Study

From the broad purpose of the study, the following specific research objectives were drawn:

(i) To determine the relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools in Kenya.

(ii) To establish the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya.

(iii) To establish the relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya.

(iv) To establish the relationship between student leadership and the effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools in Kenya.

### 1.5 Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this study, stated in null form, were:

**Ho 1** - There is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools in Kenya.

**Ho 2** - There is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya.

**$H_O$ 3** - There is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya.

**Ho 4** - There is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and effective communication in secondary schools in Kenya.

### 1.6 Justification For The Study

This study has been necessitated by the increased concern by education stakeholders in Kenya over the need for schools to be managed in a more effective manner. This is especially significant since school leaders, including student leaders, face an array of leadership challenges that affect school effectiveness. This study sought to explore the relationship between student leadership and selected correlates of school effectiveness. Further, there exists a gap in research concerning the role of student leadership in enhancing specific aspects of school effectiveness, as explored in this study. This gap is compounded by the fact that there is no consensus among researchers on what specifically constitutes effective schools.

### 1.7 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is hinged on the fact that schools have continued to face a crisis of management emanating from the perceived lack of student participation in

school leadership. This crisis is manifested in the continued incidences of student unrest, which are an indication of the deteriorating levels of discipline in schools. These incidences of unrest have mostly been blamed on a lack of effective communication between the students and the school administration. If not addressed, such incidences of unrest and other forms of student indiscipline will continue to impact negatively on students' academic performance. Thus, the findings of this study would help the administrators and management of secondary schools, student leaders, and the Ministry of Education, to come up with policies and practices of enhancing student leadership in schools. This will in turn enhance the specific correlates of school effectiveness explored in the study, that is academic performance, student discipline and effective communication. The study findings can also be used by other researchers as a basis for comparing the findings of similar studies on school effectiveness.

### 1.8 Assumptions of the Study

In carrying out this study, several assumptions were made. One of the assumptions was that secondary schools in Nakuru County have an established student leadership system through which students are involved in various aspects of school governance. The other assumption was that the schools have defined discipline standards and established rules and regulations through which the level of discipline is gauged. A further assumption was that the schools have an established system of communication through which messages and information is relayed within the school system. The final assumption was that the respondents sampled for the study would cooperate to give accurate and honest responses to the research questions.

## 1.9 Scope of the Study

This study focused on the relationship between student leadership and selected correlates of school effectiveness. Whereas there are several correlates that characterize effective schools as identified in school effecivenss research, this study only confined itself to the specific correlates of academic achievement, student discipline and effectiveness of communication. The study was restricted to public secondary schools in Nakuru County, and the respondents were the headteachers, deputy headteachers, and student leaders in these schools. The student leaders from whom data was collected were the presidents of the student leaders council, and not all the elected student leaders in the school.

## 1.10 Limitations of the Study

The main limitation in this study was the vastness of the study area, that is Nakuru County. Nakuru County is the fourth largest County in Kenya and comprises of nine sub-counties. Therefore, the schools targeted and sampled for the study were spread over a wide geographical area. This means that the reasercher spent a considerably longer time collecting data than would have been the case with a smaller study area. Secondly, not many studies have been conducted on the relationship between student leadership and the specific correlates of school effectiveness explored in this study, especially in the Kenyan context. Hence, the basis for comparing the findings of this study to those of other studies from Kenya was limited.

## 1.11 Theoretical Framework

This study used as its theoretical basis two theories; the Progressive Education Theory (PET) by John Dewey and the Participative Leadership Theory (PLT) by Yukl (2006).

The PET argues that schools should serve the ideals of providing a moral education dedicated to human development and democratic ideals with reference to the needs of the workplace. Dewey in Levin (1980) argues that by creating ideal social communities in the school, the eventual growth of youth into adulthood would transform adult society along similar principles. Dewey rejected the instrumentalist views of school in which an education was predicted upon only producing a special education output, that is, academic performance. In progressive education, each child is to be given a maximum opportunity to develop their talent through exposure to a wide range of experiences in which democratic participation and intrinsic satisfaction are the principle guidelines of the school.

The PET is mostly a normative theory of the relation between education and work, and does not dwell much on the democratic leadership practices within the school. Therefore, the second theory, the Participative Leadership Theory (PLT) was used to explore the concept of student leadership in the school. The PLT is a proactive approach to management based on the key principles of consultation, awareness, and empowerment. Just like in the PET, at the core of PLT is democracy in modern governance and decision making. 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, thus reducing the level of conflict and competition among the members of the institution (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) further emphasizes that a leader can achieve high results, better cooperation and enhanced effectiveness by using participative leadership. Kara and Loughlin (2013) also observe that participative leadership is based on power – sharing and the sharing of responsibilities over more people rather than one central figure in the institution.

The PET and PLT were used to derive the variables that were explored in this study. One key variable is participation of students in leadership, which is one of the democratic ideals proposed by the PET. There is the assumption that if students participate in school leadership, they will get the opportunity to influence key aspects of the school; such as academic achievement, student discipline and communication. Additionally, student participation in leadership would enable them to explore and develop their leadership talents and abilities through exposure to a wide range of leadership experiences. Further, students' participation in leadership will entail the involvement of students in decision making. As expounded by the PLT, there is also the assumption that if students are involved in making decisions, they will 'own' the decisions made and this will lead to enhanced school effectiveness and reduced conflict in the school. For this to be achieved, the school leadership would have to be participative and seek to involve students, alongside other school leaders.

### 1.12 Conceptual Framework

Based on the Progressive Education and Participative Leadership theories, the variables and concepts for this study were identified and conceptualized as shown in figure 1.

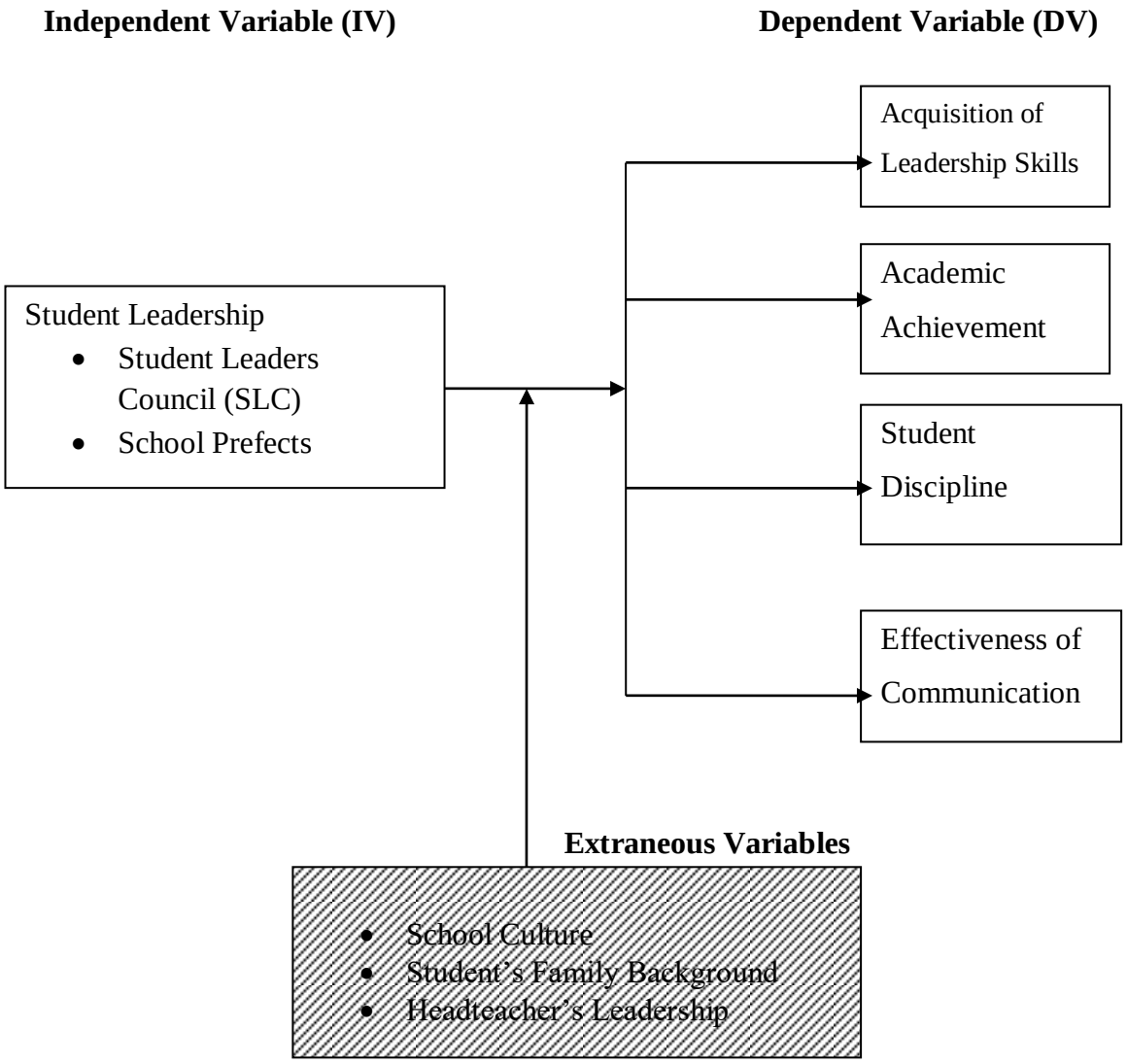


**Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework shows the link between the independent variable (student leadership) and the values of the dependent variable (school effectiveness). The specific values of the depend variable which were explored were: acquisition of leadership skills, academic achievement, student discipline, and effectiveness of communication. If this link is taken into consideration, it is expected that student leadership will contribute to these specific correlates of school effectiveness. Therefore, student leadership is hypothesized in this study to be a predictor of these correlates of school effectiveness.

There are other variables that would impact on the relationship between student leadership and school effectiveness. These are portrayed in the conceptual framework as extraneous variables. The extraneous variables identified in this study were: School culture, students' family background and headteachers' leadership styles. The effect of these extraneous variables on the relationship between the IV and DV was not assessed in this study.

## 1.13 Definition of Key Terms

**Student Leadership**

This refers to a system of appointing or electing some students to be in charge of the others in the school and to oversee aspects of students' organization and school management. Student leadership in Kenyan schools takes two forms; the prefect system or the Student Leaders Council(SLC). The student leaders who were involved in this study were only those at the top of the hierarchy of student leadership in their respective schools.

**School effectiveness**

This refers to the extent to which a set of goals is achieved in the school. The goals that determine school effectiveness that were explored in this study were academic achievement, student discipline, and effective communication.

**Academic achievement**

This refers to the acquisition of skills and knowledge by learners as a result of the teaching and learning activities in the school. Academic achievement is normally measured by what the students score in a given examination/test.

**Student Discipline**

This refers to the controlled behavior that results from training students to obey school rules and regulations. Student discipline is measured by the number and frequency of infraction on the school rules.

**Communication**

Communication refers to the means the passing information from the school administration to the students and from the students to the school administration. The level of communication is measured through the

frequency with which information is passed to and from the school administration and the students.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter explores literature that is related to both school effectiveness and student leadership in schools, with an aim of linking the two variables. The literature is reviewed under the subtitles of: the concept of school effectiveness; the concept of school leadership; student leadership in schools and skills necessary for student leadership. The literature further explores student leadership in relation to the specific correlates of school effectiveneveness explored in this study, that is, academic achievement, student discipline and effective communication.

## 2.1 The Concept of School Effectiveness

The uniqueness of each school and the strategies undertaken to promote increased student learning, achievement and well-being provide the context for debates on school effectiveness. Schools worldwide are being held to higher standards of accountability and performance. Mulford (2003) argues that schools need to become learning organisations, consciously and continuously pursuing quality improvement. Within schools that are learning organisations, new types of relationship between students, teachers and leaders evolve based around a reasonably common set of characteristics that include a trusting and collaborative climate, a shared and monitored mission, taking initiatives and risks, and ongoing, relevant professional development. Magableh & Hawamdeh (2007) further point out that education stakeholders are continuously demanding that educators and school administrators should use new methods to enhance school effectiveness. This is because the qualities of schools make a significant difference to students' progress, after taking

account of the characteristics and backgrounds of the pupils at the time of school entry.

Effectiveness has over time been defined as the ability to bring about intended results (Reeves, 2007). Specifically, school effectiveness refers to the level of goal attainment of a school. Scheerens (2013) observes that although average achievement scores in core subjects, established at the end of a fixed program are the most probable 'school effects', alternative criteria like the responsiveness of the school to the community and the satisfaction of the teachers should also be considered as school effectiveness criteria. In arguing for schools that are responsive to the community, O'keefe (2011) observes that the answer to real education and school transformation is strong, authentic community connections and actions. Research by Hirota et al (2000) also suggest that community-based collaboratives for school reform can have a policy impact on school systems and can significantly influence education policy discussions that can, in turn, contribute to more effective school reform. When community group and schools band together to support learning, young people achieve more in school, stay in school longer, and enjoy the experience more.

In order to lift up and raise schools to a place that suits all 21st century learners, help needs to come from many parts of the community. The leading roles for both community and school should be alternated according to the need and focus of the particular aspect of the transformation project. To take a truly developmental approach, proponents suggest that comprehensive, multifaceted, and integrated continuums of school-community initiatives are required. These initiatives involve much more than providing a few services, recreation, and enrichment activities at

school. A strong and seamless connection between the home, community, and school facilitates children's transitions into and throughout the school system, leading to an environment that supports student success (Jordan et al, 2000).

In regard to teacher -satisfaction as a measure of effective schools, Ololube (2006) argues that teacher job-satisfaction and motivation are very crucial to the long-term growth of any educational system around the world; and rank alongside professional knowledge and skills, educational resources and strategies as the veritable determinants of educational success and performance.While almost every teacher works in order to satisfy his or her needs in life, he or she constantly agitates for job satisfaction. Job satisfaction in this context is the ability of the teaching job to meet teachers' needs and improve their job/teaching performance. Therefore, teachers who are satisfied with their jobs usually have a high degee of professionl capabilities and feel that they could manage, organize and perform specific tasks and behavior, even in case of failure.

Schools must therefore pay more attention to improving teachers' job satisfaction in order for teaching and learning to ccur more effectively. Findings from research show that although some teachers do enjoy teaching, there also exists a high proportion of teachers who are not intrinsically satisfied with their jobs. For instance, research from Greece suggest that there were teachers of public schools who were satisfied with the job itself, whereas others were dissatisfied with teachers' pay and promotional opportunities (Amarantidou, 2010; Tsigilis et al, 2010). Other studies also indicate a negative correlation between high levels of stress in the teaching profession and teacher performance, especially with regard to emotional engagement of teachers with

their students (Chang, 2009; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Spilt et al, 2011; Veldman et al, 2013; Akomolafe, & Ogunmakin 2014)). the basic conclusion of all these studies is that teachers would positively affect classroom management and solve many challenges to school effectiveness if they were satisfied with their jobs and also retained good interpersonal relations with students, parents, their colleagues, and the school principal.

It should be noted that most research on school effectiveness attempts to deal with other causal aspects inherent in the effectiveness concept by means of scientific methods. Not only is assessment of school effects considered, but particularly the attribution of differences in school effects to malleable conditions. Usually, school effects are assessed in a comparative way, for instance, by comparing average achievement scores between schools. Scheerens (2013) emphasizes that in order to determine the net effect of malleable conditions, like the use of different teaching methods or a particular form of school management, achievement measures have to be adjusted for intake differences between schools. For this purpose , student background characteristics like socio-economic status, general scholastic aptitude or initial achievement in a subject are used as control variables. A considerable body of research evidence also shows that, although the ability and family backgrounds of students are major determinants of students' achievement levels, schools in similar social circumstances can achieve very different levels of educational progress. Such studies, conducted in a variety of different contexts, on different age groups, and in different countries, confirm the existence of both statistically and educationally significant differences in the levels of student and teacher engagement (Tschannen-Moran, 2004; Zurawski, 2004; Rice, 2003; Shannon & Bylsma, 2007).

The amount of resources a school has can also be an indicator of school effectiveness. Botha (2010) acknowledges that many public schools world wide have limited resources and this may also generally affect school effectiveness. It is exteremely difficult for any school to maximize its effectiveness and achieve all its goals when resources are scarce. Thus, in the process of pursuing multiple school goals using scarce resources, every school experiences different pressures, and therefore each school develops different priorities and criteria for its own effectiveness. However, although a school may not be able to maximize on the achievement of its goals in terms of all school effectiveness criteria at the same time, it should be able to create harmony among all the competing criteria in the long run.

Thus, assessment of school effectiveness is an ongoing inquiry process that drives improvements in schools and classrooms. According to Gross et al (2009), effective schools promote inquiry focused on student learning, achievement and well-being that informs goals and effective teaching and learning strategies. In such schools, student achievement data is collected and analyzed in order to monitor progress toward school targets and in order to determine the next steps to assure continuous improvement in students' academic performance. School effectiveness can be regarded as the extent to which improved students' academic performance is achieved. However, such a measurement of school effectiveness is compounded by the diversity of a school's goals.

An examination of the goals of a school, as might be listed in their mission statements shows that schools try to accomplish many things; and school effectiveness is therefore broader than just simple raw examination scores which are devoid of the

value addition element. For instance, schools that are effective and have the capacity to improve are led by headteachers who also make a significant and measurable contribution to the effectiveness of their staff. Further research on school effectiveness and leadership by Barnett et al (2001) identified a number of characteristics of effective and transformational leaders including good leaders being able to work alongside their colleagues, respecting teachers' autonomy, protecting school members from extraneous demands, and looking ahead to anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it doesn't surprise or disempower them.

Scheerens (2013) argues that it is common sense that an effective school is roughly the same as a good school; and on the basis of this notion, a more precise definition of school effectiveness has been developed in empirical research studies. The effectiveness of a school can be measured in terms of the average achievement of the pupils in examinations, co-curricular activities, and general behavior at the end of a period of formal schooling. School effectiveness is focusing on students' outcomes and the characteristics of school and classrooms that are associated with these outcomes; without automatically looking at the processes that are needed to bring changes (Creemers, 2000). In effective schools, student input is actively and regularly sought with regard to curriculum delivery. This means that students see themselves, their values, perspectives, culture and interests reflected in their learning environment. Other studies on school improvement have found out that effective schools are frequently self-managing and self-improving. Schmoker (2005) suggests an improving school is one that increases its effectiveness over time by increasing the value addition it generates for students. Therefore, an effective school adds extra value to its students' outcomes in comparison with other schools serving similar

intakes. By contrast, in an ineffective school students make less progress than expected.

Pashiordis (2007) observes that the expectations for more efficiency and effectiveness of school systems will continue to increase almost everywhere in the world. Sooner or later, society will expect more accountability on behalf of the education system it helps to pay for, and teachers and education system officials should understand and expect this. Indeed, this view is not far-fetched since in most developing countries, including Kenya, this is already the trend as exhibited by the results driven approach to management of education strongly advocated for by the government and other education stakeholders (GOK, 2008; Kindiki, 2004; Ngware et al, 2006).

Reynolds (2000) observes that the factors associated with school effectiveness in developing countries are not always the same as those in developed countries. For instance, in a new American Education system, an effective school should be able to meet the educational needs of the 21st century. In such schools, all students must reach high standards of academic achievement in an effective school; and be able to use technology, think critically, solve problems and learn on their own throughout their lives (Hershberg, 2004). Further, Welner (2010) observes that in the American education system, an effective school should have credentialed teachers, safe learning environments, relatively small classes, and challenging and engaging classwork that makes use of the computer and internet. The fact that these these variables are in juridicial cases on school effectiveness underlines the fact that favourable conditions for schooling are recognized as concrete levers for enhancing educational chances of all students; including disadvantaged students.

An Australian view of school effectiveness is that effective schools should successfully progress the learning and personal development of all their students (ACT, 2005). Consequently, all effective schools should demonstrate the joint presence of quality and equity. This implies demonstrating high overall levels of achievement and filling all the gaps in the distribution of achievement across major subsets of the student population. The emphasis on equity and distribution in educational opportunities points to the fact that in Australia, access to education for all students is a key indicator of school effectiveness.

Studies in school effectiveness in Malaysia emphasize on good school management, effective teaching and learning, a greater focus on improvement in academic performance, staff job satisfaction and less disciplinary problems for students (Mohan, 2004). This means that school effectiveness in Malaysia is inclusive of the government policies on education, and efforts by the school principals, staff, students and parents. The implication here is that every stakeholder has a role in ensuring school effectiveness. The school principal must be strong, purposeful and involved; the teachers must have a shared vision and cooperate to create positive learning environments; and the students ought to be self –disciplined. The parents too should be effectively involved in the teaching and learning processes of their children.

In contrast, in most developing countries, school effectiveness is mostly only viewed in terms of academic achievement and examination results. Makoelle (2014) points out that in South Africa, the concept of school effectiveness is mostly linked to learner achievement; with great emphasis on the academic results of students in secondary schools. This means that the achievement of ‘good’ examination results is

the yardstick for evaluating school effectiveness. Schools with 'poor' results are generally assumed to be less effective than schools with 'better' results. According to Townsend (2007), this notion of achievement - oriented concentarion of school effectiveness led the department of education in South Africa to initiate the School Based Accountability (SBA) measures for gauging school effectiveness. The SBA measures focus on testing; not on capacity building in individual students. The measures are consequently used to manipulate results by eliminating 'high-risk' candidates, encouraging registration at standard grades, lowering the standard of question papers and raising scores during moderation of examination results. These processes result in the perceived high pass rates; but actual poor quality of some schools that are considered more effective over others, by virtue of their examination results.

Dike (2001), while lamenting about the poor state of Nigerian Schools, appealed to the Nigerian government to still treat the need for effectiveness in the Nigerian Education sector as a "public health" issue. This is because the socio-political and economic development of a nation, whether developed or developing, is in many ways determined by the quality and levels of educational attainment of the population. This means that the essentials of an effective school emphasized in the educational systems of developed countries were still not feasible in the Nigerian system.

The Kenyan system of education has also often been blamed for failing to fulfill all the correlates of effective schools (Musungu & Nasongo, 2008). Like in other developing countries, schools have overemphasized academic achievement at the expense of the other correlates of school effectiveness. The government in particular,

and the society in general, attach a lot of importance to examinations results as a measure of school effectiveness. Thus, the implication here is that for a school to be considered effective, students' academic progress and results are measured and monitored frequently; and the results of those assessments are used to improve the individual student's performance. Summative assessment is currently based on a national examination by the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) that is expected to measure the achievement of students. It has however been reported that these public examinations do not provide a systematic and intervention system to improve learner achievements and overall school effectiveness (Oduol, 2006). It is even felt that the decline in candidates' academic performance in National Examinations is as a result of lack of monitoring of the entire learning environment for the other correlates of an effective school.

An examination of the goals of a school shows that schools try to accomplish many things; and school effectiveness is therefore broader than just simple raw examination scores which are devoid of the value addition element. Gray (2004) emphasizes that although examination results are a measure of academic learning, they do not give the whole picture with regard to the effectiveness of a school academically. Such results also give very little information about the other outcomes of the educational process. Consequently, whereas academic measures have been widely used to identify good practices in effective schools for developing countries, there is still need for the empirical exploration of other correlates or measures of school effectiveness which capture more of the school processes and measure a broad range of outcomes for both the students and the school.

An overview of school effectiveness studies in developed countries provided by Scheerens (2013) clearly summarizes some of the central factors that should characterize effective schools include instructional leadership, cooperation, frequent monitoring, high level of involvement, and a safe, stimulating, positive classroom climate, especially with respect to classroom discipline. The research literature indicates that these factors are supported both at the elementary school level, as at lower secondary (high school) level. The studies further indicate that in many of the developed countries, there is increased attention for boosting educational achievement by means of special policy programs that address monitoring and assessment, stakeholder involvement and discipline. Moreover, the reviews, and most original studies, include no discussion of how schools might be altered to become more effective. Yu (2007) attests that it is generally recognized that ineffective schools are not merely mirror images of those that are more effective. Rather than simply lacking the key features of effective schools, ineffective schools are likely to share specific features and problems that have a particular link with culture and staffing.

A negative culture is often found to contribute to the poor performance of less successful schools. As pointed out by Reynolds (2000), the school culture that teachers and principals operate in can sometimes frustrate their best intentions to use effective practices for achieving school effectiveness. The ineffective school may also have inside itself multiple school cultures formed around cliques and friendship groups, thus, there will be none of the organization, social, cultural and symbolic tightness of the effective school. Building on this, it has been observed that such ‘tightness’ appears to be a particular requirement for academic effectiveness in the context of effective schools (George et al 2000). It is therefore important for

successful educational leaders to resist these and other organizational pitfalls. Instead, they should be purposeful about turning their schools into effective organizations. The educational leaders do this by developing and counting on contributions from many others in their organizations to strengthen the school's culture, modify organizational structures and build collaborative processes.

The implication of such collaborative processed is that plans to enhance school effectiveness can be a means of setting direction for the school. It is difficult for schools to make progress in any aspect without something to focus their attention on. As a result, effective school principals understand direction setting and know that an investment of time is required to develop a shared understanding of what the school should look like and what needs to be done to get there. The principals know that teachers and other staff included in identifying goals are much more likely to be motivated to achieve those goals. This view is reinforced by Candelarie (2003) who observes that teachers who are asked to engage in open and honest communication with the principal, to contribute their suggestions, and to voice their concerns are much more likely to follow the direction set by their leader.

Arguably, school effectiveness is not a unitary concept; rather it is complex, multi-dimensional, and not reducible to single or simple measures. Drawing together the several features of effective schools, a common core of features emerges, indicating overall characteristics of effective schools. Four of these features will be investigated in this study. These are: School leadership, academic achievement, student discipline and communication.

## 2.2 The Concept of School Leadership

School leadership has been the focus of intense scrutiny in recent years as researchers try to define not only the qualities of effective leadership but the impact of leadership on the operation and effectiveness of schools, and even on student achievement. Hence, school systems and individual schools are experimenting with new approaches to leadership that seek to run schools in ways that are right for the 21st century. The concept of Leadership in itself is a multifaceted construct involving a range of interrelated interpersonal and cognitive skills. Hay and Dempster (2008) argue that leadership is both an outcome of, and an action on behaviour, but the major influence on leadership is from personal experiences and self-evaluations; both of which are used by individuals to achieve new levels of personal leadership.

Leadership not only helps to organize a group, but it allows those in a group to look up to someone who is committed to their interests and passions. Thus, effective leadership means more than simply knowing what to do; it is also knowing when, how, and why to do it. Effective leaders understand how to balance pushing for change while at the same time, protecting aspects of culture, values, and norms worth preserving (Billet & Qian, 2008). Effective leaders know which policies, practices, resources, and incentives to align and how to align them with the priorities of the institution. Such leaders know how to gauge the magnitude of the change they are calling for and how to tailor their leadership strategies to fit that change. Gronn (2003) adds that effective leaders understand and value the people in the institution. They know when, how, and why to create learning environments that support people, connect them with one another, and provide the knowledge, skills, and resources that people need to succeed in the institution. This combination of knowledge and skills is

the essence of balanced leadership. Effective leaders are also those who work collaboratively to ensure that change occurs, and have been described as being focused on collective action, shared power, and having a passionate commitment to social justice.

Posner (2004) further observes that leadership can be learned, and even experienced leaders can continue to learn new concepts. Thus, while simply demonstrating leadership initiative certainly does not guarantee that someone will become an effective leader, it is a necessary condition to be able to practice one's leadership skills and to ultimately grow in leadership effectiveness (DeRue &Wellman, 2009. However, as Bolman and Deal (2002) contend, just as leaders can have a positive impact on achievement, they also can have a marginal, or worse, a negative impact on the achievement of both individual and organizational goals in the institution. When leaders concentrate on the wrong institutional practices, or miscalculate the magnitude or order of the change they are attempting to implement, they can negatively impact on the achievement of the organization.

School improvement literature has put a great emphasis on the role of leaders and has gone as far as to conclude that effective school leaders are key to large-scale, sustainable education reforms. Leithwood et al (2006) assert that leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school and to a positive school climate. Leadership effects are usually largest where and when they are needed most. Without a powerful leader, troubled schools, especially those that experience constant incidences of student indiscipline, conflict and violence, are unlikely to be turned around. Additionally,

though many other factors may contribute to such a school's turnaround, the school's leadership is the catalyst and key to such turn a around. Mulford (2003) also points out that school leaders can be a major influence on school-level internal factors of performance as well as help shield the school against the excesses of the mounting and sometimes contradictory external pressures. Thus, a skilled and well-supported leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way members carry out their activities.

The most influential educational leaders remain the school principal or headteacher, and their leadership is inextricably linked to student performance. Literature on educational leadership infers some broad goals for school principals. In schools, principals have the goal to create and sustain schools that can compete with other schools, empower others to make significant decisions, provide instructional guidance ad develop and implement strategic and school improvement plans (Cohen, 2014). Some of the demands placed on the school leaders involve assuming accountability for the achievement of all students and promoting student success and life-long learning in partnership with staff, parents and the community.

The school principal also aligns and monitor programs, structures, processes, resources and staff to support student achievement; to manage and direct the human, material, capital and technological resources for efficient and effective school climates; to initiate and facilitate change; and to operate successfully in a dynamic environment that is characterized by increasing complexity (Dempster, 2002; Draper & McMichael, 2003). As further emphasized by Jackson (2008) effective principals understand what good teaching is and they recognize it as a critical factor in

successful instructional programming. Findings of Marzano et al (2005) further reinforce the belief that effective principals are knowledgeable about the current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices, and are involved in the design and implementation of the instructional programs in their schools. Such school principals believe that it is critical to be up-to-date on the best practices in instruction and assessment and to seek out opportunities to learn more about good teaching, so as to effectively serve as instructional leaders for their schools.

Not only do effective principals understand what good teaching is, they also recognize that their primary goal is to improve the effectiveness of their teachers by sharing this understanding (Whitaker, 2003; Hallinger, 2003). Thus, school leaders enhance the processes of teaching and learning implicitly and directly through their influential impact on staff motivat ion, dedication, and working conditions. As further reinforced by Marzano et al (2005), there is the belief that effective principals, as instructional leaders, are knowledgeable about the current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices; and are also involved in the design and implementation of the instructional program. To support this argument, a study carried out in Kenya by Musungu and Nasongo (2008) on the instructional leadership roles of secondary school headteachers revealed that headteachers, as school leaders, supervised teachers' work by inspecting records such as schemes of work, lesson books, records of work covered, class attendance records, and clock in/clock out books. ion, dedication, and working conditions through various interactions and communications.

Effective school leadership also helps foster the kind of school climate in which learning flourishes, rather than directly inspiring students to achieve. A collective

leadership efficacy is the important intervening variable between teachers' work and student outcomes. School leaders' positive perceptions of teachers' work directly promote participation in school, academic self-concept and engagement with school. Leithwood et al (2006) argue that three sets of practices make up the basic core of successful school leadership. These practices are setting direction, developing people and redesigning the organization. However, rarely are these practices sufficient for leaders aiming to significantly improve student learning in their schools; though again without these practices not much would happen. Leaders who set a clear sense of direction have the greatest impact on the success of the organization. If these leaders help to develop among their members a shared understanding of the organization and its goals and activities, this understanding becomes the basis for a sense of purpose or vision. Having such goals helps people make sense of their work and enables them to find a sense of identity for themselves within their organizational context.

The literature on school leadership shows that not only are school leaders important, but also they are generally seen to be taking on more and more roles. Leithwood et al's (2006) review of the empirical literature on effective leadership in accountable school contexts raises the concern that school leaders are not only being pulled in many different directions simultaneously but that they are being asked to do too much. Several contexts, issues and pressures also result not only in additional but also in competing and often inconsistent demands on school leaders. The demands for schools to update their content, to become learning organisations and to deliver measurable outcomes creates intense and potentially conflicting pressures and dilemmas for principals. These tensions and dilemmas focus upon their roles not only

in maintaining and consolidating what they have already achieved, but also in managing the challenges associated with moving their individual schools forward.

Copland (2001) emphasizes that these challenges create unintended dark consequences that fuel the current problems of quality in the principalship and lead to a largely unattainable ideal of the 'super' principal who can handle all the challenges in the school alone. Thus, in addition to instructional leadership, a school leader's emotional intelligence is also critical in developing the other members. Emotional intelligence refers to the principal's ability and willingness to be tuned in to the other members as people, and acknowledge their significancein easing the leadership pressures and challenges of the principalship. Research evidence suggests that emotional intelligence displayed by the leader increases the member's enthusiasm and optimism, reduces frustration, transmits a sense of mission and indirectly increases the performance of the institution (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002).

Riley and Louis (2000) point out that emotional intelligence in school leadership can be achieved through school leadership that is more than role-based, that is leadership as an organic activity involving the formation of a network of value-driven relationships. Integral to the success of such dispersed leadership are both pupil and teacher voice. Therefore, innovative initiatives in school leadership should emphasize changes based on such value-driven relationships since in a school, changes designed with little involvement of those destined to use them are rarely effective. This means that, in learning institutions, individuals and teams become reflective practitioners and are able to review their own situations and deal with problems or challenges as they arise.

Consequently, effective school leaders who possess the requisite leadership skills increase the likelihood that improvement in school effectiveness will occur. This is because a successful school leader negotiates a way to lead that meets the needs of all members of the school community. Singh and Manser (2008) argue that the school leader needs to establish an interconnectedness that encourages members of the school community to work collaboratively in a climate of commitment, trust and understanding, so as to achieve school effectiveness. Such leaders are regarded as being transformational and are enthusiastic, optimistic, self – confident, trustworthy and inspirational; and they motivate others to strive for higher aspirations. It is such social integration that enables the school leaders to achieve the affirmation of the other members of the school community on the leaders' right to act on behalf of the school.

The transformational school principal has further been described as one who focuses on individual support by providing moral support, showing appreciation for the work of individuals and taking account of their opinions. The principals also focus in creating a positive school culture by promoting an atmosphere of caring and trust among school members, setting the tone for respectful interaction with students, and demonstrating a willingness to change practices in the light of new understandings. Further, the principal focuses on establishing a school structure that promotes participative decision making, supports delegation and distributive leadership, and encourages decision making autonomy. Consequently, all school members worked towards consensus on school priorities; which are effectively communicated to both students and staff so as to establish a strong sense of overall purpose. (Mulford, 2003).

It would seem that most schools lack such transformational leadership that aims at consensus and participation. As Harris and Muijs (2002) state, one of the main barriers to effective school leadership is the 'top-down' leadership model that still dominates in many schools. This implies that the possibility of effective leadership in any school will be dependent upon whether the head and the senior management team within the school relinquishes power to teachers and other players. School heads will therefore need to become 'leaders of leaders' striving to develop a relationship of trust with staff and students, and encouraging leadership and autonomy throughout the school. To generate and sustain collaborative leadership requires not only empowerment but also time and opportunities for continuous leadership development. This is because where decision making is perceived in schools as consultative and providing adequate opportunities for participation, it will be more likely to lead to enhanced school effectiveness (Kyungu, 2009; Mugali, 2011; UNICEF, 2011; Ghanem, 2012; Anderson and Lu, 2016 ). This argument supports the findings by Elmore (2000) that leadership cannot reside only in designated leaders, and most of the improvement in a school must come from the people who are directly affected by the leadership actions.

Hargreaves & Fink (2006) further reinforce this argument by observing that there should be focus on school leadership that is more than role-based; that is, leadership as an organic activity involving the formation of a network of value-driven relationships. Integral to the success of such dispersed leadership are both students and teachers voice. The school principal should thus focus on establishing a school structure and culture that promotes participative decision making, supports delegation, and encourages the participation and involvement of all members of the school

community in efforts of enhancing school effectiveness (Mulford, 2003). Thus, the real challenge currently facing most schools in developed countries is no longer how to improve principals' leadership but, more importantly, how to maintain and support the leadership capability of the many other stakeholders in the school.

Fletcher (2009) argues that sustainability of improved school leadership will depend upon the school's internal capacity to maintain and support the leadership capability of the many, rather than the few, other stakeholders in the school. One of the most congruent findings from studies of effective leadership in schools is that for sustainable improved school leadership, authority to lead need not be located in the person of the leader, but can be dispersed within the school in between and among people. Therefore, although school leadership has been typically reserved for school administrators, leadership roles can be engaged by anyone within the school system, including students.

### 2.3 Student Leadership in Schools

From the literature on school leadership, there is a growing understanding that leadership in school should be embedded in various organisational contexts within school communities, and in various stakeholders within the school community; but not centrally vested in one person or an office. Thus, decentralisation of school leadership responsibilities increases the pressure for new forms of governance and partnership including shared decision-making with teachers, parents and other stakeholders. One of the most consistent findings from studies of effective school leadership is that authority to lead need not be located in the person of the school

principal; but can be dispersed within the school between and among other school members (Day et al, 2000).

To illustrate this argument, a study in the USA by McLaughlin and Talbert (2006) that examined principals' effects on teachers' community, instructional practices, and careers found no instances of individual school leaders who created extraordinary contexts for teaching by virtue of their own unique visions; nor did the study reveal any common patterns of strong principals' characteristics. The study concluded that successful principals were men and women with varied professional backgrounds who worked in collaboration with teacher leaders and other stakeholders and other stakeholders in the school. The study argued that the leadership of these principals was not superhuman; rather, it grew from a strong and simple commitment to make schools work for their students and to build teachers' determination and capacity to pursue this collective goal through collaboration.

This argument is further enhanced by (Copland, 2001) who argues that school principals need to become coalition builders as much as managers of the internal running of schools. Where decision making is perceived in schools as collegial, cooperative, consultative and providing adequate opportunities for participation, it will be more likely to lead to positive student perceptions about their school and teachers as well as perceptions about relationships and their own performance than where decision making is more top-down, executive, or does not foster widespread involvement. However, while decentralisation may occur from the system to school level it had not necessarily occurred within schools and where it had it tended to be about administrative rather than education matters.

Hay and Dempster (2004) also argue that leadership roles can be enacted by all stakeholders within the school community, including providing opportunities for student leadership enhancement. Student leadership enhancement involves giving students opportunities to practice a range of leadership skills in a supportive, learning and social environment. Positive student leadership opportunities and experiences at school facilitate young adults' transition into the community and into the world of work and adult responsibility. This is because leadership is considered to be a part of life- long learning and a multidimensional construct involving skills, attitudes, knowledge, experiences, and processes.

Thus in a school system, leadership can be systematically developed so that students are more proficient in problem solving, team building, decision making, goal setting, effective communication, conflict resolution, diversity awareness and self – confidence (Begley and Johnason, 2003; Drago-Severson, 2004; Irvin and White, 2004). For these researchers, problem solving is defined as a process involving problem identification, data collection, strategy selection, strategy implementation and review; whereas team building is viewed as a process involving goal setting, skilling of members, and communication. On the other hand, decision making entails resolving on one plan of action by identifying the pros and cons of making a choice, evaluating the evidence, getting closure and selecting one option; while goal setting involves selecting measurable, defined and observable short term and long term goals and objectives. Effective communication entails networking, using writing and speaking skills to keep people informed, listening to people and valuing what they say; while conflict resolution is having a process to deal with different opinions, clarifying the issue, seeing the other person's perspective, identifying common

ground, identifying what can be changed and what cannot, and being rational. Diversity awareness means respecting different points of views and tolerating differences associated with gender, age, cultural, social economic background, ethnic, race, and sexual orientation. Finally, self-confidence, is defined as a belief in one's ability, accepting challenges, being aware of one's limitations but not letting this limit choice and behaviour.

Student leadership development is an important concept with potential for positive impact in enhancing the effectiveness of schools and the overall development of the school child. Thus, discussion about how to involve the students in the decision making process, policies and structures of the school is critical to facilitate wider student participation for a more cohesive school community and a more conducive learning environment. To this end, the development of students as leaders remains a goal for most educational institutions. This is evidence in school mission statements and the increased presence of student leadership development programs in schools. Research indicates that sudents can, and do, increase their leadership skills during their school years so as to become effective leaders even beyond the school. (Ardent and Gregoire, 2006; Dempster and Lizzio, 2007). A skilled and well-supported student leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way that the entire school operates.

Student leadership refers to the work of student representative bodies, through which the school has the perceived role of instilling leadership knowledge and practices in students (Huddleston, 2007). Therefore, student leaders are students who occupy positions of responsibility in coordinating the activities of the other students in the

school. Hay and Dempster (2004) argue that having quality leadership experiences during their school years allows students to transition into the community and into the world of work and adult responsibility. This is because leadership is a multi – dimensional, ongoing skill and process of development that must be taught and practiced, and a school setting is the most appropriate place for this learning.

The concept of student leadership is based on distributive leadership. Distributive leadership moves beyond identifying leadership solely in the traditional leader (the Principal), to recognizing the leadership functions that may be assumed or assigned to other leaders within the school, including student leaders. Spillane (2006) argues that distributive leadership recognizes individuals in formal and informal positions to take responsibility for leadership activities by a network of interactions. Thus, distributive leadership is characterized by a form of collective leadership in which all members of the school community work for the achievement of school goals. While high school administrators and educators may have diverse viewpoints of the nature, purpose, place and structure of student leadership in schools, the bottom line is that effective school principals should learn to use student leadership as a vehicle to share and implement their vision and expectations for their schools. in which all members of the school community work for the achievement of school goals.

According to Rodgers (2003) this is a departure from twentieth century industrial understanding of leadership, which primarily focused on an individual as the leader, thus promoting command and control models, power and authority; and strong managerial influences. In this type of leadership significant emphasis was placed on determining task versus interpersonal orientations. The emerging post – industrial

paradigm of leadership sharply contrasts with its industrial counterpart and is grounded in human relations and characterized by shared goals (Allen and Cherry, 2000). This post –industrial perspective is transformative, value –centered, non – coercive and collaborative. This argument is supported by Elmore (2000) who points out that leadership cannot reside only in designated leaders, and most of the improvement in a school must come from the people who are directly affected by the leadership actions. Thus, although school leadership has been typically reserved for school administrators, leadership roles can be engaged by anyone within the school system, including students. In this regard, leadership is viewed as a process rather than as a position and explicitly promotes the values of equity, fairness, self - knowledge, collaboration, and service.

A study by Fletcher (2009) showed that students' involvement in school management was very effective, where students participated in virtually every decision in the school management such as self-evaluation, purposeful students' council, and students' representation on the local school board. The students were viewed to play very crucial roles in the success of the achievement of the goals of the learning institutions. The students, through their leadership, were involved in the management process and making of decisions in the school as the students are largely the recipients of the final decisions; hence decisions will affect them in latent and manifest ways.

The Australian Council for Educational Research's longitudinal surveys of Australian youth by Fullarton (2002) also stresses the important of student engagement with school. The surveys found that a high engagement at the school level even moderates the negative effects of students' socio economic status (SES). The surveys conclude

that it does matter which school a student attends; but provision for, and encouraging students to participate in a broad range of school activities leads to a student's closer connectedness to the school community as well as having a effects on the academic performance of the students. Hallinger & Heck (2010) also found that not only was higher SES directly related to greater student improvement and larger schools produced smaller student gains, but also that schools where the head teacher's leadership was rated as more supportive and directed towards instructional excellence and improvement of the school climate was seen in positive terms produced greater-than-expected improvements in student learning over time.

There are different types of student leadership in schools. One type of student leadership that exists in secondary schools is the prefect system. 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 misbehavior to teachers, ensuring order in the classes and dormitories and organizing the cleanliness of the school. In some schools, prefects are also used to give out punishment 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). 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. Mugali (2011) argues that if the prefects are appointed by the school administration, they will naturally look to the school Principal as their source of immediate authority. Oyaro (2005) adds that students see prefects as part of the autocratic system that suppresses them and as such they despise and loathe them. This attitude has prevailed because of the way the prefects are chosen; the special privileges given to prefects but denied

other students like eating and sleeping in privileged situations or rooms, being served meals first and therefore getting the best; power to discipline, scare and report other students and in some cases, having more powers than the teachers.

Some schools have adopted an alternative type of student leadership; that of Students Parliaments or the Students Leaders Councils (SLC). Sacerdot (2003) defines the SLC as a group of students in a school, elected by other students as an attempt at giving students more ownership of the programs they carry out in their school. The SLC usually meets 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 then present these views to the school administration. Under the students leaders council system, the students elect their leaders and in some cases the elected leaders are confirmed by the teachers; unlike the prefect system where the students' leaders are chosen by the school management.

The election process for the SLC is very important. Councils which are mainly elected by students but have some teacher input into the election of council leaders seem to be the most effective, as the council members are sanctioned by both students and staff. This is contrary to the prefects appointed by the school management. There is more commitment from council members if the election process is seen to be fair and involves nominees demonstrating their interest in the council. Through the SLC, students are fully involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that their schools operate on (UNICEF, 2009; UNICEF, 2011). For Dowling (2003), the SLC is a representative structure for students only, through which they become

involved in the affairs of the school, working with school management, staff and parents for the benefit of the school and its students.

Arthur et al (2008), emphasize that SLCs are an essential feature of a school that promotes active student leadership and democracy. This is because 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. SLCs also resonate with Fulmer's (2006) assertion that schools should be more flexible in adapting appropriate leadership styles with the creation of collaborative working environments with higher levels of commitment, motivation and ownership from all members of the school community. Therefore, student councils not only addresses the immediate needs of the students, but they also help participating students to offer solutions for long lingering problems of administration and student conflict.

Students' participation in school management through SLCs in Australia was used in Melbourne High School; which was the first school to establish a Student Representative Council (SRP) where students had some of their own elected leaders to represent them in the Board of Managers of the school. The school has a compulsory policy on students' participation in the school management activities. Lansdown (2003) explains that the involvement of students as participants in this school led to greater enjoyment, efficiency and more effectiveness, whether in relation to projects that focused on issues of specific concern to the students or within processes of development in the wider community. The ethos of the SRP encouraged

investment of effort into academic, sporting, musical, leadership, and personal pursuits.

In Brazil, students' participation in school management has been used in most of the Public Basic Education Schools. Here they have been creating school councils that include parents and students who have been assisting in decision making in the school. The system allows students' participation in management and policy making particularly in secondary schools, which is also referred to as *Gremio Estudantil*. This is very similar to the student council in schools in the United Kingdom, where the students have student leaders in the school council who are regularly consulted before the school administration makes major decisions concerning the school. The *Gremio Estudantil* is the main pathways to students' voice within the school and in the school administration (Ghanem, 2012).

In most Chinese schools, student leadership positions carry considerable prestige, and some parents lobby to have their children selected for these student leadership positions. The results of a survey by Anderson and Lu (2016) showed that over 60% of students expressed interest in holding a class leadership position in their schools. However, less than 15% of the students can actually hold such a position in any given year. Although class leaders are elected democratically by all students or rotate among all students in some schools, teachers typically appoint class leaders in majority of the schools; and there are no explicit rules for selection. Teachers usually have three goals when selecting class leaders, that is, to fulfill the responsibilities of the positions, to provide role models for other students, and to reward good students with leadership positions. Thus the teachers choose students with a combination of

both leadership abilities and academic performance. During the school semester, as more information becomes available, teachers may adjust the leadership appointments. For example, teachers may strip a student's leadership title if the student violates school rules by fighting with others or if they see a class leader is not performing his responsibilities. Teachers may also reappoint class leaders if a leader does very poorly in the midterm exam or if a non-leader does exceptionally well in the examinations.

The student leadership situation in china reflects the findings of an earlier study carried out by Harris (2004) on distributed leadership in the school; where the conclusion was that in most cases where students are included in the school's governance, the power they possess is merely advisory and represents tokenism rather than meaningful participation. Students are thus included in school governance as a mere formality. The study also acknowledged that although there is a law that requires schools to have student councils, many schools have not embraced the idea. The study therefore concluded that education is something done for the students rather than with them in a co-operative partnership.

Sayeed (2002) also carried out a study in rural secondary schools in South Africa on the Role of Student Leadership in School Governance. The study reported that some educators love to have student leaders involved in school governance, while others feel that too much student involvement in school governance violates their sense of professionalism. Therefore, some educators are resistant to collaborate with student leaders because they have become accustomed to functioning without student leaders being central to their work and they feel they have enough strain without the

additional pressures of entering into partnership with students. The study further found out that it is difficult to dispute the benefits that student leadership can have for students' school experience, yet student leaders and educators often hold one another at arm's length, unsure of the role that each should play. According to the study, there is a lot of suspicion between student leaders and the school management in South Africa. This suspicion often leads to many schools not being ready to establish student leadership forums. However the study did endeavor to find out how student involvement in leadership affects school effectiveness.

A study by Ryan and Rottman (2009) on Participation of Students in Democratic Governance found out that some school principals maintain that the levels of student involvement in the schools' governance should be limited, prescribed and exercised in an organized manner at the discretion of the school administration. The participants of this study were school head teachers and regional education officers who reported that in certain aspects of school management, student involvement is undesirable. Some of the aspects that the principals thought should not be discussed in the presence of student leaders were those that touch on the discipline of fellow students and staff members.

In Kenya, the Ministry of Education in conjunction with the United Nations Children Education Fund (UNICEF) rolled out the student leadership programme in secondary schools in 2009, through the formation of the Kenya Secondary Schools Student Council (KSSSC) (Kaluoch 2010). The KSSC is comprised of Kenyan students from both public and private schools who meet yearly to discuss ways of enhancing student leadership in schools; with the aim of increasing and protecting the traditions of democratic and effective leadership in schools (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 leadership (UNICEF, 2009).

The first ever national secondary school student conference, bringing together representatives from across the country's secondary schools was held in April 2009 at Bomas of Kenya in Nairobi. The resolution of the conference was the adoption and full implementation of Student Councils in all secondary schools in Kenya. To boost this initiative, the secondary schools head teachers association in conjunction with the United Nations Children Educational Fund and the Ministry of Education rolled out the Student Leadership Programme in the same year. The conference was held following unprecedented student unrest which exploded into visible disturbances in over 300 secondary schools in the second term of 2008. The consequences of this unrest included loss of life, destruction of property worth billions of shillings, disruption of school curriculum, tension amongst students and anxiety and panic amongst teachers, school managers and other education stakeholders. The conference, therefore, wanted to find out the causes of unrest from the perspective of the students, and subsequently put generate data for use in realizing the most suitable secondary school environment to attain the vision of quality education with the possibility of including the students through their councils in decision - making (KSSSC, 2009).

A report by UNICEF (2011) shows that a reasonable proportion of schools have heeded the call from the secondary head teachers association for schools to adopt the student council system of leadership, a shift that may be attributed to the sensitisation works held for school heads on student participation in school governance. The report revealed that establishment of elected student councils had moved from 11 per cent in

2008 to 34 per cent in 2011. At the same time, elected but vetted councils had increased from 39 per cent in 2008 to 43 per cent in 2011. The report further notes that students in schools with prefect system said they wanted involvement of students in selection of their leaders and capacity building of teachers and students on student leadership. The students also want sensitisation of student leaders on good relations with fellow students and teachers and a change from prefect system to student council. On the other hand, students in schools with student councils suggested adoption of the councils with close supervision, a student-centered leadership, a leadership that is accountable and involvement of student leaders in maintaining school policies. The report was generated from a survey of a total of 669 secondary schools categorised under: public or private, boys or girls, mixed, day or boarding and mixed day and boarding schools. The data collection was implemented through a self-administered questionnaire that targeted head teachers and deputy head teachers.

Kyungu (2009) emphasizes that, for a student leader to be exemplary in his execution of his mandate and to be accepted by the student body, he needs to undergo training, should be guided by rules and procedures of work, and there should be clear enumerated responsibilities. The school management and administration should develop a Student Leaders Training Manual that covers all areas of interest dealing with student leadership. This training provides SLCs with knowledge; skills and resources that they need to become active and engaged leaders in their schools and communities. To a great extent, the effectiveness of a student council is dependent on whether or not leadership training is provided for the newly elected student leaders.

**2.4 Student Leadership and its Relationship to Acquisition of Leadership Skills**

Leadership is a relational, transformative and change directed phenomenon that is targeted towards social responsibility and change for the common good. Dugan (2006) observes that this transformation can be achieved in student leaders through the development of core skills targeted at enhancing student leaders' self awareness and ability to work with others. To achieve this, the spelling out of values and core beliefs is important in any school. Such values are the school's 'cultural glue', without which individual empowerment and diversity would not be possible.

There are several traits that are seen as important to being able to lead effectively, and it is very true that there are students who are "natural" leaders, or those who possess those traits naturally, as part of their personality. However this is not true for most students. Therefore, it is often necessary for the school's leadership processes to actively work at preparing new student leaders for the tasks involved in student leadership. In support of this observation, Hay and Dempster (2004) observe that student leadership can give students the chance to practice a range of skills in a supportive, learning and social environment. According to Posner (2004), further studies have also linked leadership programs with a variety of specific developmental outcomes including civic responsibility, multicultural awareness, skill development, and personal and societal awareness.

Students involved in leadership activities have higher levels of educational attainment and increase in personal values and skills than do students who do not participate in leadership. As Anderson and Lu (2016) point out, employers and colleges place a high premium on individuals with student leadership service, but little is known about

what types of leadership skills, if any, student leadership service creates. However, individuals with leadership or managerial experience in diverse fields such as business, politics, and education, are observably different from other individuals who lack such experiences. These differences may arise because either because leadership service generates human capital or because these individuals are selected for their pre-existing skills.

Further research by Kuhn and Weinberger (2005) documents a high return to high school leadership service in the USA. Individuals with high school leadership service earn from 4 to 33 percent more than individuals without high school leadership service. This return is comparable to the return on an additional 0.5 to 4 years of education. However, the researchers attest to the fact that it is difficult to distinguish whether firms pay more for individuals with leadership service because the service itself is valuable or whether they pay more because the service signals that the worker has special skills that existed prior to the leadership service. Nevertheless, there is suggestive evidence that leadership service may have a causal effect; students attending schools with more leadership opportunities earn more than those attending schools with fewer leadership opportunities.

Arthur et al (2008) argue that with training in, and exposure to, the appropriateness of different leadership skills and requirements, student leaders expand their knowledge and become more effective in participating in school leadership.This assertion is strongly supported by research, such as that of Darin (2008), Shertzer et al (2005), Jones (2003), Riojas and Flores (2007), Walker et al (2007) and Achinstein (2006). For instance, drawing on the perspectives of stakeholders closely associated with

diverse types of successful student leadership programs, Darin (2008) conducted a study whose purpose was to identify the attributes of student leadership programs that contribute significantly to student leadership development. The findings of this study revealed three clusters of attributes of high-quality student leadership programs. These were: engaging in building and sustaining a learning community; student-centered experiential learning experiences; and research-grounded continuous program development.

On the other hand, Shertzer et al (2005) identify key skills, traits and characteristics of effective leaders that can be adopted for student leadership. One of these key characteristics is self-confidence. Self –confidence in a leader means the leader is self-assured, without being overbearing. A self – confident leader also instills confidence in team members since the leader's self-confidence can help others feel more certain that they too can overcome hurdles or achieve set goals. Another key characteristic of an effective leader is fairness. To remain fair, a leader should keep an open mind and always listen to others. Open communication and consideration of all ideas fosters a creative and collaborative environment. This idea of fairness in a leader is supported by Sankar (2003) who points out that consistency in how one treats others is an important way to build and maintain trust. If someone breaks a rule, for example, they should receive the same consequence that anyone else would get for breaking the same rule. Thus, a leader should not play favorites with their closer friends, and they should not let their personal feelings toward someone they don't like get in the way of working with them. Being fair and able to work with anyone also prepares student leaders for a work environment, where people don't usually get to choose their co-workers.

Another valuable trait in the leadership of any institution is a passion, and enthusiasm for the group. Leaders should be chosen who have a passion for the actions of the institution, not just for the pleasure of being a leader. It is only when the leaders are passionate about the goals of the institution that the other members will be able to share that enthusiasm. No matter how passionate the other members are, without a leadership team that is outwardly excited and encouraging, that passion cannot come through. The enthusiasm of the other members will thrive from inspiration by the leader. Thus without enthusiasm and genuine passion a school has little chance at effectiveness (Mulford, 2003). Effective leaders must also have an optimistic attitude. If people see the person who is in charge very excited about the school and its activities, then they will naturally be drawn to making the school effective; even when the school is struggling or enduring a hardship. If the leaders have a pessimistic attitude, then it will influence the attitudes of their members negatively. Having an optimistic attitude shows the members that their leader believes in the school's success and its members' success.

To be effective in leadership, one must also possess a fair amount of knowledge concerning the norms, rules, rituals and values of the school. Jones (2003) emphasizes this by pointing out that this knowledge is crucial as it lies at the heart of uniting the diverse groups of people in the school and enhancing multi – cultural appreciation. This is especially important in education since schools are mosaics that reflect a wide diversity of the country's population. In a supportive learning environment, which constitutes an effective school, students are valued and honored**;** their heritage and background are viewed as assets, not deficiencies. 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 that embodies multicultural appreciation.

Boykin et al (2005) define multicultural appreciation as someone's interest in participating in, contributing to, and influencing a multicultural environment. This includes showing openness, tolerance, and interest in a diversity of individuals in one's environment. For individuals to learn to appreciate other cultures, it requires some interaction with others from different cultural backgrounds. Egan and Bendick (2008) further observe that when individuals are confronted with cultural differences, they tend to view and treat people from other cultures as strangers, that is, unknown people who are members of different groups. Since most individuals have a limited amount of experience interacting with people from other cultural groups, this is likely to increase uncertainty regarding what to say in order to make a positive impression. Some individuals may experience anxiety when communicating in these types of situations and this could cause them to avoid interacting with those from different cultural groups. This is so because whenever two people come together and interact for the first time they have a very limited amount of information about each other. Therefore, in order to develop a friendship in this situation, this uncertainty can be reduced by feedback that the individuals receive from each other via communication.

Riojas and Flores (2007) further underscore the importance of students in the school being made to live through a shared body of common values that is unique to their school. It is therefore important for student leaders to be open-minded and flexible. The leader should be willing to listen to the group when deciding if a certain rule or

policy needs to be changed. Accommodating differences of opinions from others leads to better decisions and action by the leader. This quality goes back to being a good listener. An effective student leader sometimes needs to step back and just listen – to the complaints or the satisfactions of the other students. Just by listening, one can learn a lot that can be brought up at future decision-making meetings.

Student leadership in any school should also seek to enhance the ability of the student leaders to recognize and interpret moral facts, as this ability is a necessary condition for moral judgment and action (Walker et al 2007). The values encompassed under moral judgement and action include values such as honesty, fairness, respect, responsibility, caring, flexibility, self-regulation, and high tolerance for ambiguity. Christians (2004) argues that when students are made aware of such values, they can gain understanding of responsible leadership and learn practices that can result in positive leadership to both the school and society. Sankar (2003) and Rintoul (2010) further contend that the moral judgement 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 judgement and leadership. This means that in a school where moral judgement exists, the leaders, including student leaders, are able to guide other members of the school community on the acceptable moral fiber through deliberate role modeling.

Student leaders should inspire and mentor other students in the school by promoting school values and respecting school rules and procedures**.** A good student leader is one who knows the rules and who understands different positions of authority. Though a student leader may not always agree with their teachers and school

authority at all times, they should always maintain a respectful, pleasant attitude toward them. This is because respect for authority prepares one for becoming an adult and entering the work and social world. Showing respect also shows others that one is a mature and confident leader. When employed effectively, mentorship can also help students develop the kinds of relationships that are critical for genuine leadership that moves people into collective action. When peers mentor one another, they develop respect for each other's' judgment (Dugan, 2006).To further inspire others, a leader must stay authentic**.** Leaders who are authentic are trusted because they stay true to the values they believe in and are unwavering, especially when faced with the challenges of popular opinion. Thus, student leaders should ensure that the ideals that them elected or appointed remain consistent throughout.

It is also vital for student leaders to develop political skills, since as Achinstein (2006) stipulates, schools operate under edgy political environments. Consequently, educational leaders find themselves in a continually controversial arena and struggle to look for ways of balancing, directing and controlling school politics. As Lindell and Whitney (2002) also point out, most student leaders would be unprepared for school leadership and the conflicts they will most definitely experience with their colleagues and school policies. The students must therefore be trained to acquire the necessary skills needed to balance, direct and control so as to be effective in school leadership responsibilities. To be able to direct and control others, a student leader must have power and use that power wisely. Power is the ability to act, and the capacity to translate intention into reality and sustain it. Dugan (2006) points out that one way to have power is by feeling a strong sense of self-efficacy, that is, a strong belief that one can accomplish one's goals. The other way is to have relational power,

that is, the ability to achieve one's goals through others. Thus, a successful student leader knows when to take the reins, and also when and how to allocate responsibility to those around them and be willing to go above and beyond to get it done.

One of the strongest agents of value - influence for student leaders in schools is the mentor. According to Ackermann et al (2002), mentors not only typically clarify the student leaders' responsibilities, concerns and perceptions, but they also protect the leaders from mistakes that may taint their leadership experiences and values. Cohen and Tichy (2002) postulate that mentors provide three sets of experiences or support for the student leader: technical, cultural and psycho social. The technical is instrumental and involves acquiring and appropriately using the knowledge and skills of the leadership role. Cultural or moral learning includes the sentiments, beliefs, standards of practice, and value orientation of the leadership role. The leaders learn the norms and values of the leadership role by observing and interacting with the mentor about what is acceptable, important, and problematic. The psychosocial support focuses on personal and social well-being of the leader, as well as role expectations, conflict and personal identity. For leadership mentorship to succeed there has to be a personal relationship between the leader and the mentor, active guidance and direct teaching. Mentors also need to know when to intervene and when to allow learning from mistakes to occur for the student leader. Specifically, student leadership preparation and training programs must guide potential student leaders in establishing collaborative decision-making, developing a shared vision, aligning the energies of diverse groups of people, supporting the interdependency of individuals in the school, and providing opportunities for shared learning among members (Begley, 2003).

**2.5 Student Leadership and its Relationship to Academic Achievement**

Students academic achievement is the golden standard measure of success in education. Robertson and Miller (2007) argue that improvement in students academic achievement is recognized as the foremost objective of school reforms and planning efforts. Therefore, the primary purpose of schools concerns teaching and learning. These would appear to be obvious activities in an effective school but research suggests that schools differ greatly in the extent to which they concentrate on their primary purpose of teaching and learning. For instance, Reeves (2007) suggests that students and their learning, with an emphasis on *all* students, are central to the practices of effective schools. Darling-Hammond et al (2005) further note that school effectiveness is clearly dependent on effective classroom teaching. Similar conclusions about the importance of teaching and learning at the classroom level are also evident in studies by McKinley (2005). However, as Petty and Green (2007) point out, a long standing problem of this view of school effectiveness has been to find ways to measure learner progress or achievement that identifies the schools' contribution to students' academic achievement separately from other factors such as learners' ability, family background and students' socio-economic environment.

Waters and Marzano (2006) identify strategies that have the potential to increase student learning and achievement. These strategies include identifying similarities and differences between learners, reinforcing effort and providing recognition, encouraging cooperative learning, and setting objectives and providing feedback. Further, Blankstein (2004) argues that to support and encourage active learning, students require explicit training that helps them develop habits of mind and social skills that are good foundations for future learning. This can be achieved through

multiple instructional strategies, ranging from traditional strategies to use of technology.

Teachers and principals in high achieving schools express the belief that students can master their academic work, and that they expect them to do so. These teachers' and principals' expectations are expressed in such a way that the students perceive that they are expected to learn and the school academic norms are recognized as setting a standard of high achievement. In contrast, the schools that are achieving at lower levels are characterized by the students' feelings of futility in regard to their academic performance. This futility is expressed in their belief that the system functions in such a way that they cannot achieve, that teachers are not committed to their high achievement, and that other students will make fun of them if they actually try to achieve (Pashiordis, 2007). Consequently, the norms of achievement as perceived by the students and the teachers in such a school are low. Since little is expected and teachers and principals believe that students are not likely to learn at a high level, they devote less time to instructional activity. In some contexts, high-stakes testing has encouraged a drill-and-practice form of instruction among teachers who are perfectly capable of developing deep understanding on the part of their students. Furthermore, extrinsic financial incentives for achieving school performance targets can erode teachers' intrinsic commitments to the welfare of their students.

A transformation in the way that students learn requires students, teachers and managers each to develop greater leadership autonomy, rather than be told what to do by a higher authority. Thus, putting all hopes for school effectiveness in the powers of a charismatic principal will rarely produce a long-term solution to a school's

problems, and may sometimes prove counter-productive. Waters and Marzano (2006) further observe that if teachers set high standards for their pupils, let them know that they are expected to meet them, and provide intellectually challenging lessons to correspond to these expectations, then the impact on achievement can be considerable. In addition, high expectations are more effective when they are part of a general culture which places demands on everyone in the school, so that, for example, the headteacher has high expectations for the performance and commitment of all of the teachers and students. However, expectations do not act directly on pupil performance, but through the attitude of the teacher being communicated to pupils and the consequent effect on their self-esteem. Even if teachers do not believe success is possible, conveying conviction that achievement can be raised can have a powerful effect. The implication of this is that when schools have high expectations of their pupils, they attempt, wherever possible, to provide intellectually challenging lessons for all pupils in all classes. This approach has been shown to be associated with greater effectiveness (Daggett, 2005).

Langer (2004) asserts that the quality of teaching in effective schools is also partly determined by the quality of the teachers in the school; and therefore, recruiting and replacing teachers is an important role in effective school leadership. While teaching effectiveness focuses on teaching processes, teacher effectiveness tries to identify teacher characteristics, like skills, experiences, dispositions and sometimes even personally traits, associated with teaching quality and student achievement. However, high quality teachers do not always perform to their full potential, and teaching styles and strategies are important factors related to pupil progress. Several studies have shown the importance of teachers being well organized and absolutely clear about

their objectives (Carey, 2004; Rice, 2003). The more time that teachers spend organizing a lesson after it has begun, the more likely it is that they will lose the attention of the class, with the attendant double risk of loss of opportunity to learn and disruptive behaviour.

School leaders in an effective school are responsible for facilitating the transformation of beginning teachers from a pre-service teacher preparation program into the school educational setting (Gimbert & Fultz; 2009). Throughout this process, school leaders are required to figure out beginning teachers' points of strengths and areas for improvement and to provide great support and training to address identified needs. Effective school leaders are realistic about beginning teachers' attentiveness and provide enhancement and training through positive communication that encourages these teachers to develop and maintain skills for effective classroom instruction. Novice teachers are required to fully comprehend their tasks and duties, as well as their team position in the school context in order to be influential. They are required to be aware of their tasks in terms of classroom management and the execution of curriculum and instructional plans (Brock & Grady, 2007).

While the new teacher's need for quality professional development is great, the effective school leader also recognizes the importance of continuing support and development for established teacher as well. Leithwood and Jantzi (2004) assert that by providing support for individual colleague's ideas and initiatives, promoting intellectual stimulation, reflecting on existing practices, questioning granted assumptions, considering new practices, and modeling important values and practices by promoting and sharing these practices and their outcomes, principals contribute to

the growth of all school staff. Overly, the explicit and implicit actions of the school principal have direct impact on the construction of teachers' professional identities and growth. Successful principals are reported to enhance staff in time of crisis, to praise good work, and to engage staff in critical discussion. Ideal principals are reported to mentor their colleagues, in addition to modeling the values and instructional practices that are considered productive for their schools (Begley and Johnason, 2003; Bromfield, 2006; Cheng and Cheung, 2004; Gimbert and Fultz, 2009).

Scheerens (2013) further observes that effects of teacher education, usually expressed in terms of formal qualifications, like having a Bachelors or Masters degree, or being certified to teach in a specific field, have traditionally been included in studies into school effectiveness. However, in developed, industrialized countries, factors like formal qualifications do not appear to make much of a difference to the effectiveness of a school. In developing countries such variables appear to be more often of significant impact. This is because the variation in formal teacher training in developed countries is usually quite limited, and teachers are more or less uniformly equipped to carry out their job. In developing countries teacher qualification is less uniformly distributed.

Academic achievement in effective schools is further enhanced when teachers are sensitive to differences in the learning styles of pupils and, where feasible, identify and use appropriate strategies to benefit all learners. In many cases this requires flexibility on the part of the teachers in modifying and adapting their teaching styles. Shannon & Bylsma (2007) argue that teachers are most effective when their

instruction is tightly focused on the learning needs of each student. This requires knowing the strengths and weaknesses of each student, knowing the appropriate instructional response and when and how to use it and having classroom structures, routines, and tools to deliver differentiated instruction and focused teaching on a daily basis (Fullan, 2006).

Frequent and systematic monitoring of the progress of pupils and classes has also been shown to be an important ingredient of the work of an effective school. First, it is a mechanism for determining the extent to which the goals of the school are being realized, and it also informs planning, teaching methods and assessment. Additionally, it gives a clear message to pupils that teachers are interested in their progress. Lezotte (2010) recognized monitoring of student progress as a factor often cited in effective schools research. However, some schools waste time or misdirect teaching through too frequent monitoring procedures.

Scheerens (2013) provides a relatively clear idea on what aspects of school functioning should be optimized in order to enhance student performance. One of these aspects is the opportunity given to students to learn. Opportunity to learn basically refers to a good match between what is tested or assessed in examinations and the content that is actually taught. The other aspect is instructional time, which may be expressed as the officially available or allocated learning time or more specifically as academic learning time. Additionally, there is the aspect of monitoring, which may include various types of school based evaluations, like school based review, school performance feedback, or school aggregate measures of formative assessment at classroom level.

There is also the aspect of parental involvement which implies the actual involvement of parents with school matters, or the policies by the school to encourage parents to be involved in their children's academic perfomance. Green et al (2007) and Barge and Loges (2011) argue that parental and other stakeholders' involvement is a key predictor of students' academic success. This argument is validated by the findings of Robinson & Harris (2014) study where two-thirds of the teachers surveyed believed that their students would perform better in school if their parents were more involved in their child's education. The study found out that children of uninvolved parents sometimes 'fall through the cracks' in the academic process. Talking to students about school expectations, volunteering in school activities and attending school meetings or events are some of the leading forms of parent participation in schools.

Sheldon & Epstein (2002) in an earlier longitudinal study of 39 schools identified for the National Network of Partnership Schools (NNPS) in Ohio, found out that communicating with parents about attendance can increase average daily attendance rates and reduce chronic absenteeism at both elementary and secondary schools. The findings of the study showed that even after the strong effects of prior rates of absenteeism were accounted for, communicating with families about attendance, celebrating good attendance with students and families, and connecting chronically absent students with community mentors measurably reduced students' chronic absenteeism from one year to the next.

Findings of other studies have also indicated that parental involvement not only enhances academic performance, but it also has a positive influence on student attitude and behavior. A parent's interest and encouragement in a child's education can

affect the child's attitude toward school, classroom conduct, self-esteem, absenteeism, and motivation. Meaningful parental involvement also means allowing parents actual decision-making power about what and how their children learn. By maintaining close relationships and frequent communication with the schools, parents can greatly contribute to their children's school-related outcomes and to the enhancement of more caring and responsive school environments (Arnold et al 2008; Houtenville & Hall, 2007; Kim & Bey, 2011; Christenson, 2004; Spera et al 2009).

Consequently, parents who are organized and who seek powerful ways to participate in school reform have become a crucial element of school improvement beyond the traditional professional approaches to improvement. In their study of parental involvement among low-income African-American families of high- and low-achievers, Gutman and McLoyd (2000) concluded that both sets of families recognize the importance of their children's education but had very different strategies for helping their children reach their educational goals. The study concluded that families of successful African-American students possessed average or above average social capital (measured by parent-teen interactions, parent-school interactions, parent-parent interactions, and family norms) and equal or higher levels of school contact than successful white students and non-successful African-American families. Research has also documented the ways in which cultural minority parents interact with their children that support learning, yet differ from more mainstream or middle class approaches (Cairney, 2000). The strategies documented in this body of research reflect the unique cultural practices of the home that support success in school and overall school effectiveness.

The literature on parental involvement also suggests that parents often wish they knew more about teachers' goals for homework and how to be more effective in their help. One promising strategy emerging in the literature for involving parents effectively in homework help seems to be providing training to parents on subject-specific strategies that they can implement at home that support student teaching (Faires et al., 2000). A study of literacy practices in Latino families found that when mothers were given explicit guidelines on how to do literacy activities with their children at home, they reported substantially more activities directly related to their children's schooling (Melzi et al., 2000). It would therefore seem that while agreement exists on the importance of monitoring students' academic performance and constructive teacher-parent communication on academic matters, little research has explored whether parent, student, and teacher perceptions are similar regarding what constitutes other stakeholder involvement and which stakeholders should be involved in efforts to enhance students' academic achievement.

There is also the aspect of school climate, which generally refers to good interpersonal relations at school, but often more specifically to the disciplinary climate and the fostering of an ordered and safe learning environment for all students in the school. Botha (2010) points out that an orderly school climate is more like an organizational condition that is directly supportive of the primary process of learning; in the sense that school climate is all about creating a safe and productive learning atmosphere. However, researchers have not yet reached a solid agreement as to which dimensions are essential in measuring school climate for enhanced student academic achievement (Thapa et al, 2013). Some of the suggested dimensions of a positive school climate include engagement, safety relationships, teaching and learning,

responsiveness to diversity, school encouragement of involvement and the school institutional environment (Cohen et al. 2009).

Leithwood et al (2006) acknowledge that the role of school leadership as the most significant in enhancing students academic achievement. School leaders are those persons occupying various roles and positions of responsibility in the school, and work with others to provide direction and exert influence on persons and things in order to achieve school goals. Effective school leaders develop school climates and cultures that help motivate both the students and teachers leading to the creation of better teaching and learning environments. Principals strengthen school culture when they clearly and consistently articulate high expectations for all students, including subgroups that are too often marginalized and blamed for schools not making adequate progress. Principals can modify organizational structures, for instance, by changing schedules to ensure that teachers share common planning time and use that time to discuss improving instruction. This kind of restructuring also reinforces the use of collaborative processes among teachers. Given sufficient time and consistent messages about the value of collaboration, teachers learn to trust their colleagues and are more willing to share their best practices and challenges. However, as Gamage (2006) notes, most of the research on the effect of school leadership on academic achievement has mainly centered on the school Principal as the school leader. The leadership behaviour of a Principal has been shown to have a significant impact on creating more effective schools, leading to higher levels of student achievement.

Research has also alluded to the fact that students respond to having a choice and opportunities to participate in decisions about their class work; rather than encountering

only predetermined results. In this way, students work together, teach one another and converse about their learning. Ultimately, students are aware of their thinking processes and how to regulate the processes by monitoring and directing the process and making adjustments when something isn't working. Students who participate in the thoughtful analysis of quality work to identify its critical elements or to internalize valued achievement targets become better performers (Reynolds 2000). Overally, achievement calls attention to the potential importance of the general classroom climate and the specific social-emotional experiences students have with teachers within the classroom.

Student motivation, engagement and student voice are critical elements of student-centered learning. Without motivation, students have no push to learn; without engagement students will have no way to learn; and without voice, there is no authenticity in what students' learn.

Schools should thus provide opportunities for students to be partners in decisions impacting their educational experience. Teachers and school administrators should seek to engage student voice that reflects the diversity, needs and interests of the student population. The aspect of student engagement found to be most closely associated with reading performance was their ability to control the learning process, that is, figuring out what they need to learn, work out as they go what concepts they have not understood, look for additional information when they do not understand, check whether they remember what they have learned, and make sure they have remembered the most important things (Mulford, 2003).

When teachers consider facilitating students' leadership development, the focus is more on extra-curriculum activities, for example school plays, or membership of sporting teams. While extra-curriculum activities can, and do foster leadership teachers may underestimate the importance of embedding student leadership development into their regular lessons. Students should be able to acquire leadership skills and knowledge through activities that complement their existing curriculum and so not require a separate student leadership curriculum or process. Bisland (2004) observes that this would provide for all of students to participate in leadership roles, rather than just those able to access extra-curriculum activities, or those in designated school leadership roles, such as class captain.

This focus on leadership as an integrated skill could also be instrumental in assisting teachers to re-conceptualise how they teach some of the content in the school curriculum and the purpose of teaching that content. Such embedded leadership procedures also highlight the need for teachers to perceive their students as young people, who would need leadership skills to cope with the changing demands of the school environment and of society at large. Facilitating students' leadership development directly and indirectly helps communities, societies, families, and industries that these future adults will inhabit. Wallin (2003) points out that student leadership has to be nurtured and should be a goal of a progressive education system. The expectation is that teachers and parents can build a foundation for student leadership that is skills based and complementary to the existing school curriculum by using a range of embedded classroom leadership experiences.

Kyriakides & Creemers (2008) further argue that high achieving schools are most likely to be characterized by the students' feeling that they have control or mastery of their academic work and the school system is not stacked against them. Consequently, positive teacher-student relationship is critical for learning to occur. This relationship involves showing students that the teacher cares for their learning. Teachers should establish a culture of high expectations for student learning and achievement. A culture of high expectations supports the belief that all students can learn, progress and achieve. Student behavior and exam success are also influenced positively when a high proportion of students hold positions of responsibility and are involved in directing some aspects of learning. Fencl and Scheel (2005) observe that giving students more control over their learning does not mean that the teacher is out of control. Implementing a system of leadership in the classroom also saves time and teaches students the real life skills of accepting responsibility for doing a job. There is therefore need for the teacher to establish routines and model expectations in the classroom, but then step back and offer opportunities for students to make choices and let them be their own guides.

This implies that the most valuable voice in the learning environment becomes that of the student. This is because they are the consumers of knowledge and can provide feedback regarding their learning needs being met. Engaging students in the learning experiences ensures all students use higher-order thinking skills, solve complex problems, develop increased understanding, and construct new knowledge. Thus, learning experiences are engaging, promote collaboration, innovation and creativity; while ongoing feedback between students and teachers enables students to refine their thinking (Barnard, 2004).

One aspect of learning that student leaders can control is class attendance. A study by Bergen (2004) found out that a student can record class attendance from a seating chart, and the teacher checks this later for accuracy. This means that while the student leaders takes responsibility for recording class attendance, the teacher is free to keep the class moving forward. Beyond classroom attendance, student leaders can also be involved in encouraging cooperative learning. Fencl and Scheel (2005) in their study of the effects of various teaching strategies on students self – efficacy identify cooperative learning, which involves student leadership, as a key strategy for increased student achievement. Cooperative learning was found to have an effect on student achievement regardless of previous experience or past test scores.

The findings of a study by Buch et al (2004) also suggest that student focused learning may positively affect students' academic achievement. The study found out that students perfomed better on a classroom project when they were forced to rely on one another for success rather than work independently. The emphasis on student focused learning and cooperative learning is further propagated by Dobinson (2001) whose study points out that peer to peer interaction as part of a lesson is a component of student leadership. The findings of this study, which was conducted to evaluate the retention of new vocabulary in students, show that peer to peer interaction was significantly more effective in the retention of new vocabulary than teacher only instruction. The researcher also reported that students who did not participate overtly in peer to peer interaction still benefited from it. Thus, students who learned the material in a peer to peer setting retained more vocabulary than those taught in a teacher - only setting, regardless of whether the students were active or passive in the classroom. Hancock (2004) in a study on the motivation and achievement of students

exposed to cooperative learning also reveals that students with high peer orientation were significantly more motivated to learn than students with low peer orientation.

Additionally, student leaders should be given opportunities to provide quality assessment and feedback to classmates, teachers and amongst themselves in relation to the predetermined criteria or set targets. Assessment is the process of gathering information that accurately reflects how well a student is achieving the curriculum expectations in any given subject. The primary purpose of assessment is to improve student learning. As part of assessment for learning, teachers provide students with descriptive feedback aimed at improvement, and not criticism. Teachers also engage in meaningful assessment by helping all students develop their capacity to be independent, autonomous learners who are able to set individual goals, monitor their own progress, determine the next steps in the learning process, and reflect on their thinking and learning (Glatthorn et al, 2006)

In an effective school, a culture of learning is promoted in schools and classrooms whereby errors are seen as opportunities for learning and improvement. Ongoing, feedback is collaboratively analyzed to provide information about student learning. As observed by Chin (2007) and Allen (2008), evaluation and feedback can be seen as a tool for driving improvement at both school and classroom level. Such feedback includes verification of what students have learned, identification of strengths and weaknesses in content and skills that are mastered, systematic consideration of remedial strategies and setting goals for improvement. Thus, students, through their leaders engage in learning conversations and peer assessment to explain and question their own thinking and the knowledge passed on to them by their teachers. In this

way, the students effectively participate in the collection and development of plans that assist in informing the next steps in their learning. Where students are not demonstrating the intended learning expectations, collaborative processes may be put in place to guide problem-solving and decision-making in relation to prevention and intervention strategies that may be required (Thomas et al, 2010).

Teachers who use student leaders in their classrooms for cooperative learning will reap the benefits associated with higher academic achievement in students. The student leaders represent their own voice and the voice of other students when advocating for conditions that support their learning. Thus, students through their leaders are partners in dialogue and discussions to inform programs and activities in the classroom. For instance, in Britain, the major responsibilities of student leaders who are also known as student managers, is to regularly monitor class attendance, punctuality and to oversee group mentoring programmes. The student managers also carry out other activities such as individual mentoring, peer mentoring, reading support group and run the homework club. In this regard, learning is situated in contexts, and school is a context where students learn from one another (Allen, 2010).

This scenario is mirrored in Scotland, where students' participation in school management has been used with different age groups. Duignan (2006) notes that majority of the students express the greatest preference for lessons where they can work with their friends under their own leadership, and least preference for lessons where they work alone. Strategies which involve students' participation in their own learning have built upon their preference for co-operation, practical work and discussions. This has helped to re-motivate bored and disaffected student who have

changed and even improved in their academic performance. In Hong Kong, students' participation in learning with supervision from teachers is known as Teacher Collective Learning (TCL). Through TCL, teachers and students are able to suspend individual assumptions about their pedagogy and engage in a free and open dialogue about the essence, nature, and challenges of teaching and learning. Students learn more effectively through participation, being good examples to fellow students and responsibility, when they interact with teachers and learn together as a team (Olsen & Burges, 2006).

A study by Anderson and Lu (2016) reports that in Chinese schools, student leaders with several leadership responsibilities assist the teachers in carrying out and monitoring aspects of curriculum and extra-curricular delivery and programs. The class monitor, who is at the top of the student leaders' classroom management structure, assumes a wide range of responsibilities which include representing the class, organizing collective activities, and maintaining order in the class. At the beginning of each lecture, the class monitor calls all students to stand up to greet teachers. There is also a vice class monitor who assists the class monitor, especially in maintaining order in the class, that is, keeping students from talking aloud or moving around during class time. A labor commissary assigns students to various cleaning tasks and monitors the performance of these tasks; while the entertainment commissary organizes singing and dance performances for school events or festivals and updates the bulletin board periodically. Course delegates are assigned for each major subject: Chinese, English, and math. These course delegates ensure homework is done and urge students to turn in homework on time. The course delegates also collect and distribute homework for the relevant subjects, and sometimes assist in

grading homework. At the beginning of every morning there is a 30-minute reading-aloud section; and Chinese and English delegates rotate to lead this section.

Anderson and Lu (2016) further emphasize that what is common to all the major class leaders is that they have more exposure to teachers and other students and, to varying degrees, they must motivate other students in order to fulfill their responsibilities. As a result, class leaders are motivated to increase their study efforts. This is because the students appointed as class leaders are afraid that they will be replaced mid semester if they underperform the rest of the class on the midterm exam. However, a second possibility that explains the motivation of the class leaders to perform exceptionally well is the Rosenthal effect, which explains that people may perform better when others place higher expectations on them. In this case, class leaders may not want to disappoint the teachers that appointed them, or they may hope to boost their reputation with an eye towards leadership appointments in future years. Further, their high classroom profile may increase the embarrassment associated with a poor performance on an exam.

In Nigeria, students are involved in academic management to assist improve the academic performance of their peers through the PALS, which is a Peer-Assisted Learning Scheme aimed at helping new students to adapt to school life and study. PALS organize small informal groups of second and third year volunteer students who offer support to first year students in a series of fortnightly meetings. In these meetings, the senior students answer the questions which the new students feel are too awkward to put across to their teachers in the classroom. The senior students also

provide advice on study skills, using library resources, essay writing, and other academic issues (Farrier, 2013).

However, as Gamage et al (2009) observe, teachers are not fully aware of the need and impact of embedding student leadership into their daily classroom activities. Research also warns that peer learning and collaborative learning must be well constructed to be effective. This is because some students may feel academically threatened when others in the group challenge them in the process of learning. Stevens (2007) study analyzed some common problems associated with collaborative learning and gives suggestions for successful group interaction. One key problem of collaborative learning acknowledged in this study is unequal workload and inconsistency in grading group work. The inconsistency in grading comes about because teachers may not be aware of how much or little a particular group member contributed to the overall finished task. The study suggests using a system of grading that includes peer evaluation and input. This means that students input is vital for fair grading and successful collaborative learning. Dobinson (2001) emphasizes the importance of the teacher passing the responsibility of leadership in the classroom to the students and holding them accountable for that responsibility.

Overly, leadership research shows that students can improve the way they learn, and be more in control of the teaching and learning events around them (McGregor & Tyrer, 2004). Students' participation in school life is so important that if education stakeholders get serious about inclusion, students would know why they want to learn and how to construct learning activities that can help them and other students to lead their own learning more effectively. Ultimately, the fundamental purpose of student

engagement within the school community is to enable the school to achieve and maintain the highest possible level of effectiveness in meeting the educational needs of its students.

### 2.6 Student Leadership and its Relationship to Student Discipline

One of the crucial areas where effective leadership is called for in a school is in achieving, maintaining and restoring student discipline (Kibet et al, 2012). Discipline is a very vital element in all schools, as it is regareded as training that is aimed at developing self controlled adults of the future. Maintaining a state of discipline in the school is, therefore, a strategy that ensures attainment of all educational goals for any school, since discipline aims at creating an environment that is conducive to, and supportive of, effective teaching and learning. Discipline is, in real terms, the epicenter of success of a school, and maintaining a state of discipline is a strategy that ensures attainment of educational goals for any school. This means that discipline is a prerequisite to effective learning and the aim of discipline in any school should be to create an environment that is conducive to, and supports effective teaching and learning. This assertion is supported by Kiprop (2007) who points out that discipline in school is a function of the administration, and therefore the principal as a leader must have a clear discipline policy of what is required for the successful management of the school. Thus, in addition to academic preparation, schools are responsible for instilling in students the behaviors that are required to sustain society.

School discipline serves the important purpose of maintaining safe and orderly learning environments in schools. Consequently, discipline is manifested when the school becomes a harmonious, respectable and secure place where the students are

responsible for themselves and are also aware of their actions and the consequences of these actions. As emphasized by Squelch (2000), discipline is guidance and instruction that is meant to teach and enhance a social order where the rights and responsibilities of students in the school are balanced. Discipline also helps students to stay on track with regard to their goals and also gives them an opportunity to grow as a wholesome person. Thus, discipline is a process of imparting knowledge and skill that is aimed at creating positivity. Nyabisi (2012) further asserts that discipline should not be a way to control students, but a process of education to improve and perfect behaviour, aimed at obedience to rules based on self-control and self-discipline. Student discipline is also an important condition for an orderly school climate, which leads to an effective school and enhanced student achievement.

Discipline is manifested when the school becomes a harmonious, respectable and secure place where the students are responsible for themselves and are also aware of their actions and the consequences of these actions. Consequently, student discipline in a school can be assessed from the degree of academic achievement or from students' behaviour. Several studies have underscored the importance of discipline and its effect on student achievement by creating schools and classrooms that are free of disruption (Magableh and Hawamdeh, 2007; Kiprop, 2007) This is because ensuring discipline translates to positive school and classroom behaviour such as; students handing in homework on time, being attentive in class, preparing fully for examinations and other activities related to academic pursuits.

School rules and regulations are among the key strategies designed to maintain discipline in schools. Generally, indiscipline in a school is expressed when students

exhibit behaviour that is contrary to the school rules and regulations, since such rules contain the dos and don'ts that prescribe and impact on students' patterns of behaviour (Wright and Keetley, 2003; Gamage et al, 2009). On admission to a school, students are given these rules and regulations, and in most cases, the students must promise and bind themselves to adhere to these rules, by signing in a document on which the rules are written. However, the scenario in most counries in Sub-Saharan Africa is that students continue to break such rules and regulations with impunity, leading to widespread acts of indiscipline in schools (Nakpodia, 2010; Sithole, 2008) .

A study by Magableh and Hawamdeh (2007) on the role of discipline in classroom management underscores the importance of discipline and its effect on student achievement. The study, which was based on the discipline model, focuses on the right of the teacher to teach in a classroom free of disruption. Using the discipline model, good behaviour is rewarded and poor behaviour is punished. The study concludes that student discipline is an important factor in determining the intellectual outcome of the school; and recommends that discipline should be enhanced through instruction and a social order where both students' rights and responsibilities are balanced. Thus, the primary role of school leadership should be to maintain an efficient administration system that enhances instructional quality and discipline.

Student discipline in a school can be assessed from the degree of academic achievement or from students' behaviour. Academic discipline may mean handing in homework on time, being attentive in class, preparing fully for examinations and other activities related to academic pursuits (Sushila, 2004). Behavioral discipline, however, is different and should be dealt with differently. The school code of conduct

normally spells out the ways a student is expected to behave while in school. To achieve this goal, schools must identify what is acceptable behavior and what is unacceptable behavior.

Wright and Keetley (2003) argue that the lack of clarity surrounding the definition of discipline perpetuates the inconsistency of response to indiscipline incidences by teaching staff, and in particular, the school administration. Generally, indiscipline in a school is expressed when students exhibit behaviour that is contrary to the school code of conduct and regulations; as stipulated in the school rules and regulations. Gamage et al (2009) assert that school rules and regulations are among the key strategies designed to maintain discipline in schools. The school administration plays a critical role in designing and implementing the rules and reglations by which the school is governed. Such rules contain the dos and don'ts that prescribe and impact on students' patterns of behaviour. On admission to school, students are given these rules and regulations which specify what school members should do and what they should not do. In most cases, the students must promise and bind themselves to adhere to these rules, by signing in a document on which the rules are written. Consequently, in any educational institution, there are set standards and rules or codes of behaviour that learners must adhere to or uphold in order to successfully achieve the goals of the school. Any serious learner misconduct involving criminal or violent behaviour defeats the purpose for the existence of such statndards and codes of behaviour.

However, as Sithole (2008) observes, the scenario in most counries in Sub – Saharan Africa is that students continue to break such rules and regulations, leading to widespread acts of indiscipline such as truancy, alcohol consumption and

participating in school strikes. Nakpodia (2010) confirms this by noting that it has become normal in many secondary schools for students to break school rules with impunity by showing lack of respect to school authority, damaging of school property, beating up teachers, rioting at the slightest opportunity and even inflicting harm on one another. Kimani et al (2012) argue that in handling these discipline challenges, school principals mainly focus on reactive and administrative methods of instilling discipline rather than giving appropriate leadership designed to inspire alternative and positive behaviour in students. Such methods emphasize on inflicting pain to the students and maintaining extrinsic control by the school administration.

In Kenya, indiscipline has been a major concern in secondary schools with indiscipline cases varying from one school to another. Birgen (2007) notes that moral depravity, drugs, violence, absenteeism, strikes, teenage pregnancies, rape, theft, homosexsuality and student- teacher love affairs have become major problems facing secondary schools in Kenya today. Kiprop (2007) also emphasizes that the discipline situation in schools has deteriorated as a result of the ban on corporal punishment. Consequently, many secondary schools in Kenya no longer function in safe and peaceful contexts because of indiscipline in the wider society that seems to be reflected in the schools. Additionally, recurring indiscipline episodes in schools may perpetuate a culture of conflicts within the school and without, and between the school and the community.

The report of the taskforce on the inquiry into student discipline (GOK, 2001) shows that in 2008, the country registered the highest number of High School strikes with more than 800 of the 6,000 secondary schools countrywide affected by a wave of

strikes and destruction of property. The inquiry concluded that there was inadequate participation of students in school management and called for immediate measures to mitigate occurrence of the same. Despite this recommendation, another recent wave of school strikes in Kenya took place in 2015, with several schools being reduced to ashes and facilities that had taken years to build being reduced to shells in a matter of minutes as a result of unexplained rage by the students (Kiplagat and Oruko, 2015). Such incidences are also a pointer to the school leadership to explore and put in place other amicable and acceptable ways of dealing with student discipline.

There has been a variety of reactions to the rising incidences of indiscipline and unrests in schools; and how to handle the same. Various views have been expressed regarding the cause of the indiscipline and possible solutions to the problems have been proposed. The ban on the cane (corporal punishment) as a means of disciplining students in school has been blamed for the increase in indiscipline, and naturally, there have been calls to re-think the decision to ban corporal punishment in Kenyan schools. However, the view that corporal punishment should be reinsateted in schools is not in agreement with organisations such as the Kenya Human Rights Commission (KHRC), and some legislation such as the Children's Act; that advocate against any form of torture or cruelty against children . Subsequently, the reintroduction of caning has been ruled out as a means of instilling discipline in schools (Kimani et al, 2012).

Chen (2005) draws a heuristic theoretical model that conceives of school violence and indiscipline as an interplay among several subsystems, such as the students' personal characteristics, the school neighborhood characteristics, students' family characteristics, and students' cultural contexts, and within school contexts. These

subsystems interact and reciprocally influence each other in determining the level of discipline in a school. On the other hand, Kivulu and Wandai (2009) identify two approaches to handling incidences of student indiscipline; one which includes punitive methods that have a potential to cause pain or discomfort and the other which includes normative methods that do not cause any physical pain or discomfort. Punitive discipline is mainly deterrent in nature and is characterized by rules, extrinsic control, and 'policing' which is intended to punish or discourage further infringement to the rules. In contrast, Normative discipline is preventive in nature and focuses on establishing a set of standards of behaviour, norms, values and beliefs that are aimed at relation – building, self determination, self regulation, intrinsic control and commitment to morals and ethics.

However, student discipline in a school is best derived from "belonging and participating" rather than rules, punishment, and external control (Bates, 2006). For example, too frequent use of punishment can create a tense and negative atmosphere with counter-productive effects on attendance and behavior. As Simatwa (2012) points out, using the cane to instill behavioral discipline is not only illegal, but also outdated. Other forms of physical punishment are also physically and psychologically damaging to the recipient and may have lasting and devastating effects. Research has also demonstrated that suspension, expulsion, and other punitive consequences are not the solution to dangerous and disruptive student behaviors (Nyabisi, 2012; Kiprop, 2007; Simatwa, 2012). Therefore an open minded approach to school rules and regulations as a way of minimizing unwanted students behaviour in schools should be explored.

Although reliance on punitive approaches to discipline has proven largely ineffective, even counterproductive, many schools in Kenya still adopt an approach to school discipline that usually entails the expulsion or suspension of students as an automatic consequence of serious acts of misconduct. Slee (2005) points out that suspension of students from school involves temporary exclusion, whereas expulsion of a student is permanent removal or exclusion of the student from the school setting. The two methods are considered effective tools of managing discipline in cases of serious misconducts such as drug possession, carrying of illegal weapons, poor attendance and truancy. In Kenya, the guideline is that suspended students are not allowed to attend classes and are required to be physically away from the school precincts until they are informed of the outcome of the case through a letter (GOK, 2013).

The major objective of suspension is to remove the offending student from the classroom or the school, thus allowing the teacher to get on with the lesson or the school to run its programs without the interruption of the offending behaviour. Kivulu and Wandai(2009) observe that the suspension also provides an opportunity for parents to be involved in any review of the student's behavioural problems; since part of the requirements of a suspension is that the parent must be notified and in most cases must also accompany the student back to school at the end of the suspension period. In the Kenyan context, when a principal finds it necessary to suspend a student from school, the principal should inform the student's parent or legal guardian of the suspension, the length of the suspension, and the specific reason for the suspension; by formal notification (GOK, 2008).

Kibet et al (2012) observe that unfortunately, an increasing number of schools apply this approach of suspension and recommendation for expulsion even to behaviors that do not necessarily threaten the safety or welfare of others. Furthermore, harsh consequences are invoked automatically, irrespective of the severity of the misbehavior or the circumstance involved, and without consideration of the negative impact of these consequences on the welfare of the offending student or on the overall climate of the school. Such punitive discipline measures are also related to a number of negative consequences, including increased rates of school drop-out and discriminatory application of school discipline. In schools that have a weak or lax disciplinary policy, students feel unfairly singled out for punishment which, in turn, tends to increase indiscipline. Teachers then see students as unruly and begin to develop unfavorable attitudes toward the students. The cycle of frustration escalates and ends up in violence and property loss (UNESCO, 2007).

Suspension from school can also be viewed as a reward by some students; where the offending student gets the reward of spending time away from the rigours of school activities, consequently reinforcing the form of behaviour the school was trying to eliminate (Slee, 2005). Additionally, there is also evidence that the suspended student receives a lot of sympathy and support from many of their peers; thus painting the suspension process as one of matrydom with the offending student being seen as a victim of the school processes. Therefore, such measures as exlusion of misbehaving students should be treated with caution for they might not reflect accepted international principles and practices in discipline management; and should only be administered in the most extereme circumstances.

Positive discipline strategies that support effective discipline practices and transform student behaviour should thus be explored by school administrators. Positive discipline strategies are procedures that focus on increasing desirable behaviors instead of simply decreasing undesirable behaviors through punishment (Joubert and Serakwa, 2009). Such strategies emphasize the importance of making positive changes in the school environment in order to improve the students' behavior. Such changes may entail the use of positive reinforcement, modeling, supportive teacher-student relations and stakeholders' support. For instance, interventions that target low levels of inappropriate behavior before they escalate into violence can significantly reduce the need for harsh consequences later.

Research has shown that positive discipline strategies benefit all students because they provide opportunities to forge positive relationships among members of the school, thus preventing discipline problems. Positive discipline strategies also ensure that discipline is fair and corrective so as to maintain appropriate social behavior to make schools safer. Safer schools are more effective learning environments. Further, positive discipline solutions address student needs and reduce student alienation through peer relationships that can dramatically reduce acting out in school. Such effective discipline practices also ensure the safety and dignity of students, preserve the integrity of the learning environment, and address the causes of a student's misbehavior in order to improve positive behavioral skills and long-term outcomes (Kiprop, 2007; Nyabisi, 2012; Simatwa, 2012; Kibet et al 2012).

One key strategy for achieving positive discipline in schools is partnering with students' families, the community and other key stakeholders in coming up with

discipline solutions for the school. A study by Sheldon & Epstein (2005) reported that schools with a strong record of family and community involvement often tied these activities to a goal of improved student behavior. These schools reported fewer student disciplinary actions from one year to the next. Using longitudinal data from secondary schools, the analysis of this study indicates that regardless of a school's prior rates of discipline, the more family and community involvement activities were implemented, the fewer students were reported to have disciplinary issues that necessitated their being sent to the principals' office or being given detention or in-school suspension. Thus, the activities of parenting and parental involvement were most predictive of reducing the percentages of students who were subject to discipline. Also, schools that improved the quality of their partnership programs with family and the community reported fewer students in need of disciplinary action. The results suggest that creating more connections and greater cooperation among the school, family, and community contexts may be one way for schools to improve student behavior and school discipline.

Another positive discipline strategy that is explored in schools is guidance and counseling. Kauchak (2011) defines the counselling relationship as an interactive process co – joining the counselee, who is vulnerable and who needs assistance, and the counselor who is trained and educated to give this assistance. The main goal of the counselling process is to help the counselee learn to deal more effectively with themselves and the reality of their environment. One of the main functions of education is to provide opportunities for every individual student to reach their full potential in the areas of educational, vocational, emotional and moral development. Therefore, through effective guidance and counseling, positive norms are imparted to

students to help them achieve their hidden potential in all areas of personal growth and development.

Counselling puts realism to a person and helps them stay on the path of growth and avoid bad behavior. Negative peer pressure, for example, can cause devastating moral erosion if not checked by a counselor. Mohan (2004) emphasizes this by pointing out that one of the desired outcomes of an education system should be to produce students who, among other features, are emotionally stable. To this end, effective counselling has been cited as an important characteristic of school effectiveness. The argument should not mainly be whether counselling is effective; but how to make it more effective in areas such as students' emotional stability which in turn facilitates effective learning and discipline management in schools.

Muola and Ireri (2010) acknowledge that the role of guidance and counselling in the management of student discipline in Kenya has been recognized by the various government policy documents since independence. For instance, the report of the National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies (Kamunge report of 1976) recommended that guidance and counselling be taught using subjects like Religious Education, to enable schools to promote self – discipline among learners. Most recently, as advised by the report on the inquiry into students unrest and strikes in secondary schools (GOK, 2008), each school should have a guidance and counselling department to guide students on acceptable behaviour and code of conduct. Thus, the counselling programs and practices adopted by different schools should form an integral part of the management of students' discipline.

However, for guidance and counselling to be effective, it must be relevant to the students' needs and should not be implemented to merely maintain the requirement of having the program in all schools. Therefore. the guidance and counselling services provided by the school should be purposefully designeed to prepare students to understand and accept the results of their choices. Kauchack (2011) notes that the ability to make intelligent choices by first appreciating the consequences of each choice is not innate; but like other abilities, must be developed. Next to professional counselors, teachers are the most important component in successfully developing such abilities in the students through effective guidance and counselling programs in the school. Teacher – counselors represent the first line of defence in identifying behavioural challenges in students and are also the key advisors to students on how best to overcome such challenges.

To effectively address the discipline problem in schools, the guidance and counselling programs should be stable and unaffected by the lack of adequately qualified personnel. This is a challenge in most Kenyan schools due to the lack of sufficiently trained teacher – counselors in the schools (GOK, 2013). In most schools, guidance and counselling is almost entirely based on the voluntary efforts of teachers who somehow feel motivated to provide it. Further, research findings by Jourbert and Serekwa (2009) indicate that most teachers have not received formal professional training on counselling strategies and their application. Ajowi and Simatwa's (2010) study on the role of guidance and counselling in promoting students' discipline echoes this by noting a lack of counselling knowledge as an alternative method of maintaining discipline in schools. The counselling training that is provided to teachers as part of their teacher education training in colleges and universities is inadequate

and does not fully enable the teacher to handle the diverse counselling needs of the students. Moreover, students with a problem must be willing to seek assistance from a counselor and if they are unable or unwilling to do this, then it is very difficult for guidance and counslling to be used in managing student discipline. Jourbert and Serekwa (2009) emphasizes that the teacher – counselor cannot create this willingness in students; it must voluntarily come from within the student who has a problem. Thus, the way in which the students perceive the counselling process might serve as a barrier to the use of counseling in managing student discipline.

Another positive discipline strategy that should be explored by school administrators is the involvement of student leaders in the management of student discipline. As argued by Bosire et al (2009), the management of student discipline should be a corporate responsibility between the school principal, teachers, parents and other key stakeholders. School Principals should thus create a democratic environment in the school so as to enhance the capacity of all key stakeholders to play their role in shaping the discipline of students towards the desired direction. This view is consistent with that of Kivulu and Wandai (2009) who argue that managing student discipline requires the concerted efforts of several key players; and that an active partnership between all the key players has great benefits and effects on students' behaviour.

However, as Gatt (2005) notes, the student, who holds a central place in the school, and is therefore a key stakeholder in managing school discipline is often forgotten or taken for granted in the whole issue of dealing with indiscipline. Schools should therefore ensure that there are formal mechanisms in place to allow students to

regularly share their views and to participate in decision making on discipline issues, through their student leaders. As Sushila (2004) observes, the rigid implementation of rules produces revolutionary reaction, and may result in confrontation and disobedience. The involvement of student leaders in managing student discipline is further advanced by Sithole (2008) who points out that involvement of students in peer mentoring and discipline is based on the idea that most people prefer to seek out their peers for help when experiencing behavioural challenges, frustrations, concerns and general problems. Over time, student council leaders develop a friendship with the other students and usually derive satisfaction from helping other students and shaping their lives in a positive way.

Some genuine progress has been seen in the reduction of challenging behaviour in Scottish schools when the school administration involves students in discipline issues. To achieve this, schools in Scotland make use of student councils and circle time. According to Gatt (2005), the Scottish Schools Act ruled that schools should find out what students think by setting up consultation bodies such as the student council. A student council is a group of students, teachers and possibly other staff 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. The students, through the council, are fully involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that the schools operate on. A study carried out by Leithwood and Jantzi (2004) in Philadelphia also emphasized the need for student involvement in managing discipline by concluding that students in the student council can offer their collegues an opportunity for self-knowledge and self –development though individual and group interventions. The student leaders thus act as mentors who provide their peers with a

pool of knowledge that could be tapped on to help polish their disciplinary and behavioural development. Peer mentoring in issues of discipline also has the advantage of giving students anopportunity to work on their issues and concerns without fear and intimidation. Schools that engage students in the council in peer supervivion are able to help their students perform better, adopt healthy behaviour patterns, understand themselves better, as well as relate to other members of the school in a satisfactory manner.

A UNICEF report on students councils (2009), reported that one of the main roles of student councils is to distribute information on prevention of violence and bullying in schools. The study acknowledged that before the establishment of student councils in secondary schools in Kosovo, there were many cases of students bullying others. However, through the student councils, students have taken the responsibility of caring for each other. The conclusion of the study was that if student leaders are given the opportunity there is no doubt that their power can be strong enough to expand peace discussion and create space for tolerance and inter-ethnic dialogue between the divided communities represented in the school. This is an implication that it is a good idea for the school administration to explain the school rules and why they are written. Students must be made to realize that breaking the rules will result in reprimand or some form of punishment. This can only be done through dialogue between the school administration and the students, through their student leaders.

Tikoko and Kiprop (2011) argues that establishing a common set of rules that govern student discipline in a school is not easy because the values held by the school administration and which are implemented in the school rules may sometimes conflict

with those held by the students. To solve this challenge, the recommendation is the inclusion of students at various levels of decision making, including in the formulation of discipline policies. The involvement of students in the formulation of school discipline policies may be constructive, significant and if approached in the right manner, would work positively in meeting the objectives of discipline management in the school.

This view is also shared by Njozela (2010) who suggests that one strategy is to view the rule-making process as a potential learning experience, not as an administrative chore. Thus, instead of distributing rules as an edict, the school can encourage teachers and student to work together in the rule-making process. The student leaders may act as the representative of their fellow students in making the rules together with the school administration. The students can also be encouraged to come up with rules that could be incorporated in the old school laws. This would give them a feeling of ownership since they will view them as their own creation and thus strive to obey them. Students are far more likely to internalize and respect rules that they helped create than rules that are handed to them. According to the Report of the Task Force on Student Discipline and Unrest in Secondary Schools in Kenya (GOK, 2001), the curtailing of students' freedom to express their opinions creates mistrust between the students and the school administration. This breeds a situation where students have no way of expressing their grievances leading to frustration and resulting in disruptive behaviour.

Nsubuga (2000) and Kombo (2006) also assert that the headteacher and staff must realize that students have problems related to emotional and behavioural changes and

must strive to address these in collaboration with the students. Certain changes signaling adolescence and maturity in the course of growth and development of students in secondary schools tend to make students misbehave by faulting school rules and regulations. To this end, the school administration should try and promote more adaptive behaviour in students and make them better able to solve future problems more independently and effectively. This can be easily achieved through student leadership, since as Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005) hypothesize, students who hold positions of responsibility are more likely to identify with the educational values of the school and provide models of mature behavior for the other students. To be effectively involved in the management of student discipline, leadership training should be organized occasionally for student leaders on the effective maintenance of school discipline.

However, there is very little empirical evidence with reference to Kenyan schools, on how active involvement of student leaders can enhance specific aspects of student discipline in schools. Ultimately, school administrators should work towards establishing a framework for developing, refining, and implementing a culture of discipline conducive to learning in schools. Such a framework should be built on positive behavior support and a culture of positive discipline techniques. The approach should also rely on teaching and reinforcing clear behavioral expectations, providing supports and interventions for students with challenging behaviors, and using alternatives to punitive disciplinary measures currently adopted by schools.

## 2.7 Student Leadership and its Relationship to Effective Communication

Schools are institutions held together by structures, but if they are to be influential and successful they need to be run as communities held together by a shared sense of identity and by common norms and communication structures. However, effective communication remains a difficult aspect between members of any institution and the success of their operations within the institution. According to Scheerens (2013), the key components of successful leadership are developed through effective communication that aims at planning for the future strategic directions, establishing unity between curriculum and teaching, endorsing the sharing of knowledge and the life learning process with faculty, exchanging feedback with others, and extending interactions with the surrounding communities. Through effective communication, leaders can direct and plan improvement in curriculum and teaching, evaluate the program outcomes, deal with the staff concerns, and direct professional development plans.

This means that communication is one of the organic and paramount functions of school management as it is performed in each and every school management situation. It is important for any school leader to set clear goals and draw a road map based on effective communication and productive relationships with students, teachers, and parents. Successful leaders spend most of their time listening and speaking to others. Such interaction enables the leader to create a harmonious environment conducive to a successful educational institution. Whether it is teacher to student, student to student, teacher to teacher, teacher to administration or administration to student; communication is needed to make sure students are successful, and the school achieves its goals (Lobdell, 2007).

Sushila's (2004) definition of communication indicates that to communicate is to make known, to pass on or to exchange meaningful ideas, information or feelings. Implicit this definition is the notion that communication involves at least two parties, the sender and the receiver. The definition also implies that communication must be meaningful. Therefore, communication does not take place unless the receiver correctly understands or accurately interprets the information being transmitted. Sushila (2004) further emphasizes that one of the major reasons for conflict in an institution is misunderstanding, which is caused by poor communication. Therefore, there is a need for school members to communicate regularly and clearly about information important to student success. This is because in a school setting, effective interchange of opinions and information helps in resolving differences and in creating mutual understanding between the different people and groups of people in the school.

Open and regular communication is the key to co-ordination in any institution. Oswald et al (2004) argue that a fundamental or underlying requirement for demonstrating leadership is the ability and willingness to persuasively communicate and influence individuals and groups to pursue their goals. This therefore means that the communication styles of leaders play an important role in the effectiveness of a leader, knowledge sharing, and leadership outcomes. Communication and school leadership research has also concluded that those who communicate more frequently in groups are more likely to emerge as leaders and be viewed by the group as leaders; since a reluctance to communicate is likely to make one less inclined to be proactive in interacting with others, consequently leading them to demonstrate less leadership

initiative (Blankstein, 2004; Gordon & Patterson, 2006; Creemers, & Kyriakides, 2012; Baldwin et al, 2013).

In a school setting, effective interchange of opinions and information helps in resolving differences and in creating mutual understanding between the different people and groups of people in the school. The efficiency and success of a school system, therefore, depends mainly on its communication system. Up-to-date information must be available all the time regarding the various aspects of the school. This information must be provided in time to the staff members, the students and other interested parties so as to create, maintain and develop the human understanding and co-operation necessary for school effectiveness (Nyabisi, 2012). Further ,communication in the learning process allows students and other stakeholders to contribute to, and monitor learning progress. Ongoing communication about learning should be in place to allow students, teachers, and parents to monitor and support student learning. Effective communication channels should be developed to inform and engage parents and students in learning, assessment practices and determining learning progress. Thus, parents and other stakeholders are engaged through ongoing communication and dialogue to support a positive learning environment at home and at school; and consequently improve students' performance **(**Creemers, & Kyriakides, 2012).

Schmoker's (2005) study on teacher work environment emphasizes the importance of communication for teacher efficacy, student achievement and overall school effectiveness. From the research data, effective schools were characterized by consensus on goals and participation in decision making. Thus, two-way, regular,

clear communication is fundamental in effective schools. Students' learning in effective schools is further enhanced when members of the school community share goals, demonstrate mutual respect and trust, and join in partnerships to promote the well-being of students. Further, Lobdell (2007) stresses the importance of communication in schools by pointing out the need for school members to communicate regularly and clearly about information important to student success. The school should inform its members about standards and how they relate to the curriculum, school programs, discipline codes, and student progress.

Hallinger and Heck (2010) further argue that in effective schools, all communication about students' learning and assessment is personalized, clear, precise and meaningful. A system is put in place to allow teachers, students and parents to continuously monitor students' progress and performance. Learning goals are identified, shared and clarified with students and parents through open and effective communication. Learning preferences, individual strengths and areas for further improvement are also identified and communicated. Elmore (2003) also emphasizes that an essential element of the school leader's job is the ability to communicate effectively with people. Effective school leaders are particularly distinguished as communicators and have the skill and aptitude they need to interact well with others in any communication context. A study conducted by Marzano et al (2005) found that effective school leaders establish strong lines of two way communication throughout the school community. It is important for the school leader to ask questions, be truthful, and encourage feedback from members of the school community. This can effectively in the context of school meetings. Thus, of all the responsibilities that a

school leader must have, the job of organizing meetings for purposes of communication, is among the most important.

There are several different kinds of meetings in the school, including meetings with administration, group meetings among the students, and meetings with community members. The different types of meetings in the school can be held weekly, fortnightly, monthly or on some sort of schedule. These meetings are essential to keeping school members invested in the school as well as a way to organize events and achieve group goals. Each meeting should have a purpose and should involve all targeted members; but the key to having a successful meeting rests in the hands of a leader and requires time, effort, dedication, passion, and organization. A meeting can either work very efficiently or it can be a complete waste of time. More often than not this is determined by how well the meeting is organized. Organization starts with letting the other members know when and where the meeting is being held. The people or person in charge of leading a meeting should come up with an agenda and a list of topics prior to the meeting. This could very well be the most important part of organizing a meeting; if there is no agenda there is no way to know which direction the meeting will go. It is important to have one or multiple people taking notes during the meetings so that the group can look back later on to see what was said and also build consensus over the same (Schmoker, 2005).

Additional studies have further identified the major roles of effective school principals in decision making and building productive relationships with parents and the wider community through effective communication (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2004). To this end, the principal must interact with students, staff, and parents on a regular

basis. Research by McEwan (2003) found that successful school leaders communicate one hundred percent of the time by listening, speaking, writing, and reading. Such school leaders are depicted as skilled communicators with highly cognitive flexibility to listen carefully to other ideas, which they apply to their problem solving. School leaders also deal with continuous states of emotions from encounters with various members of the school community; irritated parents, excited students and rebellious staff are some of those encountered by the school leader on a daily basis. For instance, the school leader must know how to firmly communicate their academic and administrative decisions to parents who may not be co-operating or who lack the formal education necessary to comprehend and appreciate such decisions. Thus, the flow of communication in the school should reinforce the relationships between staff members, students, and parents.

Effective communication would help members of different groups feel that their work and input is meaningful and important to the progress of the school. With clear lines of communication, the school leader becomes more concerned with giving credit and recognition for the diligent efforts of all. Through an environment of openness, mutual confidence, and co-operation, principals become peer reviewers of the development of school programs (Pashiordis, 2007). In any communication process, two elements will be received: content and context. Context is the way the message is delivered and is known as paralanguage. Duff et al (2007) argue that although verbal communication is the most preferred form of communication, it is the nonverbal elements in speech such as the tone of voice, the look in the sender's eyes, body language, hand gestures, and state of emotions that are mostly the point of focus as one communicates. Although paralanguage or context often causes messages to be

misunderstood, they are powerful communicators that help us to understand each other. Some leaders think they have communicated once they have told someone to do something. However, sometimes things remain undone because one did not understand the message. A message has not been communicated unless it is understood by the receiver (decoded). Therefore, leaders should strive to always match their nonverbal cues to their words; when they do so, they are more believable and trustworthy.

Content is the actual words or symbols of the message that is known as language. We all use and interpret the meanings of words differently, so even simple messages can be. misunderstood. Further, many words have different meanings to confuse the issue even more. In addition to understanding the different mediums available for communication, it is essential that leaders and are able to communicate effectively in terms of content (Kuhn, & Weinberger, 2005). Thus, not only must student leaders reach the other students, but they must present information in a way that positively impacts the school activities. It is important for student leaders to use skills in communication to create dialogue with the other students and to ensure that they are communicating in a way that makes participants feel safe and free to open and have real talks about extremely personal issues. The leaders should make sure that no one feels it is not okay to be open about any topics and that such meetings is a safe environment to have such talks.

Effective communication skills play an important part in managing conflicts of interest and dealing with a range of challenges and situations in a school setting, though such effective communication skills do not come naturally for most people.

Many people, including school leaders, need to practice repeatedly in order to improve their communication skills. In addition to practicing, school leaders should consider training that will help them communicate effectively. However, as Lobdell (2007) also points out, perfect communication is almost impossible to achieve because it depends on so many variables. Therefore, communication is something that doesn't always happen as intended. Sometimes, this is due to a lack of time, a lack of resources, a lack of knowing how to get the point across or a language barrier between the people communicating.

For instance, the effectiveness of a message depends in part on the level of credibility that the receiver attributes to the sender. Source or sender credibility consists of the trust and confidence that the receiver has in the words and actions of the communicator. The level of credibility, in turn, influences the reactions of the receiver to the words and actions of the sender. In some cases, the identity, reputation, and self - confidence of the source, far from authenticating the message, leads instead to the receiver's distorting the information or ignoring the message completely. For example, Mulford (2003) observes that students who view the headteacher as dishonest, manipulative or lacking in confidence probably will distort or ignore all communications from that source; whereas communication from a fellow student in a leadership position may enhance the level of acceptability of the message. Confidence in what one is communicating is also very essential. If the communicator appears confident, others are more likely to agree to the information or message given. Conversely, the less confident one appears in their own message, the more objections they are likely to meet.

Communication style should also be adapted depending on ones audience. Leaders should identify the audience and their characteristics and interests, then adjust their communication style based on what the audience needs and what will encourage them to react to meet the goals of the communication. For instance, when speaking to teachers, a much more directive style will be used than when delivering a presentation to the students. When speaking, leaders should consider whether they would want their students to speak in the same way to the same audience. If not, the leader should adjust their communication style (Fletcher, 2009).

An important aspect of communication is the ability to listen. Active listening should always be a goal, with the leader focusing on both the verbal and nonverbal language of the speaker. Active listening involves concentrating only on the speaker and ignoring outside interruptions, including the listener's own wandering thoughts or possible responses. Active listeners also refrain from interrupting, give the speaker time to finish, show they are listening by doing things like nodding or smiling, and reflect or paraphrase back to verify their understanding. Nyabisi (2012) supports this by emphasizing that effective communication is a two-way process. When one listens, they learn more than when they are speaking. Additionally, people do not open up to those they consider poor listeners. Therefore, giving full attention to what the other party is saying, and not just thinking about what one wants to say next, is key to achieving effective communication. It is also important to seek clarification and explanation, especially when the tone of the speaker is somewhat critical.

One can only know that a message has been understood by two-way communication or feedback. Feedback is a very critical component of the communication process.

Feedback tells the sender that the receiver understood the message, its level of importance, and what must be done with it. Appropriate feedback enables the person communicating to gauge the clarity of message, the quality of message and audience response. If the feedback given is honest, the communicator should not take any criticism personally (Mistry et al, 2008). To achieve effective communication, it is important to establish trust and confidence, without which the` message may be lost or, worse, ignored. The purpose of feedback is to alter messages so the intention of the original communicator is understood by the second communicator. It includes verbal and nonverbal responses to another person's message. Providing feedback may be accomplished by paraphrasing the words of the sender.

According to Duff et al (2007), a leader can encourage feedback by telling subordinates that they want feedback. The leader should encourage subordinates to give them both good and bad news. The leader should also welcome disagreement on issues, and ensure they positively reinforce rather than punish subordinates for such divergent information. The leader should also identify areas in which they want feedback. Indiscriminate feedback should not be encouraged as this may consist of idle talk or personal complaints about others in the organization. Feedback should be on issues and areas that can help the organization. The leader should also consider scheduling feedback sessions. A planned feedback session will usually get more response than an impulsive fishing for feedback. In a school setting, this can be done by scheduling regular meetings with the students or their representatives to receive feedback.

To encourage positive feedback, the leader should also practice effective listening. Effective listening requires physical and mental preparation. This means putting aside anything distractive and avoiding unnecessary interruptions. A school leader should often communicate one-on-one with key persons in the school, especially the students. The leader should show genuine interest and concern with facial expression, head nods, gestures, and bodily posture which reflect openness and positive reinforcement. The leader should also be genuine in their communication, because genuineness and sincerity are foundations for effective two-way communication. The leader should also respect the other person's point of view (Mistry et al, 2008).

A lack of comfort in communicating with others is an inhibitor to effective communication in almost any domain. Research in the area of communication has isolated a personal characteristic called communication apprehension (CA) that mostly inhibits effective communication. Baldwin et al (2013) defines communication apprehension as an individual’s level of fear or anxiety with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons. People higher in CA are more likely to experience anxiety when required to communicate. Such people tend to avoid situations demanding communication, and they engage in less oral communication when situations where they have to communicate are unavoidable.

One of the main consequences of CA is that it takes away a person’s willingness to engage with others in communication on critical interpersonal levels. For example, even if individuals with higher CA know that effective communication is a critical success factor, they may still subtly choose to opt out of the communication process whenever they can. A study by Baldwin et al (2013) revealed that students with

higher CA had a lower percentage of “air time” or talking time in a leaderless group discussion and that CA negatively influenced the demonstration of critical thinking skills. More specifically, individuals with higher CA would be less likely to take the lead or assign tasks or roles to people in a group. For a leader to effectively direct and control others, they must demonstrate a considerable level of adaptability. As defined by Oswald et al (2004), adaptability, is the ability to effectively adjust to a changing environment and deal well, and possibly guide others in dealing with with expected or unexpected changes. Such changes necessitate increased communication to respond to new demands and to direct others in establishing new routines.

Hsu (2004) points out that individuals with higher CA may not adapt as well to situations requiring them to communicate more, especially if this communication involves people with whom they are unfamiliar. Since those with higher CA tend to communicate less with others, they may not be as effective in adjusting to new settings or meeting and interacting with new people. Communication apprehension may also cause individuals to perceive changes as a threat and respond with a flight or fight mentality if they realize the change will require them to increase their communication with others or develop new relationships. In addition, they may feel that they have less control in the change process if they are not as likely to make suggestions, ask questions, or offer constructive criticism

Communication apprehension may also influence academic achievement and learning (Oswald et al, 2004). This is because students with higher CA are less likely to ask questions or participate in class exercises, consequently leading to these students being labeled as less capable by teachers and their peers. Such students may

internalize these feelings of inadequacy in the classroom and the result could be that students with higher CA eventually become less engaged in educational activities and have lower academic achievement. In addition, students with higher CA may also be less inclined to work with classmates on group assignments or when studying for exams, which could negatively influence academic outcomes. In today's more contemporary classrooms, where most teachers assign high scores to group projects and presentations, CA may be even more important in determining academic performance.

Duff et al (2007) emphasize the need for educators to realize that simply offering communication classes or skills training may have a limited effect in reducing CA. Thus, communication training may also need to focus directly on reducing CA. Exposure, practice, and success in leading colleagues for diverse school activities can lay the groundwork for choosing to practice, rather than opting out of, these communication opportunities. To this end, rotation of student leadership opportunities could be factored into the student leadership processes of the school. This could provide the opportunity to individuals with higher CA who normally might not speak out much in team meetings to do so because they have been assigned the role of leading a team meeting. In addition, assertiveness training may be appropriate to encourage students to overcome CA. Baldwin et al (2013) reinforce this argument by pointing out that assertiveness training focuses on encouraging individuals to communicate the full range of their thoughts and emotions, including opinions and feelings, with confidence. School leaders' insistence on listening to the student's feedback and reflect on their decisions either through direct communication or suggestion boxes made for any complaint or proposal would make school leadership

very successful. School leaders should be able to reach into the minds and hearts of the students with their display of justice, respect, trust for all and open and effective communication.

The report of the task force on student discipline and unrest in secondary schools (GOK, 2001) reveals that there exists lack of clear channels of communication between the headteacher and other education stakeholders, especially the students. The report also indicates that there are cases of major changes of school regulations that take place without due consultation and participation of students, who are usually most affected by such changes. The taskforce further observed that lack of some degree of freedom of expression of opinions may build up pressure and create situations where students may have no way of expressing their frustrations, thus leading to disruptive behaviour. This is a clear indication that school administrators should explore mechanisms for enhancing communication in their schools. School administrators should also realize that students will look to them as a model of how they should behave and communicate to each other. Students tend to emulate how they see leaders acting and communicating. If students see a leader using an active listening style and a participatory approach with members of the school community, they are more likely to do the same. When leaders are open to the ideas of others, students will tend to follow suit.

### 2.8 Summary of Literature Review and Gap Therein

School effectiveness research has drawn attention to the importance of school leadership as a key characteristic of effective schools (Huddleston, 2007; Singh & Manser, 2008; Jones, 2003; Lindell & Whitney, 2002). Research has also shown that

school leaders improve overall school effectiveness indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on motivation, commitment and working conditions of other members of the school (Reynolds, 2000; Waters & Marzano, 2006; Langer, 2004; Elmore, 2000). However, much of the research reviewed on educational leadership has mostly focused on the role of the school principal or headteacher in enhancing school effectiveness (Dempster, 2002; Draper & McMichael, 2003; Leithwood et al, 2006; Jackson, 2008; Cohen, 2014). To fill this gap, this study focused on the role of a different category of shool leaders, that is student leaders, in enhancing school effectiveness.

The literature review has also emphasized the need to involve other stakeholders in school leadership (Mulford, 2003, Spillane, 2006; Singh and Manser, 2008; Hay and Dempster, 2004). The review has further indicated that one key category of stakeholders that can be involved in school leadership so as to realize social integration in the school are the student leaders (Drago-Severson, 2004; Irvin and White, 2004; Ardent and Gregoire, 2006; Dempster and Lizzio, 2007; Huddleston, 2007; Arthur et al, 2008; Ghanem, 2012; Anderson and Lu, 2016). Several studies have also argued that student leadership should not be an end to itself, but a means to an end in enhancing school effectiveness (Street and Temperly, 2006; Fullan, 2006; Tschannen-Moran, 2004). However, the studies cited above on school effectiveness and student leadership have not clearly outlined the specific role that student leaders must play in order to create extraordinary school performance through enhancement of specific aspects of school effectiveness. The studies on student leadership have also not shown how the student leaders can model the behavior and attitudes that are expected of other students in relation to specific correlates of school effectiveness. To

fill this gap, this study explored the role of student leaders in enhancing school effectiveness with specific reference to the identified correlates of academic achievement, student discipline and effectiveness of communication. In data collection, statements were given to determine how student leaders can model the behaviour of other students with specific reference to these correlates.

The literature review on academic achievement as an an aspect of school effectiveness has emphasized that academic achievement is in most cases the golden standard by which school effectiveness is measured (Darling-Hammond et al, 2005; McKinley, 2005; Robertson and Miller, 2007; Reeves, 2007). However, most studies on students' academic achievement have mostly emphasized the quality of teacher, teacher efficiency, teacher qualification and the school climate as being significant in enhancing student academic achievement (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2004; Fullan, 2006; Shannon & Bylsma, 2007; Brock & Grady, 2007; Gimbert & Fultz, 2009; Cohen et al. 2009; Lezotte, 2010; Scheerens, 2013; Thapa et al, 2013). The studies on academic achievement have further emphasized the need for the involvement of other stakeholders in enhancing students academic performance, but have mostly focused on parental involvement (Christenson, 2004; Green et al, 2007; Houtenville & Hall, 2007; Arnold et al 2008; Spera et al 2009; Barge and Loges, 2011; Kim & Bey, 2011; Robinson & Harris, 2014). This means that there is very little empirical evidence on the involvement of students in enhancing their own academic achievement in schools, especially through student leadership; a gap that this study sought to fill.

The studies reviewed on student discipline have mainly centered on the importance of discipline as an aspect of school effectiveness; and have subsequently argued that

without discipline, the school goals cannot be achieved (Sushila, 2004; Kiprop, 2007; Magableh and Hawamdeh, 2007; Kibet et al, 2012; Nyabisi, 2012) Further, the studies have shown that schools generally operate in the context of lack of student discipline as manifested in the constant infringement on school rules and regulations and the sporadic but recurrent episodes of student unrest in schools, especially in Kenya (Birgen, 2007; Sithole, 2008; Gamage et al, 2009; GOK, 2008; UNICEF, 2009; Nakpodia, 2010; Kiplagat and Oruko, 2015). The review of literature has also explored studies that have suggested several methods of dealing with student discipline in schools; both punitive and normative (Chen, 2005; Bates, 2006; Joubert and Serakwa, 2009; Kivulu and Wandai, 2009; Ajowi and Simatwa, 2010; Muola and Ireri, 2010; Kimani et al, 2012; Simatwa, 2012; GOK, 2008). Although one of the normative methods of instilling discipline that has been suggested by these studies is the involvement of student leaders in the management of student discipline, the studies reviewed have not provided much information on the role of student leaders in the management of specific aspects of student discipline in schools. This study therefore attempted to fill this gap by collecing data to establish the role of student leaders in the management of specific aspects of studet discipline.

The studies reviewed on effectiveness of communication in schools have emphasized the need for effective communication and feedback in schools by establishing that effective communication is the life line that holds any institution together (Oswald et al, 2004; Lobdell, 2007; Mistry et al, 2008; Nyabisi, 2012; Scheerens, 2013). This means that effective communication should be at the centre of any school effcectiveness or improvement plans. The literature review on effective communication has further emphasized the significant role played by the school

leader, especially the school principal, in enhancing the effectiveness of communication in the school (McEwan, 2003; Blankstein, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2004; Gordon & Patterson, 2006; Creemers, & Kyriakides, 2012; Baldwin et al, 2013). Additionally, the literature reviwed on communication has established the communication content, communication contexts, and communication skills and competencies that have a significant bearing on the effectiveness of communication, especially in a school setup (Elmore, 2003; Hsu, 2004; Oswald et al, 2004; Marzano et al, 2005; Kuhn & Weinberger, 2005; Duff et al, 2007; Fletcher, 2009; Baldwin et al, 2013). However, just like the preceeding studies on students' academic achievement and student discipline, these studies have provided very little empirical evidence on how student leadership can be used to enhance the effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in schools; a gap that this study sought to fill.

It is also significant to note that a very high percentage of the reviewed studies that have explored the concepts of school effectiveness and educational leadership are from western industrialized countries, particularly Anglo-Saxon countries; as presented in the literature review. This means that very few studies have been carried out in Africa, especially in the Kenyan context, to provide an empirical basis for any argument on the relationship between educational leadership and school effectiveness. This study, conducted in Nakuru County, Kenya, sought to fill this gap and therefore provide an empirical foundation for arguments on the relationship between school leadership and school effectiveness in Kenya.

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## 3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the philosophical paradigm of the study, the research design and the area of study. The target population, sample and sampling procedures, and instruments of data collection are also presented. Finally, the data analysis tools and ethical considerations are discussed.

## 3.1 Philosophical Underpinning of the Study

Philosophical underpinnings of a study constitute philosophical paradigms which are opposing world views or belief systems that guide the decisions that researchers make in a study; especially on the kind of data collected, and how the data is analyzed and used (Creswell, 2009). Logical positivism is a philosophical underpinning often linked to quantitative research; where the researcher deduces and formulates variables and hypothesis to be tested based on existing theory. In this kind of research, the researcher believes that reality is stable and can be observed and described from an objective point of view. On the other hand, constructivism is a philosophy founded on the premise that by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in (Lee, 2013). Thus, constructivism is the generation of knowledge by asking peoples' opinions about the variables under study; and it mainly deals with collection and analysis of qualitative data.

However, since social science research is often multipurpose and involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data, a pragmatic philosophical approach allows the researcher to address questions that cannot be fully

answered by a wholly quantitative or qualitative approach to design and methodology. Pragmatists link the choice of approach directly to the nature of the research questions posed. This study adopted a pragmatic world view as its philosophical underpinning in order to investigate the relationship between student leadership and school effectiveness; from both the quantitative (logical positivism) and qualitative (constructivism) approaches. This pragmatic option allowed for the choice of a mixed methods approach to the study.

The mixed methods approach is an approach to research that combines both the qualitative and quantitative approaches in a way that best addresses the research questions (Sanghera, 2009). Whereas the quantitative approach is concerned with collecting and analyzing hard data in form of numbers to answer the questions 'how many' or 'how much', the qualitative approach collects and analyzes soft data in the form of words, so as to give descriptions and answer the questions 'how' and 'why' with regard to the study variables (Creswell, 2009). The mixed methods approach involves the concurrent use of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches so that the overall strengths of the two approaches are adequately exploited. The mixed method approach was used for this study based on the philosophical assumption that neither a totally quantitative (positivist) nor a totally qualitative (constructivism) approach would have been sufficient in answering questions to do with the relationship between student leadership and school effectiveness.

### 3.2 Research Design

The descriptive survey research design was used in the collection and analysis of data for this study. Creswell (2009) points out that the descriptive survey design is a

research design that describes variables as they exist; without attempting to establish a cause-effect relationship between the variables. Thus, descriptive surveys are concerned with describing, recording, analyzing and interpreting conditions that either exist or existed in a given study population. In the descriptive survey design, respondents answer the research questions through interviews and questionnaires; after which the researcher describes the responses given. The survey design has a strong preference for the use of large randomly selected samples because they provide the most accurate estimates of what is true in the study population. The descriptive survey design was adopted for this study so as to describe and analyze the variables of student leadership and selected correlates of school effectiveness as they exist in secondary schools in Nakuru County. Since a survey research is mainly descriptive in nature, the data collected was summarized in a way that provided the desired descriptive statistics. Using this design, the respondents were also able to report directly on their own thoughts and feelings about student leadership and the selected correlates of school effectiveness.

Although Creswell (2009) argues that the descriptive research design can only describe the data collected but cannot draw conclusions about the nature of the relationships that exists between the variables in the study; (Jackson, 2009) and Price et al (2018) point out that the survey design can still be used to test specific hypotheses and assess the statistical relationships between variables. Thus, using the survey design, inferential analysis of the data collected in this study was done so as to establish the relationship between student leadership and the selected correlates of school effectiveness.

### 3.3 Area of Study

This study was done in Nakuru County, which is one of the Forty Seven (47) counties in Kenya. Nakuru County has nine Sub – counties namely: Nakuru, Nakuru North, Rongai, Gilgil, Naivasha, Molo, Kuresoi, Njoro and Subukia. Nakuru County covers an area of approximately 2,350 square kilometers and has an approximate population of 1.6 million people. The climate in the region is mostly dry and humid with most areas, except for Molo and Kuresoi, experiencing unreliable rainfall. The main economic activities in the region are farming and tourism, with Lake Nakuru National Park and Naivasha Hells Gate being the major tourist attraction sites.

Nakuru county was chosen for this study because of its cosmopolitan population, which is also reflected in the schools in the County. Therefore, data generated from the schools in the county would be statistically significant in answering the research questions, and can easily be generalized to other counties in the country, with similar characteristics. As Kombo and Tromp (2006) argue, 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.

### 3.4 Target Population

Orodho (2005) defines the target population as 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 the headteachers, deputy headteachers and student leaders of public secondary schools in the nine Sub – counties of Nakuru County. As laid out in the Nakuru County

Education Office Returns (2014), the County had a total of 281 public secondary schools at the time of study. The target population for this research therefore comprised all the 281 headteachers, 281 deputy headteachers and student leaders of these secondary schools.

### 3.5 Sample and Sampling Procedures

A sample, as defined by Amin (2005) is a small group of elements drawn through a definite procedure from a specified population so as to be studied. The minimum number of subjects acceptable for a study depends on the type of research involved and the nature of the target population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003). A sampling technique on the other hand, is a plan specifying how subjects are drawn from the target population, to constitute the sample (Gay and Airasian, 2003). This study adopted a multi-stage sampling approach, where both stratified, simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used. In the first stage of sampling, a sampling frame consisting of a list of all the 281 secondary schools in the nine Sub-counties was made and schools in each of the Sub - county were stratified into three categories; Boys, Girls and Mixed school. Schools were then randomly selected from each stratum in each Sub - county to proportionately make up the 162 schools required for the study; as per the recommended sample size by Krejcie & Morgan (1970). The schools were put into the categories of Boys, Girls, and Mixed schools; so as to assess the targeted respondents across these three types of schools.

In the second stage of sampling, in order to get a representative number of respondents from the 162 schools selected in the first stage of sampling, simple random sampling was used to pick 113 headteachers and 113 deputy headteachers

from the sampled schools. One student leader from each of the sampled 113 schools was also included in the study for purposes of triangulation. The inclusion of the student leader was done using purposive sampling since from all of the sampled schools, only the student leaders chairperson / presidents were involved in the study. The second stage of sampling also adopted the recommended sample size by Krejcie & Morgan (1970). A total sample size of 339 respondents was btained after the second stage of sampling as shown in table 3.1.

**Table 3.1 Target Population and Sample Size**

| **Category** | **Target Population** | **Sample Size** |
|---|---|---|
| Headteachers | 281 | 113 |
| Deputy Headteachers | 281 | 113 |
| Student Leaders (Presidents) | 281 | 113 |
| **Total** | **843** | **339** |

### 3.6 Research Instruments

Since this study adopted a mixed methods approach, both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were used so as to provide a richer base for data analysis. The main data collection instruments used were questionnaires and interviews.

#### 3.6.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is an instrument used to gather data, and it consists of a number of questions in a definite order on a form or set of forms (Orodho, 2005). Questionnaires were used to collect data in this study because as Kombo and Tromp (2006) advice,

each item in the questionnaire can be constructed to address a specific research objective, or hypothesis. Two questionnaires were developed for this study, one for the deputy headteachers and one for a student leader from each of the targeted schools. A different questionnaire was used for the deputy headteachers and the student leaders so that responses from these two categories of respondents could be compared in the data analysis. The questionnaires used were semi-structured, thus containing both open-ended and closed-ended questions; so as to yield both quantitative and qualitative data. Both questionnaires were self – administered and were used to collect data to answer all the four research objectives.

### 3.6.2 Individual Interviews

Interviews were used as the second method of data collection in this study, for purposes of triangulation. An interview, as defined by Kothari (2003), is a face-to-face encounter between the researcher and the respondent for purposes of data collection. Interviews were used in this study since they have the key advantage of providing in-depth data that is not possible to get using questionnaires alone. For this study, an interview schedule was drawn up and administered in face-to-face individual interviews with the sampled headteachers. The interview schedule was used to collect data from the headteachers because the other respondents, especially the students, may not have been willing to talk openly about the issues under study in a face to face interview with the researcher. Such respondents would be more willing to give the same information anonymously through the questionnaires. The interviews were used to collect qualitative data to complement the data collected using questionnnnaires for each of the research objectives.

### 3.7 Validity of the Research Instruments

Validity is concerned with the degree to which the research instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. This in turn determines the extent to which results obtained from the analysis of data actually represents the phenomena under study (Amin, 2005). If the data collected is accurate, then inferences based on such data will also be accurate and meaningful. To validate the research instruments for this study, experts in the fields of education and research were consulted. These included the study supervisors and research experts who assisted in reorganizing the prepared research instruments so as to ensure the content validity of the instruments. This consultation was done considering that the content validity of an instrument is not statistically measurable. The study supervisors helped in checking the relevance of the questions contained in the questionnaires and the interview schedules with regard to how they addressed the study objctives.

### 3.8 Reliability of the Research Instruments

Reliability implies the dependability or trustworthiness of the research instrument to consistently yield the same data under similar conditions. Best & Kahn (2003) define reliability as the degree to which an instrument consistently measures what it is supposed to measure. The reliability of the research instruments for this study was tested through a pilot study which was conducted in 10 schools in the neighbouring Baringo County, thus, using respondents who were sampled during the main study. The pilot test was conducted one month before the actual data collection; and only schools immediately bordering Nakuru county were used to try and maintain he cosmopolitan aspect of the schools. The test-retest technique was used in determining the reliability of the instrument. The research instrument was administered twice to

the same group of subjects with a two-week time lapse between the first and second test. The results of the two tests were subjected to a correlation, and a correlation coefficient (r) value of 0.79 was obtained after the two tests. The research instrument was therefore considered reliable.

### 3.9 Data Collection Procedures

An introductory letter was obtained from Moi University and was used to aply for a permit to conduct research from the National Council for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The research permit from NACOSTI was presented to the headteachers of the sampled schools so as to allow the researcher access to the schools for purposes of administering the research instruments. The questionnaires used to collect data were self-administered. The 'drop and pick' technique was used whereby the questionnaires were taken to the schools, left with the respondents, and then picked after one week. The headteachers' interview schedule was administered to individual headteachers in a face-to-face interview at the time of collecting the filled in questionnaires from the schools. The responses from the headteachers were recorded for ease of transposition and analysis.

### 3.10 Data Analysis

The data collected in this study was analyzed based on the research questions and research hypotheses. This was done after the data had been edited, coded, classified and tabulated so as to make it amiable to analysis. Using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) version 22, the analysis of the quantitative data was first done using descriptive statistics and presented in the form of tables of frequencies and

percentages. Descriptive statistics were used because they permitted the researcher to describe many scores, using a small number of indices.

The quantitative data was also analyzed using inferential statistics. Specifically, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the variables under study. Using the Pearson Correlation, a linear relationship was established between student leadership and each of the selected correlates of school effectiveness . The correlation coefficients (r) provide an idea of the extent of the linear association between the independent variable (student leadership) and each of the dependentvariables (correlates of school effectiveness). On the other hand, the qualitative data collected from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the interview schedule was analyzed thematically. A thematic content analysis of the responses was done and key themes were derived for the responses given under each research objective. This involved sorting and classification of related themes emerging from the qualitative responses. A qualitative report based on these themes was then generated and the data presented in the form of continuous prose narratives and 'voices' within the research report. This analysis of data formed the basis of the data presentation, discussions and interpretation.

### 3.11 Ethical Considerations

Several ethical considerations were underscored in order to protect the rights of the respondents and the researcher in the process of conducting this study. First, permission to conduct the study was obtained from the National Council for Science and Technology in the form of a research permit after clearance by Moi University. The respondents were also assured of the confidentiality of the information given, and

were informed that the information would not be used for any other reason, other than the study. Further, anonymity of the respondents was maintained by ensuring that the respondents did not indicate their names on the questionnaire. Those interviewed were also assured that their names would not be divulged. Further, the respondents were informed of the nature and purpose of the research and the expected usefulness of the findings, so as to secure their consent to participate in the research. Therefore, the respondent's participation in the study was voluntary, free of any coercion or promises of benefits resulting from their participation.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# DATA PRESENTATION ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

## 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of data based on the objectives of the study. The data is analyzed and presented under subtopics that are derived from the study objectives. The response rate, and the demographical information relating to the nature of student leadership in schools is first presented , before the analysis of data relating to each of the study objectives.

## 4.1 Response Rate

A total of 226 questionnaires were given out to the two sets of respondents: 113 Deputy Headteachers and 113 student leaders. Out of these, 91 validly filled questionnaires were collected from the Deputy Headteachers, while 96 validly filled questionnaires were collected from the student leaders. The information on the response rate is as summarized in Table 4.1

**Table 4.1 Response Rate**

| Respondents | Total Sample | Response Rate | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Deputy Headteachers | 113 | 91 | 80.53 |
| Student Leaders | 113 | 96 | 84.96 |
| Total | 226 | 187 | 82.74 |

Table 4.1 shows that the total number of validly filled questionnaires collected from the study sample and used for data analysis was 187, reflecting a response rate of 82.74%. Therefore, the total number of questionnaires not returned was 39, reflecting a non –response rate of 17.26%. The response rate of 82.74% was considered adequate in answering the research objectives.

## 4.2 Demographics

This section presents the demographic data for this study. The demographic data sought was on the type of student leadership in schools, student leadership effectiveness in presenting sudents' issues and training of student leaders. This was done in order to lay a basis for the assessment of the relationship between student leadership and the selected correlates of school effectiveness.

### 4.2.1 Type of Student Leadership in Schools

Both the deputy headteachers and the student leaders were required to identify the type of student leadership that exists in their school. This was important since student leadership research and policy identifies two distinct and conceptually different models of student leadership in schools; the appointed school prefects, and the elected Student Leaders Council (SLC) (UNICEF, 2009). The responses on the type of leadership in schools are as shown in figure 4.1.

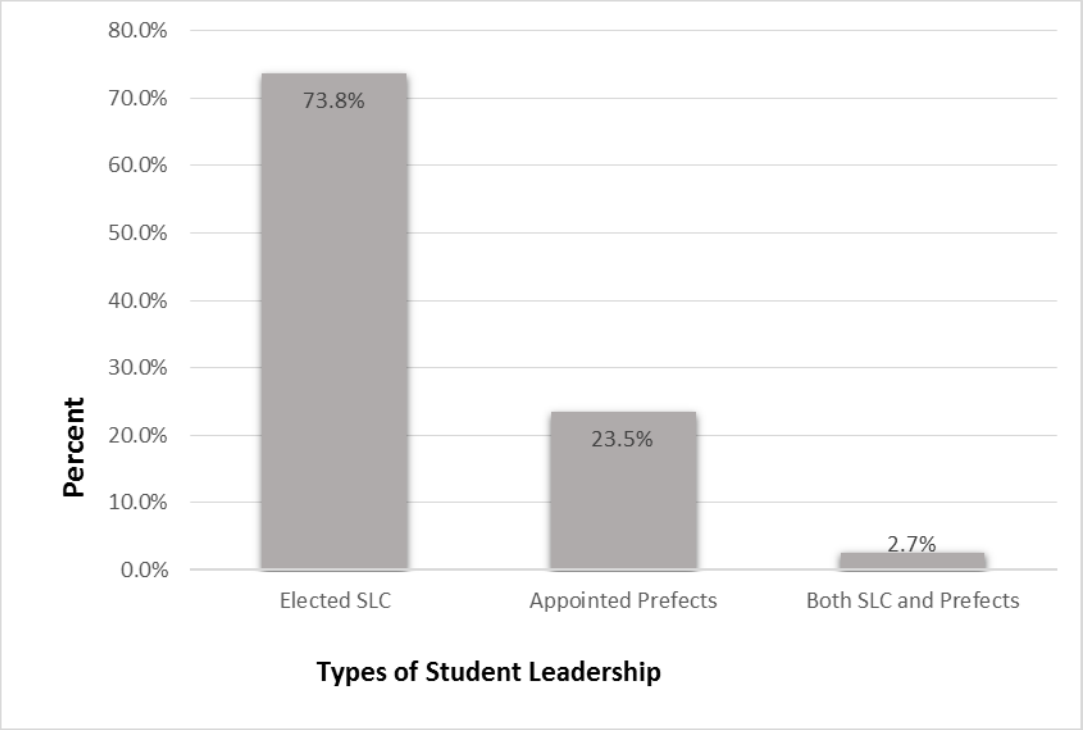


**Figure 4.1 Type of Student Leadership in Schools**

Figure 4.1 shows that overly, 138 respondents (73.8% ) identified the elected student leaders council as the type of leadership existing in their schools, while 44 respondents (23. 5%) identified an appointed prefect system of leadership as existing in their schools. The remaining 5 (2.7%) respondents pointed out that the system of student leadership in their school is one comprising of both elected and appointed student leaders. These findings imply that to a great extent, secondary schools in Kenya have adopted an elected system of student leadership (Student Leaders Council), which is supposed to offer a viable platform for students to participate in school leadership, as advocated by UNICEF (2009).

The findings further reflect those of another report by UNICEF (2011) that showed that a reasonable proportion of schools have heeded the call for schools to adopt the

student council system of leadership. The report revealed that establishment of elected student councils had moved from 11 per cent in 2008 to 34 per cent in 2011. At the same time, elected but vetted councils had increased from 39 per cent in 2008 to 43 per cent in 2011; giving a cumulative percentage of 77% for schools that had adopted the Student Leaders Councils. The report further notes that students in schools with prefect system said they wanted involvement of students in selection of their leaders; and this same emphasis should be placed in all schools represented by the 23.5% of schools in this study that still have appointed prefects as student leaders.

These findings are evidence that an elected student leadership is preffered over an appointed student leadership in most schools. As argued by Oyaro (2005) students see appointed prefects as part of the autocratic system that suppresses them and as such they despise and loathe them. Arthur et al (2008) also emphasize that elected SLCs are an essential feature of a school that promotes active student leadership and democracy. This is because 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. SLCs in schools also resonate with Fulmer's (2006) assertion that schools should be more flexible in adapting appropriate leadership styles with the creation of collaborative working environments with higher levels of commitment, motivation and ownership from all members of the school community.

### 4.2.2 Student Leadership Effectiveness in Presenting Students' Issues

The deputy headteachers were further asked to respond as to whether the existing student leadership in their schools was effective or not effective in presenting

student's issues to the school administration. This was important since the review of literature indicates that the two models of student leadership are not equal as far as student representation is concerned. The responses to this question are as shown in figure 4.2

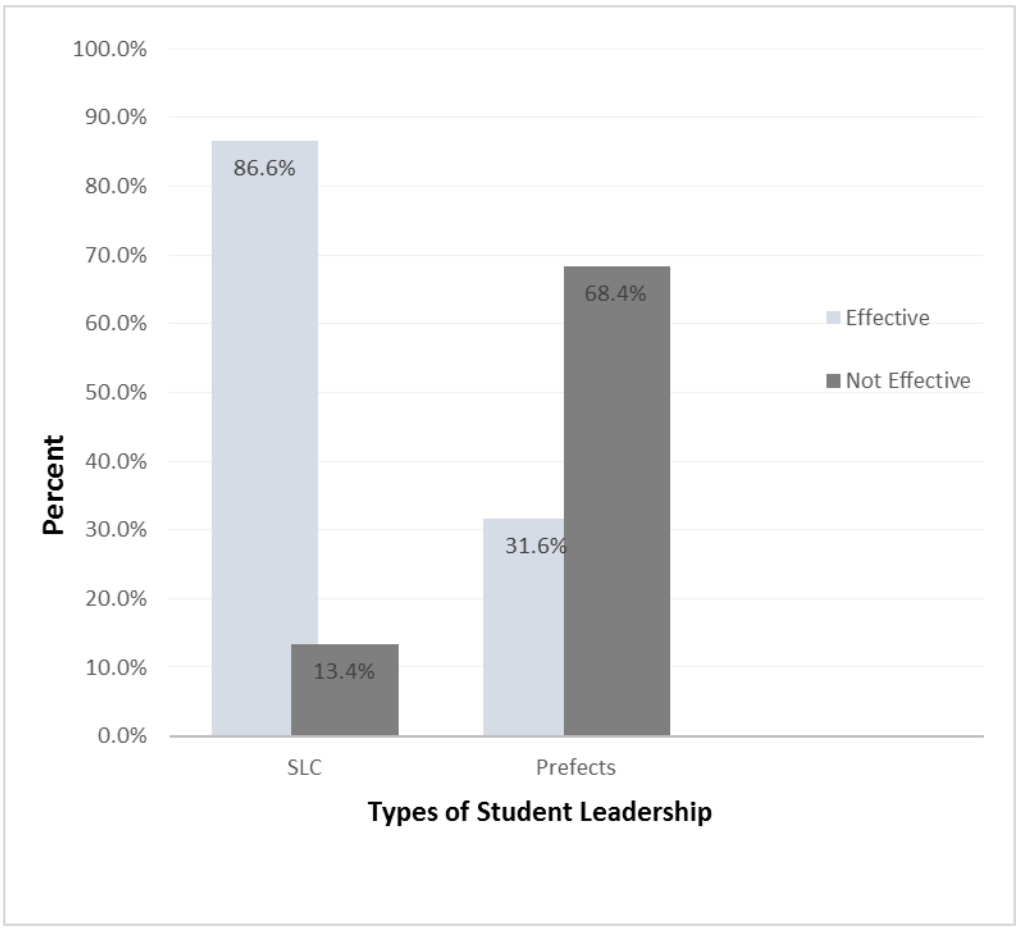


**Figure 4.2 Student Leadership Effectiveness in Presenting Students' Issues**

Of the 67 deputy headteachers who had identified the SLC as the existing mode of student leadership in their schools, 58 (86.6%) reported that the SLC was effective in presenting students issues to the administration, with only 9 (13.4%) indicating that the SLC was not effective in presenting students issues to the administration. On the other hand, out of the 19 deputy headteachers who had identified the appointed

prefect system as the prevailing mode of student leadership in their schools, only 6 (31.6%) reported that it was effective, while the remaining 13 (68. 4%) felt that the appointed prefect system was not effective at presenting students issues to the school administration. These findings are a very strong indication that by comparison, the elected SLC system of student leadership is a more effective system of representation for the students than the appointed prefect system. This is because through the SLC, students are fully involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that their schools operate on.

These findings echo the observation by Gatt (2005) who also agrees that in schools where SLCs have been adopted as the prevailing system of student leadership, they are considered a more effective way of finding out what the students think, and also listening to what the students have to say. The findings further reflect those of Lansdown (2003) whose study in Australia pointed out that the involvement of students as participants in their school led to greater enjoyment, efficiency and more effectiveness, whether in relation to projects that focused on issues of specific concern to the students or within processes of development in the wider community.

The minority of respondents (13.4%) who still feel that the SLC not effective in representing students' issues to the administration reflect Sayeed's (2002) findings of a study carried out in rural secondary schools in South Africa on the Role of Student Leadership in School Governance. The study reported that some educators feel that too much student involvement in school governance violates their sense of professionalism; and are therefore resistant to collaborate with student leaders in addressing student issues. The study further found out that though it is difficult to

dispute the benefits that student leadership can have for students' school experience, some educators often hold the student leaders at arm's length, unsure of the role that the student leaders should play. This is similar to the findings of a study by Ryan and Rottman (2009) on the Participation of Students in Democratic Governance which found out that some school principals maintain that the levels of student involvement in school governance should be limited, prescribed and exercised at the discretion of the school administration.

### 4.2.3 Training of Student Leaders

The student leaders were asked to state whether they had received any leadership training since being elected or appointed as student leaders. This was important because the literature review on student leadership emphasizes the need for student leaders to be formally trained so as to be able to effectively carry out their leadership roles in the school. The responses are as presented in figure 4.3.

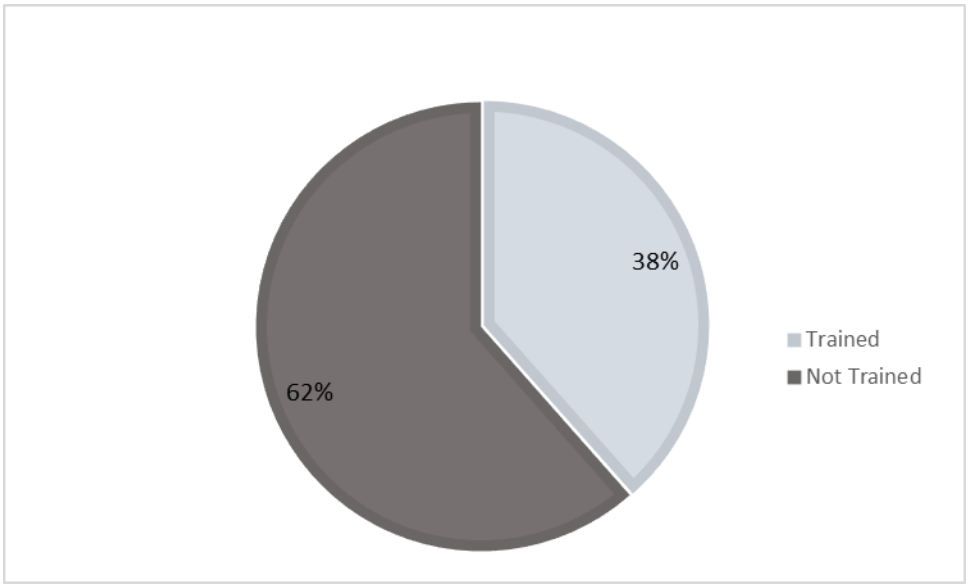


**Figure 4.3 Responses on Training of Student Leaders**

The data in figure 4.3 show that the number of student leaders who had received leadership training (38%) was lower than the number of student leaders who had not received any leadership training (62%). These findings are a pointer to the need that still exists for student leaders to be trained in various leadership aspects so as to be well equipped to handle their leadership roles and responsibilities.

As Lindell and Whitney (2002) observe, without leadership training, most student leaders would be unprepared for school leadership and the conflicts they will most definitely experience with their colleagues and school policies. This makes it imperative for the student leaders to be trained so as to acquire the necessary skills needed to be effective in school leadership responsibilities. Arthur et al (2008) also emphasize that with training in, and exposure to, the appropriateness of different leadership skills and requirements, student leaders can expand their knowledge and become more effective in participating in school leadership. The report by UNICEF (2011) also shows that students in schools with both the prefect and SLC modes of student leadership wanted sensitisation of student leaders on good relations with fellow students through training. The students also want the student leaders to be trained on student-centered leadership, and involvement of student leaders in maintaining school policies.

The student leaders who had received leadership training specified that they had been trained on several skill areas. These were: how to conduct themselves well and interact with other students and teachers, how to solve disputes amicably and peacefully in the school and later in life, and how to enforce rules and regulations in the school. Other skill areas in which the student leaders had been trained included

effective communication and mobilization skills. This echoes Kyungu's (2009) emphasis that the school management and administration should develop a Student Leaders Training Manual that covers all areas of interest dealing with student leadership. This training would provide the student leaders with knowledge, skills and resources that they need to become active and engaged leaders in their schools and communities.

### 4.3 Relationship between Student Leadership and Acquisition of Leadership Skills

The first objective of this study was to determine the relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools in Kenya . The respondents were required to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statemnents on the skills acquired by student leaders as a result of their leadership responsibilities. The responses are as presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2 Student Leadership and Acquisition of Leadership Skills**

| Statement | Respondents | A | | D | | U | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | f | % | f | % | f | % | f | % |
| | Deputy | 77 | | 2 | | 12 | | 91 | |
| | Students | 41.2 | | 1.1 | | 6.4 | | 48.7 | |
| | **Total** | 88 | | 5 | | 3 | | 96 | |
| | | 47.1 | | 2.7 | | 1.5 | | 51.3 | |
| | Deputy | **165** | | **7** | | **15** | | **187** | |
| | Students | **88.2** | | **3.8** | | **8.0** | | **100** | |
| | **Total** | | | | | | | | |
| Student leadership enables student leaders | | 67 | | 11 | | 14 | | 91 | |
| appreciate individual differences | Deputy | 35.8 | | 5.4 | | 7.5 | | 48.7 | |
| | Students | 93 | | 1 | | 2 | | 96 | |
| | **Total** | 49.7 | | 0.5 | | 1.1 | | 51.3 | |
| Through student leadership, student | | **160** | | **12** | | **16** | | **187** | |
| leaders are able to mentor and inspire | Deputy | **85.5** | | **5.9** | | **8.6** | | **100** | |
| other students | Students | | | | | | | | |
| | **Total** | 71 | | 7 | | 13 | | 91 | |
| | | 37.9 | | 3.8 | | 7.0 | | 48.7 | |
| Through student leadership, student | Deputy | 88 | | 4 | | 4 | | 96 | |
| leaders acquire the ability to direct and | Students | 47.1 | | 2.1 | | 2.1 | | 51.3 | |
| control | Total | **159** | | **11** | | **17** | | **187** | |
| | | **85.0** | | **5.9** | | **9.1** | | **100** | |
| Student leadership teaches student leaders | | 67 | | 5 | | 19 | 10.2 | 91 | |
| how to exercise fairness | | 35.8 | | 2.7 | | 1 | 0.5 | 48.7 | |
| | | 94 | | 1 | | **20** | **10.7** | 96 | |
| | | 50.3 | | 0.5 | | | | 51.3 | |
| Through student leadership, student | | **161** | | **6** | | 14 | 7.5 | **187** | |
| leaders become more self-confident | | **86.1** | | **3.2** | | 0 | 0.0 | **100** | |
| | | | | | | **14** | **7.5** | | |
| | | 67 | | 10 | | | | 91 | |
| | | 35.8 | | 5.4 | | | | 48.7 | |
| | | 96 | | 0 | | | | 96 | |
| | | 51.3 | | 0.0 | | | | 51.3 | |
| | | **163** | | **10** | | | | **187** | |
| | | **87.1** | | **5.4** | | | | **100** | |

**Key**

**A** – Agree; **D** – Disagree; **U** – Undecided

The data on Table 4.2 shows that a total of 88.2 % of the respondents agreed that student leaders had acquired the value of appreciation of individual differences as a result of their student leadership responsibilities. Only 3.8% disagreed that student leaders had acquired the value of appreciation of individual differences as a result of their leadership responsibilities, while 8.0% were undecided. These findings are indicative of the important role played by student leadership of enabling students to peacefully co-exist, despite coming from different social background.

These findings are especially important in light of the observation by Jones (2003) that schools are mosaics that reflect a wide diversity of a country's population, and students' varied backgrounds should be viewed as assets, not deficiencies. Contrary to this, Riojas and Flores (2007) observe that sadly, students' differences in culture, language and socio – economic backgrounds are often viewed from a negative perspective. Consequently, a key role of student leaders is to use these differences to establish a common culture of openness, respect and appreciation of individual differences. Riojas and Flores (2007) also underscore the importance of students in the school being made to live through a shared body of common values that is unique to their school. It is therefore important for student leaders to be open-minded and flexible about the individual differences that exist in the school. Accommodating differences of opinions from others leads to better decisions and action by the leader. This quality goes back to being a good listener. An effective student leader sometimes needs to step back and just listen – to the complaints or the satisfactions of the other students, iregardless of theirdifferences in opinion. Boykin et al (2005) also argue for multicultural appreciation which includes showing openness, tolerance, and interest in a diversity of individuals in one's environment. For individuals to learn to appreciate

other cultures, it requires some interaction with others from different cultural backgrounds.

On the ability to mentor and inspire others, the data on table 4.2 shows that a total of 85.5% of the respondents agreed that student leaders were able to mentor and inspire other students as a result of their leadership roles. On the other hand, only 5.9% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders had acquired the ability to inspire others as a result of their leadership; while the remaining 8.6% were undecided.

These findings indicate that through student leadership, student leaders can, and do, acquire the ability to inspire other students who view them as role models. The findings reflect the observation by Sankar (2003) and Rintoul (2010) who point out that the moral judgement 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 judgement and leadership. This means that in a school where moral judgement exists, the leaders, including student leaders, are able to guide other members of the school community on the acceptable moral fiber through deliberate role modeling and mentorship. (Dugan, 2006) further observes that to inspire and mentor others, a leader must stay authentic**.** Student leaders who are authentic are trusted because they stay true to the values they believe in and are unwavering, especially when faced with the challenges of popular opinion. When employed effectively, mentorship can also help students develop the kinds of relationships that are critical for genuine leadership that moves people into collective action. When peers mentor one another, they develop respect for each other's' judgment. Ackermann et al (2002) and Cohen and Tichy (2002) also emphasize that

mentors not only typically clarify responsibilities, concerns and perceptions, but they also protect others from mistakes that may taint their experiences and values.

As shown in Table 4.2, majority of the respondents (85.0%) also agreed that student leaders acquire the ability to direct and control others as a result of their leadership responsibilities. On the contrary, only 5.9% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders had acquired the ability to direct and control others as a result of their leadership responsibilities. The remaining 9.1% were undecided. This means that overly, the ability to control and direct others is also one of the skills acquired by student leaders as a result of their leadership responsibilities.

This ability to control and direct others is a critial skill for student leaders since as Achinstein (2006) stipulates, schools operate under edgy political environments, and educational leaders find themselves in a continually controversial arena and struggle to look for ways of balancing, directing, controlling, and surviving school politics. The student leaders must therefore acquire the necessary skills needed to balance, direct and control, so as to be effective in their leadership responsibilities. To be able to direct and control others, a student leader must have power and use that power wisely. Power is the ability to act, and the capacity to translate intention into reality and sustain it. Dugan (2006) points out that one way to have power is by feeling a strong sense of self-efficacy, that is, a strong belief that one can accomplish one's goals. The other way is to have relational power, that is, the ability to achieve one's goals through others. Thus, a successful student leader knows when to take the reins, and also when and how to allocate responsibility to those around them and be willing to go above and beyond to get it done.

Table 4.2 also shows that majority of the respondents (86.1%) agreed that student leaders had acquired the ability to exercise fairness as a result of their leadership responsibilities. In comparison, only 3.2% disagreed that student leaders had acquired the ability to exercise fairness; while 10.7% were undecided. This is an attestation that student leaders learn or acquire the ability to exercise fairness through their leadership responsibilities.

These findings resonate with the observation by Walker et al (2007) that one of the moral values emphasized under moral judgement and action that student leaders must acquire and interprete is fairness. Fairness is critical since it enables student leaders to gain understanding of responsible leadership and learn practices that can result in positive leadership to both the school and society. This idea of fairness in student leaders is supported by Sankar (2003) who argues that being consistent in how one treats others is an important way to build and maintain leadership trust. If someone breaks a rule, for example, they should receive the same consequence that anyone else would get for breaking the same rule. Thus, student leaders should not play favorites with their closer friends, and they should not let their personal feelings toward someone they don't like get in the way of working with them.

Similar to the rating of the other skills, self-confidence was rated as a skill acquired by students leaders. Majority of the respondents (87.1%) agreed that student leaders had acquired self-confidence through student leadership. In contrast, only 5.4% of the respondents disagreed with the statement, while 7.5% were undecided. This means that self-confidence is also one of the skills acquired by student leaders as a result of their leadership responsibilities.

Self confidence is an important skill for student leaders, since as Shertzer et al (2005) explain, self-confidence in a leader means that the leader is self-assured, without being overbearing. A self-confident leader instills confidence in team members since the leader's self-confidence can help others feel more certain that they too can overcome hurdles or achieve set goals. Further, self-confidence is a vital skill for the school leader, especially when it comes to effectiveness of communication. As Lobdell (2007) points out, the effectiveness of communication depends in part on the level of self-confidence of the source of the message. The receiver may end up distorting the information or ignoring the message completely based on the level of confidence of the person communicating. For example, students may accept communication if passed on by a fellow student in a leadership position, who confidently persuades the other students to accept and act on it.

Overly, the findings presented in Table 4.2 suggest that student leadership is instrumental in the acquisition of key leadership skills. This is important because to be able to affect the other correlates of school effectiveness, it is imperative for student leaders to acquire certain leadership skills. Students involved in leadership activities have enhanced leadership skills than students who are not involved in leadership. This argument was emphasized by one of the respondents who were interviewed thus:

> *Sometimes, the character and personality of students who are elected as leaders worry us… but after some little training and practicing of leadership for sometime, their transformation is impressive. These students become more confident, more outspoken, and they are even able to direct and mentor the other students. I think they just realize that once they become (student) leaders, they cannot be the same person they were previously.*

### 4.4 Correlation between Student Leadership and Acquisition of Leadership Skills

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was done to establish the statistical relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools in Kenya. The results of the correlation are as shown on Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3 Correlation between Student Leadership and Acquisition of Leadership Skills**

| | | Student Leadership | Acquisition of leadership skills |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .524** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| Leadership Skills | Pearson Correlation | .524** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |

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

N=187

From the correlation on Table 4.3, it can be inferred that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools (r=.524, *n*=187, p<.05). This means that student leadership positively influences the acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools. The r value presented on Table 4.3 represents the measure of variability in the dependent variable (acquisition of leadership skills) that is accounted for by the predictor (student leadership). From the table, the r value of .524 shows that the predictor (student leadership) accounts for 52.4.% variation in acquisition of leadership skills. This led to rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills in secondary schools in Kenya. This is an indication that student

leadership influences acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools.

### 4.5 Relationship between Student Leadership and Academic Achievement

The second objective of this study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya. This is because students' academic achievement is the golden standard measure of success in education in most developing countries, Kenya included. Consequently, improvement in students academic achievement is recognized as the foremost objective of school effectiveness reforms and planning efforts.

To establish the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools, the respondents were asked to rate several statements that sought to examine the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools. The findings are presented in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4 Student leadership and Academic Achievement**

| Statement | Category | A | | D | | U | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | f | % | f | % | f | % | f | % |
| Student leaders set standards of achievement for the other students | Deputy | 78 | | 7 | | 6 | 3.2 | 91 | |
| | Students | 41.7 | | 3.8 | | 7 | 3. | 48.7 | |
| | **Total** | 81 | | 8 | | 7 | | 96 | |
| | | 43.3 | | 4.3 | | **13** | **6.9** | 51.3 | |
| | Deputy | **159** | | **15** | | | | **187** | |
| | Students | **85.0** | | **8.1** | | 17 | | **100** | |
| | **Total** | | | | | 9.1 | | | |
| | | 47 | | 27 | | 10 | | 91 | |
| | Deputy | 25.2 | | 14.4 | | 5.3 | | 48.7 | |
| | Students | 63 | | 23 | | **27** | | 96 | |
| | **Total** | 33.7 | | 12.3 | | **14.4** | | 51.3 | |
| | | **110** | | **50** | | | | **187** | |
| Student leaders assist in monitoring the learning progress of other students | Deputy | **58.9** | | **26.7** | | 13 | 7.0 | **100** | |
| | Students | | | | | 3 | 1.6 | | |
| | **Total** | 62 | | 16 | | **16** | **8.6** | 91 | |
| | | 33.2 | | 8.5 | | | | 48.7 | |
| Student leaders reinforce the learning efforts of other students | Deputy | 79 | | 14 | | 16 | 8.6 | 96 | |
| | Students | 42.2 | | 7.5 | | 10 | 5.3 | 51.3 | |
| | Total | **141** | | **30** | | **26** | **13.9** | **187** | |
| | | **75.4** | | **16.0** | | | | **100** | |
| Student leaders monitor lesson attendance by other students | | | | | | 11 | 5.9 | | |
| | | 63 | | 12 | | 2 | 1.1 | 91 | |
| | | 33.7 | | 6.4 | | **13** | **7.0** | 48.7 | |
| | | 71 | | 15 | | | | 96 | |
| Student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students | | 38.0 | | 8.0 | | | | 51.3 | |
| | | **134** | | **27** | | | | **187** | |
| | | **71.7** | | **14.4** | | | | **100** | |
| | | 72 | | 8 | 4.2 | | | 91 | |
| | | 38.6 | | 4 | 2.2 | | | 48.7 | |
| | | 90 | | **12** | **6.4** | | | 96 | |
| | | 48.0 | | | | | | 51.3 | |
| | | **162** | **86.6** | | | | | **187** | |
| | | | | | | | | **100** | |

To test the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools, the respondents were first asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that student leaders set high standards of achievement for the other students in the school. As shown on Table 4.4, majority of the respondents (85.0%) agreed that student leaders set high standards of achievement for other students. However, only 8.1% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders set high standards of achievement for other students. The remaining 6.9% were undecided. These findings indicate that student leaders set high standards of academic achievement for other students.

The setting of high standards is important for students since as Waters and Marzano (2006) observe, if high standards of performance is set for students, then the impact on their academic achievement can be considerable. Setting of standards entails letting the students know what is expected of them and how to meet these expectations. Waters and Marzano (2006) further observe that if high standards of performance are set for students, the students are more aware of what is expected of them and are subsequently provided intellectually challenging lessons to correspond to these expectations that impact on their academic achievement. In addition, high expectations are more effective when they are part of a general culture which places demands on everyone in the school, so that, for example, the headteacher has high expectations for the performance and commitment of all of the teachers and students; the teachers have high expectations of the students; and the students, through their leaders, have high expectations of each other.

The respondents were also asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed that student leaders assist in monitoring the learning progress of other students. The data on table 4.4 shows that majority of the respondents (58.9%) agreed that student leaders assist in monitoring the learning progress of other students. However, a total of 26.7% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders assist in monitoring the learning progress of other students. The remaining 14.4% of the respondents were undecided about the statement. These findings are an indication that although student leaders assist in monitoring the learning progress of other students, there are still instances when this is not done as indicated by the total of 41.1% of the respondents who either disagreed or were undecided about the statement. This implies that secondary schools in Kenya have to some extent, put in place mechanisms for student leaders to monitor the learning progress of other students.

Monitoring of students' learning progress is an important aspect of academic achievement in effective schools; and these findings on monitoring of students' progress are similar to those of a study by Anderson and Lu (2016) in Chinese schools. The study reported that student leaders with several leadership responsibilities assist the teachers in carrying out and monitoring aspects of curriculum and extra-curricular delivery and programs. Lezotte (2010) further emphasizes that frequent and systematic monitoring of students' progress is an important ingredient of the work of an effective school since it is a mechanism for determining the extent to which the goals of the school are being realized, and it also gives a clear message to students that teachers and school leaders are interested in their progress. Additionally, Glatthorn et al (2006) emphasize the need for student leaders to be given opportunities to provide quality assessment and feedback to

classmates, teachers and amongst themselves in relation to the predetermined criteria or set targets. Such assessment embodies information that accurately reflects how well a student is achieving the curriculum expectations in any given subject. Therefore, as part of assessment for learning, student leaders should provide other students with descriptive feedback aimed at improvement, and not criticism. As observed by Chin (2007) students, through their leaders should engage in learning conversations and peer assessment to explain and question their own thinking and the knowledge passed on to them by their teachers. In this way, the students would effectively participate in the collection and development of plans that assist in informing the next steps in their learning.

To further determine the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement, the respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that student leaders positively encourage the learning efforts of other students. Data on Table 4.4 shows that most of the respondents (75.4%) of the respondents agreed that student leaders positively reinforce the learning efforts of other students. Another 16.0% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders positively reinforce the learning efforts of other students. The rest of the respondents (8.6%) were undecided. These findings imply that student leaders positively reinforce the learning efforts of other students.

The findings reflect the view by Waters and Marzano (2006) who identify reinforcing students' efforts as one of the strategies that have the potential to increase student learning and academic achievement. Reinforcement of students' efforts entails providing recognition for students who achieve learning targets and providing

encouragement for those students who have not met the set learning objectives. The findings of a study by Buch et al (2004) also suggest students perfomed better on a classroom project when they were forced to rely on one another for success rather than work independently. Duignan (2006) further notes that majority of the students express the greatest preference for lessons where they can work with their friends under their own leadership, and least preference for lessons where they work alone. This even helps to re-motivate and reinforce the learning efforts of bored and disaffected student who eventually change and even improve in their academic performance. Anderson and Lu (2016) also emphasize that student leaders motivate and encourage the learning efforts of other students by fulfilling their own academic responsibilities and increasing their own study efforts, especially in situations where they will be replaced if they underperform the rest of the class. The student leaders can also encourage the learning efforts of other students by advicing them on study skills, using library resources, essay writing, and other academic issues (Farrier, 2013).

The respondents were also required to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that student leaders ensure that other students attend their lessons. Data on table 4.4 indicates that majority of the respondents (71.7%) agreed that student leaders ensure other students attend lessons. In comparison, only 14.4% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders ensure other students attend their lessons. The rest of the respondents (13.9%) were undecided. These findings attest that in most cases, student leaders ensure that other students attend lessons. Attending of lessons is critical to academic achievement since the primary purpose of schools concerns teaching and learning.

Similar conclusions about the role of student leaders in monitoring class attendance are alluded to in a study by Bergen (2004) which found out that one aspect of learning that student leaders can effectively control is class attendance. The recommended practice is that a student leader can record class attendance from a seating chart, and the teacher checks this later for accuracy. This means that while the student leaders takes responsibility for recording class attendance, the teacher is free to keep the class moving forward in other instructional and pedagogical aspects. This echoes Allen's (2010) findings that in Britain, the major responsibilities of student leaders who are also known as student managers, is to regularly monitor class attendance, punctuality and to oversee group mentoring programmes.

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students. As shown on Table 4.4, the majority of the respondents (86.6%) agreed that student leaders ensure cooperative learning among students. In contrast, only 6.4% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students. The other 7.0% of the respondents were undecided. These findings are a strong indication that student leaders are instrumental in ensuring cooperative learning among students.

The findings agree with research that has shown that students, through their leaders, respond to having a choice and opportunities to participate in their class work; rather than encountering only predetermined results. For instance, Reynolds (2000) observes that through cooperative learning, students work together, teach one another and converse about their learning. Additionally, students who participate in the

thoughtful analysis of the quality of their academic work are able to identify its critical elements and to become better performers. Fencl and Scheel (2005) in their study of the effects of various teaching strategies on students self-efficacy also identified cooperative learning, which involves student leadership, as a key strategy for increased student achievement. Hancock (2004) in a study on the motivation and achievement of students exposed to cooperative learning also revealed that students with high peer orientation were significantly more motivated to learn than students with low peer orientation. The emphasis on student focused learning and cooperative learning is further propagated by Dobinson (2001) whose study pointed out that peer to peer interaction as part of a lesson is a component of student leadership. The findings of this study, which was conducted to evaluate the retention of new vocabulary in students, showed that peer to peer interaction was significantly more effective in the retention of new vocabulary than teacher only instruction, regardless of whether the students were active or passive in the classroom.

The data on Table 4.4 shows that overly, student leadership is instrumental in enhancing academic achievement in the school. This is especially true when student leaders act as positive role models in as far as academic performance is concerned, and also monitor the learning progress of other students, reinforce learning efforts, ensure lesson attendance by all students, and encourage cooperative learning among the students.

In supporting these findings, one of the respondents who were interviewed observed that:

> *...student leaders are able to provide feedback on whether the learning needs of the students are being met. They are also good at encouraging the other students to work hard, especially if they themselves are achievers and their effort is recognized.*

Another interviewee reiterated this argument by observing that:

> *If you want an accurate record of who was in class and who was not, then you better get that from the student representatives, not the class teacher! If you want class work well done, then you better have a student representative supervising the work… I tell you, these students are very good at monitoring themselves and encouraging each other to work hard..*

### 4.6 Correlation between Student Leadership and Academic Achievement

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was done to establish the statistical relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools. The results of the correlation are as shown on Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5 Correlation between Student Leadership and Academic Achievement**

| | | Leadership | Academic Achievement |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .462** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| Performance | Pearson Correlation | .462** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
N=187

From the correlation on Table 4.5, it can be inferred that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools (r=.462, *n*=187, p<.05). This means that student leadership positively influences the academic achievement in a school. The r value presented on Table 4.5

represents the measure of variability in the dependent variable (academic performance) that is accounted for by the predictor (student leadership). From the table, the r of .462 shows that the predictor (student leadership) accounts for 46.2% variation in academic performance. This led to rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya. This is an indication that student leadership influences academic performance in secondary schools.

To further enhance this relationship between student leadership and academic performance, the headteachers who were interviewed gave various suggestions. One of the interviewees suggested that:

> *In order to enhance academic achievement in the school, the student leaders should be of high standards of discipline, be self-driven, perform very well academically and be able to set a good example for the other students in the school. They have the responsibility of being good role models and setting the pace for the other students*

This argument on student leaders perfoming well academically was backed up by another respondent who further argued that:

> *Student leaders should be elected on the basis of their academic achievement so as to encourage their fellow students to emulate them. Those student leaders who record a decline in their academic performance should be demoted from their student leadership positions.*

### 4.7 Relationship between Student Leadership and Student Discipline

The third objective of this study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya. This was important since discipline has consistently been identified as an important aspect of effective schools. To examine the relationship between student leadership and student

discipline in secondary schools, the respondents were asked to rate given statements about student leadership in relation to discipline in their schools. The responses are presented in Table 4.6

**Table 4.6 Student Leadership and Student Discipline**

| Statement | Category | A | D | U | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | f % | f % | f % | f % |
| | Deputy | 81 | 5 | 5 | 91 |
| | Students | 43.3 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 48.7 |
| | **Total** | 93 | 1 | 2 | 96 |
| | | 49.7 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 51.3 |
| | Deputy | **174** | **6** | **7** | **187** |
| | Students | **93.0** | **3.2** | **3.8** | **100** |
| Student leaders are positive role models to other students | **Total** | | | | |
| | | 73 | 11 | 7 | 91 |
| | Deputy | 39.1 | 5.9 | 3.7 | 48.7 |
| | Students | 70 | 18 | 8 | 96 |
| Student leaders are involved in formulating rules and regulations that govern discipline in the school | **Total** | 37.4 | 9.6 | 4.3 | 51.3 |
| | | **143** | **29** | **15** | **187** |
| | Deputy | **76.5** | **15.5** | **8.0** | **100** |
| | Students | | | | |
| Student leaders encourage other students to obey school rules and regulations | **Total** | 81 | 4 2.1 | 6 | 91 |
| | | 43.4 | 1 0.5 | 3.2 | 48.7 |
| | Deputy | 94 | **5 2.6** | 1 | 96 |
| | Students | 50.3 | | 0.5 | 51.3 |
| Student leaders are allowed to punish other students who disobey school rules and regulations | Total | **175** | 30 | **7** | **187** |
| | | **93.7** | 16.1 | **3.7** | **100** |
| | | | 12 | | |
| | | 52 | 6.4 | 9 | 91 |
| | | 27.8 | **42** | 4.8 | 48.7 |
| | | 78 | **22.5** | 6 | 96 |
| | | 41.7 | | 3.2 | 51.3 |
| Student leaders solve disputes and disagreement among other students | | **130** | 3 | **15** | **187** |
| | | **69.5** | 1.5 | **8.0** | **100** |
| | | | 2 | | |
| | | 75 | 1.1 | 13 | 91 |
| | | 40.1 | **5** | 7.0 | 48.7 |
| | | 91 | **2.7** | 3 | 96 |
| | | 48.6 | | 1.6 | 51.3 |
| | | **166** | | **16** | **187** |
| | | **88.7** | | **8.6** | **100** |

The respondents were first required to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed that student leaders are positive role models for the other students in the school. The data on Table 4.6 shows that majority of the respondents (93.0%) agreed that student leaders are positive role models to other students in the school. Only 3.2% of the respondents disagreed; while the remaining 3.8% were undecided on whether student leaders are positive role models or not. These findings indicate that student leaders in secondary schools are positive role models for the other students in the school.

These findings reflect the argument by Rintoul (2010) who points out that the moral judgement 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. This means that in a school where moral judgement exists, the leaders, including student leaders, are able to guide other members of the school community on the acceptable moral fiber through deliberate role modeling and mentoring. A study carried out by Leithwood and Jantzi (2004) in Philadelphia also concluded that students in the student council act as mentors who provide their peers with a pool of knowledge that could be tapped on to help polish their disciplinary and behavioural development. Peer mentoring in issues of discipline also has the advantage of giving students an opportunity to work on their issues and concerns without fear and intimidation. Schools that engage students in the council in peer supervivion are able to help their students perform better, adopt healthy behaviour patterns, understand themselves better, as well as relate to other members of the school in a satisfactory manner.

Further, the respondents were asked to respond to whether student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern their schools. The responses presented in Table 4.6 show that most of the respondents (76.5%) agreed that student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern their schools. On the other hand, 15.5% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations in their schools. The remaining 8.0% were undecided. These findings are an indication that in most Kenyan secondary schools, student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern their schools.

The findings reflect Gatt's (2005) argument that students, through their leaders, should be involved in drawing up expectations, rules, rewards and sanctions that the schools operate on. The importance of rules and regulations is emphasized by Gamage et al (2009) who assert that school rules and regulations are among the key strategies designed to maintain discipline in schools. Such rules contain the dos and don'ts that prescribe and impact on students' patterns of behaviour. The view on student leaders being involved in coming up with the school rules and regulations is also shared by Njozela (2010) who suggested that instead of distributing rules as an edict, the school can encourage teachers and students to work together in the rule-making process. The student leaders may act as the representative of their fellow students in making the rules together with the school administration. The students can also be encouraged to come up with rules that could be incorporated in the existing school rules and regulations. This would give them a feeling of ownership since they will view the rules as their own creation and thus strive to obey them. Students are far

more likely to internalize and respect rules that they helped create than rules that are handed to them.

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether student leaders encourage the other students to obey school rules and regulations. The responses as presented on Table 4.6 show that most of the respondents (93.7%) agreed that student leaders encourage the other students to obey the school rules and regulations. Only a small percentage of 2.6% disagreed that student leaders encourage the other students to obey school rules and regulations. The rest of the respondents (3.7%) were undecided over this statement. These findings indicate that overly, student leaders in secondary schools encourage the other students to obey school rules and regulations. This is important because infringement on the school rules and regulations defeats the purpose for the existence of such rules and regualtions.

This aspect of student leaders encouraging the other students to obey school rules and regulations is emphasized by Marzano et al (2005) who hypothesize that students who hold positions of responsibility are more likely to identify with the educational and behavioural values of the school and ensure that the other students respect such values. Dugan (2006) also agrees to this by asserting that student leaders should inspire and mentor other students in the school by promoting school values and respecting school rules and procedures. Thus, a good student leader is one who knows the rules and who understands different positions of authority. Though a student leader may not always agree with their teachers and school authority at all times, they should always maintain a respectful, pleasant attitude toward school rules; and also encourage the other students to respect such rules at all times. This is because school

discipline serves the important purpose of maintaining safe and orderly learning environments in schools. Discipline also helps a student to stay on track with regard to their academic goals and also gives them an opportunity to grow as a wholesome person.

Additionally, the respondents were asked to indicate whether student leaders are allowed to punish other students for disobeying the school rules and regulations. As shown on Table 4.6, a majority of 69.5% of the respondents agreed that student leaders are allowed to give out punishment to other students. However, a total of 22.5% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders are allowed to give out punishment on other students; while 8% were undecided. Although it is evident from these findings that in a majority of the schools student leaders are allowed to punish other students for disobeying school rules and regulations, the percentage majority of the responses for this statement (69.5%) was significantly lower than for the other statements on student discipline.

This is an implication that punishing other student does not receive the same emphasis and support as the other aspects of student discipline that should be exercised by student leaders. This aspect of student leaders being allowed to give out punishment to other students should thus be adopted in schools with caution. Generally, as Shusila (2004) argues, students must be made to realize that breaking the rules will result in reprimand or some form of punishment, either from the school administration or from the student leaders. However, there should be caution in the kind of punishment student leaders are allowed togive out to other students since as Bates (2006) observes, too frequent use of punishment and some forms of

punishments given out by the student leaders can create a tense and negative atmosphere between the student leaders and the other students with counter-productive effects on behavior. A study by Ryan and Rottman (2009) on Participation of Students in Democratic Governance also advised that the levels of student involvement in some of the aspects of schools governance, such as management of student discipline, should be limited, prescribed and exercised in an organized manner at the discretion of the school administration.

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed that student leaders also solve disputes and disagreement among other students. The data on Table 4.6 shows that majority of the respondents (88.7%) agreed that student leaders solve disputes and disagreements that arise among other students. Only 2.7 % of the respondents disagreed that student leaders solve disputes among other students. The other 8.6% of the respondents were undecided on this. These findings indicate that student leaders are very instrumental in solving disputes and disagreements among other students thus bringing down the level of conflict and disruptive behaviour in the school system.

As Nsubuga (2000) and Kombo (2006) assert, school administrators must realize that students have problems related to emotional and behavioural changes which can cause disputes to arise amongst them. Thus, the school administration must strive to address such disputes in collaboration with the students themselves. To this end, the school administration should try and promote more adaptive behaviour in students and make them better able to solve future problems more independently and effectively. This can be easily achieved through student leadership. Thus in a school

system, student leadership can be systematically developed so that students are more proficient in decision making, problem solving, team building, effective communication, and conflict resolution, so as to be able to reduce the level of conflict among the members of the institution (Begley and Johnason, 2003; Coutts, 2010). However, Lindell and Whitney (2002) also point out that most student leaders would be unprepared for school leadership and the conflicts they will most definitely experience with their colleagues and amongst their colleagues. The student leaders must therefore be trained to acquire the necessary skills needed to act as mediators in such conflict situations.

The data on Table 4.6 generally shows a positive relationship between student leadership and student discipline in schools. This implies that schools should ensure that there are formal mechanisms in place to allow students to regularly share their views and to participate in decision making on discipline issues, through their student leaders. As observed by UNICEF (2011), the rigid implementation of rules produces revolutionary reaction, and may result in confrontation and disobedience. The involvement of student leaders in managing student discipline is further advanced by Sithole (2008) who points out that involvement of students in peer mentoring and discipline is based on the idea that most people prefer to seek out their peers for help when experiencing behavioural challenges, concerns and general problems.

In supporting the relationship between student leadership and student discipline, one of the interviewees noted that:

> *…it is actually easier to get a student to see where they have gone wrong and even the need to be punished if it comes from their fellow students. Actually in most cases, the student leaders are very capable of solving disputes and minor discipline cases within the student body. In*

> *most cases, what reaches us (administration) are the serious issues that the students are unable to resolve on their own.*

However, one of the interviewees also cautioned that:

> *Yes, let the student leaders be involved in managing the discipline of other students, but with caution. The student leaders can report infractions on the rules by the other students, but not independently punish them…this can be a recipe for chaos in the schools.*

### 4.8 Correlation between Student Leadership and Student Discipline

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was employed to examine the relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools. The results of the correlation are as shown on Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7 Correlation between Student Leadership and Student Discipline**

| | | Leadership | Discipline |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .547** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| Discipline | Pearson Correlation | .547** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
N=187

The results of the Pearson Correlation as presented in Table 4.7 shows that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools ($r=.547$, $n=187$, $p<.05$). This is an indication that student leadership enhances student discipline in secondary schools. Therefore, the more student leadership is enhanced in schools, the more student discipline will also be enhanced. The r value in Table 4.7 represents the measure of variability in student discipline that is accounted for by student leadership. From the table, the r value (.547) shows that the predictor (student leadership) accounts for 54.7% variation in student discipline.

Consequently, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools is rejected. The implication of this is that there exists a positive significant relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya. This correlation between student leadership and student discipline is further evidenced in the observation by one of the respondents that:

> *Student leaders should show a high degree of discipline and be role models to other students in as far as discipline is concerned. They should even be incorporated in school disciplinary committees and given the mandate to solve minor discipline cases affecting fellow students in smaller disciplinary committees chaired and coordinated by the student leaders themselves.*

In support of this, another respondent argued that:

> *…and the most disciplined student leaders should be rewarded and recognized so as to encourage other students to be disciplined. Student leaders can also create an impact on student discipline in schools if they are allowed to closely monitor other students and report cases of misconduct to the relevant authorities. They should be given more powers and authority to enforce the school rules and regulations so that the other students can obey their instructions.*

### 4.9 Student Leadership and Effectiveness of Communication

The fourth objective of this study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools in Kenya. This is because communication is one of the organic and paramount functions of school management as it is performed in each and every school management situation. Effective communication also enables the school leaders to create a harmonious environment conducive to realizing the other aspects of an effective school.

To yield data to answer this objective, the respondents were asked to rate several statements on the relationship between student leadership and effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools in Kenya. The responses are as presented in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8 Student Leadership and Effectiveness of Communication**

| Statement | Category | A | | D | | U | | TOTAL | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | f | % | f | % | f | % | f | % |
| Student leaders hold regular meetings with other students | Deputy | 76 | | 13 | | 2 | | 91 | |
| | Students | 40.6 | | 7.0 | | 1.1 | | 48.7 | |
| | **Total** | 84 | | 10 | | 2 | | 96 | |
| | | 44.9 | | 5.3 | | 1.1 | | 51.3 | |
| Student leaders hold regular meetings with the school administation | Deputy | **160** | | **23** | | **4** | | **187** | |
| | Students | **85.5** | | **12.3** | | **2.2** | | **100** | |
| | **Total** | | | | | | | | |
| | | 74 | | 7 | | 10 | | 91 | |
| | Deputy | 39.6 | | 3.8 | | 5.3 | | 48.7 | |
| | Students | 89 | | 6 | | 1 | | 96 | |
| | **Total** | 47.6 | | 3.2 | | 0.5 | | 51.3 | |
| | | **163** | | **13** | | **11** | | **187** | |
| | Deputy | **87.2** | | **7.0** | | **5.8** | | **100** | |
| | Students | | | | | | | | |
| Student leaders effectively communicate students views and opinions | **Total** | 82 | | 3 | | 6 | | 91 | |
| | | 43.9 | | 1.6 | | 3.2 | | 48.7 | |
| | | 91 | | 2 | | 3 | | 96 | |
| | | 48.6 | | 1.1 | | 1.6 | | 51.3 | |
| There is consensus in decision making | | **173** | | **5** | | **9** | | **187** | |
| | | **92.5** | | **2.7** | | **4.8** | | **100** | |
| | | | | | | | | | |
| | | 70 | | 9 | 4.8 | 12 | | 91 | |
| | | 37.5 | | 9 | | 6.4 | | 48.7 | |
| | | 79 | | 4.8 | | 8 | | 96 | |
| | | 42.2 | | **18** | | 4.3 | | 51.3 | |
| | | **149** | | **9.6** | | **26** | | **187** | |
| | | **79.7** | | | | **10.7** | | **100** | |

The respondents were first asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed that student leaders hold regular meetings with other students to discuss challenges affecting the students. The responses as presented in Table 4.8 show that majority of the respondents (85.5%) agreed that student leaders in their schools hold regular meetings to discuss challenges affecting students. However, 12.3% of the respondents disagreed that student leaders hold such meetings. The other 2.2% of the respondents were undecided. Although the findings show that student leaders hold regular meetings to discuss student challenges in most of the schools, there are schools where such meetings are still not being held as indicated by the 12.3% respondents.

As Arthur et al (2008) emphasize, 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. Lobdell (2007) also points out that it is important for student leaders to use skills in communication to create dialogue with the other students and to ensure that they are communicating in a way that makes the other students feel safe and free to open and have real talks about extremely personal issues affecting their welfare in school. The student leaders should make sure that no one feels it is not okay to be open about any topics and that such meetings is a safe environment to have such talks.

Other than meeting with other students, the respondents were also asked to indicate whether the student leaders hold regular meetings with the school administration to discuss student issues. The responses to this as presented on Table 4.8 indicate that majority of the respondents (87.2%) agreed that student leaders hold regular meetings

with the school administration to discuss student issues. However, 7.0% of the respondents disagreed that such meetings take place. The remaining 5.8% of the respondents were undecided. These findings are an indication that student leaders are allowed to hold regular meetings with school administration in most secondary schools in Kenya.

These findings mark an encouraging departure from the observation by the report of the task force on student discipline and unrest in secondary schools (GOK, 2001) which revealed that there exists a lack of communication forums between the school administration and the students; and that such a scenario builds up pressure and creates situations where students may have no way of expressing their frustrations, thus leading to disruptive behaviour. Meetings between the school administration and the student leaders are especially important so as to ensure feedback on issues raised by the students. According to Duff et al (2007), school leaders can encourage members to give them both good and bad feedback in a structured way. The leader should also welcome disagreement on issues, and ensure they positively reinforce rather than punish members for such divergent information. The leader should also identify areas in which they want feedback during such meeting. However, indiscriminate feedback should not be encouraged in meetings as this may consist of idle talk or personal complaints about others in the school. Feedback in such meetings should be on issues and areas that can help the school improve. The leader should also consider scheduling meeting sessions so as to get constructive feedback on student issues because a planned meetng session will usually get more response than an impulsive fishing for feedback. In a school setting, this can be done by

scheduling regular meetings with the students or their representatives to receive feedback.

The respondents were further asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed that student leaders communicate to the school administration students' views and opinions on how to make the school better. The data presented on Table 4.8 shows that on the issue of student leaders communicating students' views and opinions to the school administration, a majority of 92.5% of the respondents agreed with this statement. On the other hand, only 2.7% disagreed that student leaders make such communication, whereas the remaining 4.8% were undecided. These findings imply that student leaders do communicate students' views and opinions to the school administration.

These findings echo the observation by Sushila (2004) that in a school setting, effective interchange of opinions and information helps in resolving differences and in creating mutual understanding between the different people and groups of people in the school. The findings further agree with Lobdell's (2007) emphasis on the importance of communication in schools by pointing out the need for school members to communicate regularly and clearly about information important to overall school success.

Finally, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed that there is consensus in decision making between the student leadership and the school administration. The data on table 4.8 shows that most of the respondents (79.7%) agreed that there is consensus in decision making between the student leadership and

the school administration. However, a total of 9.6% of the respondents disagreed that there was consensus in decision making between the school administration and the student leadership. The remaining 10.7% were undecided. These findings imply that in most schools, there is an effort to build consensus between the student leaders and the school administration in the decisions made.

The findings reflect those of Schmoker's (2005) study which emphasized the importance of consensus for teacher efficacy, student achievement and overall school effectiveness. From the research data, effective schools were characterized by consensus on goals and participation in decision making. Schmoker (2005) further pointed out that students' learning in effective schools is enhanced when members of the school community share goals, demonstrate mutual respect and trust, and join in partnerships to promote the well-being of students; through effective communication. Consequently, the school should inform its members and reach a consensus about standards and how they relate to the curriculum, school programs, discipline codes, and student progress.

In support of these findings on the importance of student leadership in enhancing effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration, one of the interviewees pointed out that:

> *These people (students) are not easy to talk to. You must devise ways of getting them to agree with the decisions made before they are implemented. One of the easiest ways to do this is to first agree with their (student) leaders, who will in turn communicate to the others what needs to be done.*

### 4.10 Correlation between Student Leadership and Effectiveness of Communication

Pearson Correlation Coefficient was employed to establish the relationship between student leadership and effective communication in secondary schools. The result of the correlation is shown on Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9 Correlation between Student Leadership and Effectiveness of Communication**

| | | Leadership | Communication |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .457** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| Communication | Pearson Correlation | .457** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
N=187

The results on table 4.9 show that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and communication in secondary schools (r=.457, *n*=187, p<.05). This indicates that student leadership enhances the effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools. Therefore, the more student leadership is adhered to in schools, the more effective communication in the school becomes. The r value represents the measure of variability in effective communication that is accounted for by the predictor (student leadership). The statistics presented on Table 4.9 (r= .457) shows that the predictor (student leadership) accounts for 45.7% variation in effective communication; leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant relationship between student leadership and effective communication in secondary schools in Kenya. This indicates that for each unit increase in student leadership, there is also increase in effective communication in secondary schools.

In line with this finding, one of the interviewees in this study emphasized that:

> *Student leaders should hold regular meetings where other students air out their grievances and give their views regarding issues that affect them. The student leaders should then communicate, in good time, any information given in such meetings for appropriate action by the administration. There should also be open forums between student leaders and the school administration to promote interactions between these two groups in order to improve the life of all students in school.*

# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the summary of findings, conclusion, and the recommendations of this study; which are based on the analysis of data in chapter four.

## 5.1 Summary of Findings

This section summarizes the findings from the study with respect to the demographic information on student leadership in secondary schools, and the four objectives of the study.

### 5.1.1 Student Leadership in Secondary Schools

The demographic data in this study showed that although majority of the secondary schools have embraced the elected SLC as the type of student leadership in their schools, there are some schools that still exercise their student leadership through the appointed prefect system. The data also showed that the SLC was considered more successful than the prefects in presenting students' issues to the school administration. However, majority of the student leaders (both SLC and prefects) had not received leadership training since their election or appointment

### 5.1.2 Relatioship between Student Leadership and Acquisition of Leadership Skills

The first objective of this study was to determine the relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills by student leaders in secondary schools in Kenya. The data analysis showed that student leadership helps students acquire important leadership skills, specifically appreciation of individual differences, ability

to mentor and inspire others, ability to direct and control, fairness and self-confidence. The acquisition of all these skills were rated highly with majority of the respondents agreeing in all cases that students acquire these skills through student leadership. The testing of the hypothesis for this objective also showed that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills in secondary schools ($r=.524$, $n=187$, $p<.05$).

### 5.1.3 Relationship between Student Leadership and Academic Achievement

The second objective of this study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya. Majority of the respondents agreed with the statements that brought out the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools. Specifically, the respondents agreed that student leaders set high standards of achievement for other students, student leaders reinforce the learning efforts of other students, student leaders ensure the attendance of lessons by other students and student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students. However, the percentage majority of respondents who agreed that student leaders monitor the learning progress of other students was significantly lower than for the other statements. The testing of the hypothesis for objective two also showed that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools ($r=.462$, $n=187$, $p<.05$).

### 5.1.4 Relationship between Student Leadership and Student Discipline

The third objective of his study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya. Majority of the

respondents agreed that student leaders are positive role models to other students in the school. Most of the respondents also agreed that student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern the school, and also ensure that other students obey these rules and regulations. The respondents also agreed that student leaders solve disputes and disagreements among other students. Although majority of the respondents also agreed that student leaders punish other students for disobeying school rules and regulations, the percentage majority for this was lower than that for the other statements. The testing of the hypothesisfor this objective also showed that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools ($r=.547$, $n=187$, $p<.05$).

### 5.1.5 Relationship between Student Leadership and Effectiveness of Communication

The fourth objective of this study was to establish the relationship between student leadership and the effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools in Kenya. Majority of the respondents agreed that student leaders hold meetings with other students to discuss the challenges facing the students in school. The respondents also agreed that student leaders hold meetings with school administration to discuss student issues. Majority of the respondents also agreed that student leaders communicate to the school administration students' views on how to make the school better. Although the respondents also agreed that there was consensus in decision making between the student leadership and the school administration, the percentage majority that agreed with this was lower than for the other statements. The testing of the hypothesis for objective four showed that there is a positive relationship between student leadership and effectiveness of

communication between students and the school administration in secondary schools (r=.457, *n*=187, p<.05).

## 5.2 Conclusion

From the summary of findings above, the following conclusions were made:

(i) There is a significant positive relationship between student leadership and the acquisition of leadership skills since student leaders acquire key leadership skills through their leadership roles and responsibilities. However, whereas leadership training would also enhance the acquisition of these leadership skills, the majority of student leaders in schools had not received formal leadership training.

(ii) There is a significant positive relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in secondary schools in Kenya. This implies that student leaders should be allowed to play an active role in enhancing academic achievement in schools.

(iii) There is a significant positive relationship between student leadership and student discipline in secondary schools in Kenya. This would serve as a strong basis for using student leaders in positively shaping the behaviour of other students in the school.

(iv) There is a significant positive relationship between student leadership and effective communication in secondary schools in Kenya. Therefore the school administration needs to consider the positive role that student leaders can play in enhancing the effectiveness of communication between the school administration and the students.

### 5.3 Recommendations

This study recommends the following to the Ministry of Education, school administrators and other education stakeholders:

(i) With regard to the acquisition of leadership skills, mechanisms should be put in place to train all student leaders on leadership skills. Although student leaders acquire leadership skills through their ledership responsibilities, it is still a matter of concern that majority of student leaders have not received any formal training on leadership. Such training would help to reinforce the already acquired skills and emphasize on the acquisition of other skills necessary for leadership.

(ii) With regard to the relationship between student leadership and academic performance, mechanisms should be put in place to enhace the monitoring of students' learning progress by the student leaders. This is an important aspect of academic performance since through such monitoring, student leaders will be better able to mentor and encourage the other student to perform better academically. Although data collected indicated that this monitoring is being done, the percentage majority of this was lower than for the other aspects of academic achievement.

(iii) With regard to student leadership and student discipline, there should be very clear guidelines on what forms of misconduct student leaders should handle, and what forms of punishment student leaders can give out to other students for such misconduct. This will prevent student leaders from giving unacceptable forms of punishment to other students in the school.

(iv) With regard to student leadership and effectiveness of communication between students and the school administration, consensus in decision making between the student leadership and the school administration needs to be enhanced. This means that the school administration should find acceptable ways of involving students in decision making so as to ensure that the students are represented when major decisions that affect them are being made.

## 5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

(i) This study covered only Nakuru County in Kenya. There is need to extend the study to other counties in the country so as to compare the similarity of findings across the various regions in Kenya.

(ii) This study only focused on how student leadership affects specific correlates of school effectiveness. There is need to conduct a study to investigate other factors, other than student leadership, that also affect these correlates of school effectiveness.

(iii) A similar study should be carried out in primary schools in Kenya so as to compare how student leadership affects school effectiveness between the two different levels of the education system.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DEPUTY HEADTEACHERS

This Questionnaire is for a study on the relationship of student leadership to school effectiveness. The information given in this questionnaire will not be used for any other purpose other than for the research study, and will be treated confidentially. Please do not indicate your name anywhere in this Questionnaire.

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

**Key:**

1. A – Agree
2. D - Disagree
3. U - Undecided

### SECTION A: TYPE OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP

1. What type of student leadership exists in your school?

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

2. How effective is the Student Leadership in presenting students' issues to the school administration?

(a) Effective [ ]
(b) Not effective [ ]

**SECTION B: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND ACQUISITION OF LEADERSHIP SKILLS**

3. On a scale of 1 – 3, indicate whether you agree or disagree that student leaders in your school acquire the following skills through student leadership

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership enables student leaders to appreciate individual differences | | | |
| Through student leadership, student leaders are able to mentor and inspire other students | | | |
| Through student leadership, student leaders acquire the ability to direct and control others | | | |
| Student leadershi teaches student leaders how to exercise fairness | | | |
| Through student leadership, student leaders become more self-Confident | | | |

**SECTION C: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

4. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with following statements on the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders set high standards of achievement for other students | | | |
| Student leaders monitor the learning progress of other students | | | |
| Student leaders positively reinforce the learning efforts of other students | | | |
| Student leaders encourage other students to attend their lessons | | | |
| Student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students | | | |
| Student leaders help create a conducive environment for learning | | | |

5. Suggest any two ways in which student leadership can enhance academic achievement in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**SECTION D: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT DISCIPLINE**

**6.** Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about student leadership in relation to discipline in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders are positive role models for other students | | | |
| Student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern the school | | | |
| Student leaders encourage other students to obey school rules and regulations | | | |
| Student leaders can punish the other students for disobeying school rules and regulations | | | |
| Student leaders solve disputes and disagreements among other students | | | |

**7.** Suggest any two ways of increasing student leaders contribution to student discipline in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

**SECTION E: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNICATION**

**8.** Indicate whether you agree or disagree with following statements about student leaders in relation to communication in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders often hold meetings with the students to discuss challenges affecting the students | | | |
| Student leaders often hold meetings with the school administration to discuss students' issues | | | |
| Student leaders communicate to the school administration students' views and opinions on how to make the school better | | | |
| There is consensus in decision making between the student leadership and school administration | | | |

9. Suggest any two ways in which student leaders can enhance effective communication in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**Thank You for Your Responses**

## APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENT LEADERS

This Questionnaire is for a study on the relationship between student leadership and school effectiveness. The information given in this questionnaire will not be used for any other purpose other than for the research study, and will be treated confidentially. Please do not indicate your name anywhere in this Questionnaire.

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

**Key:**

1. A – Agree
2. D – Disagree
3. U – Undecided

### SECTION A: TYPE OF STUDENT LEADERSHIP

1. Indicate the category of student leadership in which you belong.

(a) Member of an Elected Student Leaders Council [ ]
(b) An appointed School Prefect [ ]

2. Have you received any formal leadership training since you became a student leader?

(a) Yes [ ]
(b) No [ ]

3. If your answer in 2 above is (a), indicate any three skill areas in which you have been trained

_____

_____

_____

**SECTION B: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND ACQUISITION OF LEADERSHIP SKILLS**

4. State whether you agree or disagree with the following statements on student leadership and acquisition of leadership skills

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leadership has enabled me to appreciate individual differences | | | |
| Through student leadership, I am able to mentor and inspire other students | | | |
| Through student leadership, I have acquired the ability to direct and control others | | | |
| Student leadership has taught me how to exercise fairness | | | |
| Through student leadership, I have become more self-Confident | | | |

**SECTION C – RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT**

**5.** Indicate whether you agree or disagree with following statements on the relationship between student leadership and academic achievement in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders set high standards of achievement for other students | | | |
| Student leaders monitor the learning progress of other students | | | |
| Student leaders positively reinforce the learning efforts of other students | | | |
| Student leaders encourage the other students to attend their lessons | | | |
| Student leaders encourage cooperative learning among students | | | |
| Student leaders help create a clean and conducive environment for learning | | | |

6. Suggest any two ways in which student leadership can enhance academic achievement in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**SECTION D: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT DISCIPLINE**

7. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with the following statements about student leadership in relation to discipline in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders are positive role models for other students | | | |
| Student leaders are involved in coming up with the rules and regulations that govern the school | | | |
| Student leaders encourage the other students to obey school rules and regulations | | | |
| Student leaders punish other students for disobeying school rules and regulations | | | |
| Student leaders solve disputes and disagreements among other students | | | |

**8.** Suggest any two ways in which student leadership can enhance student discipline in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

**SECTION E: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENT LEADERSHIP AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNICATION**

**9.** Indicate whether you agree or disagree with following statements about student leaders in relation to communication in your school

| | A | D | U |
|---|---|---|---|
| Student leaders often hold meetings with the students to discuss challenges affecting the students | | | |
| Student leaders often hold meetings with the school administration to discuss students' issues | | | |
| Student leaders communicate to the school administration students' views and opinions on how to make the school better | | | |
| There is consensus in decision making between the student leadership and school administration | | | |

10. Suggest any two ways in which student leaders can enhance effective communication in your school

_____

_____

_____

_____

**Thank You for Your Responses**

## APPENDIX III – HEADTEACHERS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. What is the most prevalent type of Student leadership in secondary schools in Kenya?

2. In your opinion, how does student leadership enable student leaders to acquire leadership skills?

3. In your opinion, what is the role of student leadership in the academic achievement in a school?

4. What are some of the ways in which student leaders can enhance discipline in your school?

5. How would you describe the level of communication between the student leaders and the school administration in your school?

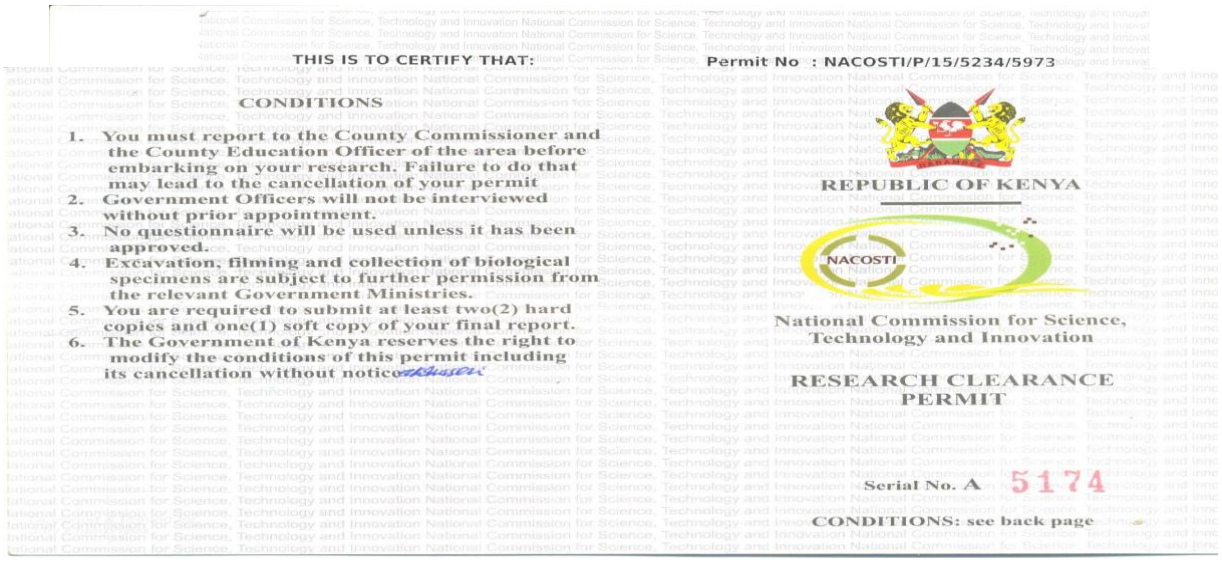
6. How often does the school administration hold meetings with the student leaders to discuss student welfare issues

7. How do the student leaders in your school enhance communication between the students and the school administration?

8. In your opinion, what factors affect student leaders' contribution to overall school effectiveness?

9. What two things can be done to enhance student leaders' relationship to school effectiveness?

## APPENDIX IV – RESEARCH PERMIT



THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/15/5234/5973

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one(1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

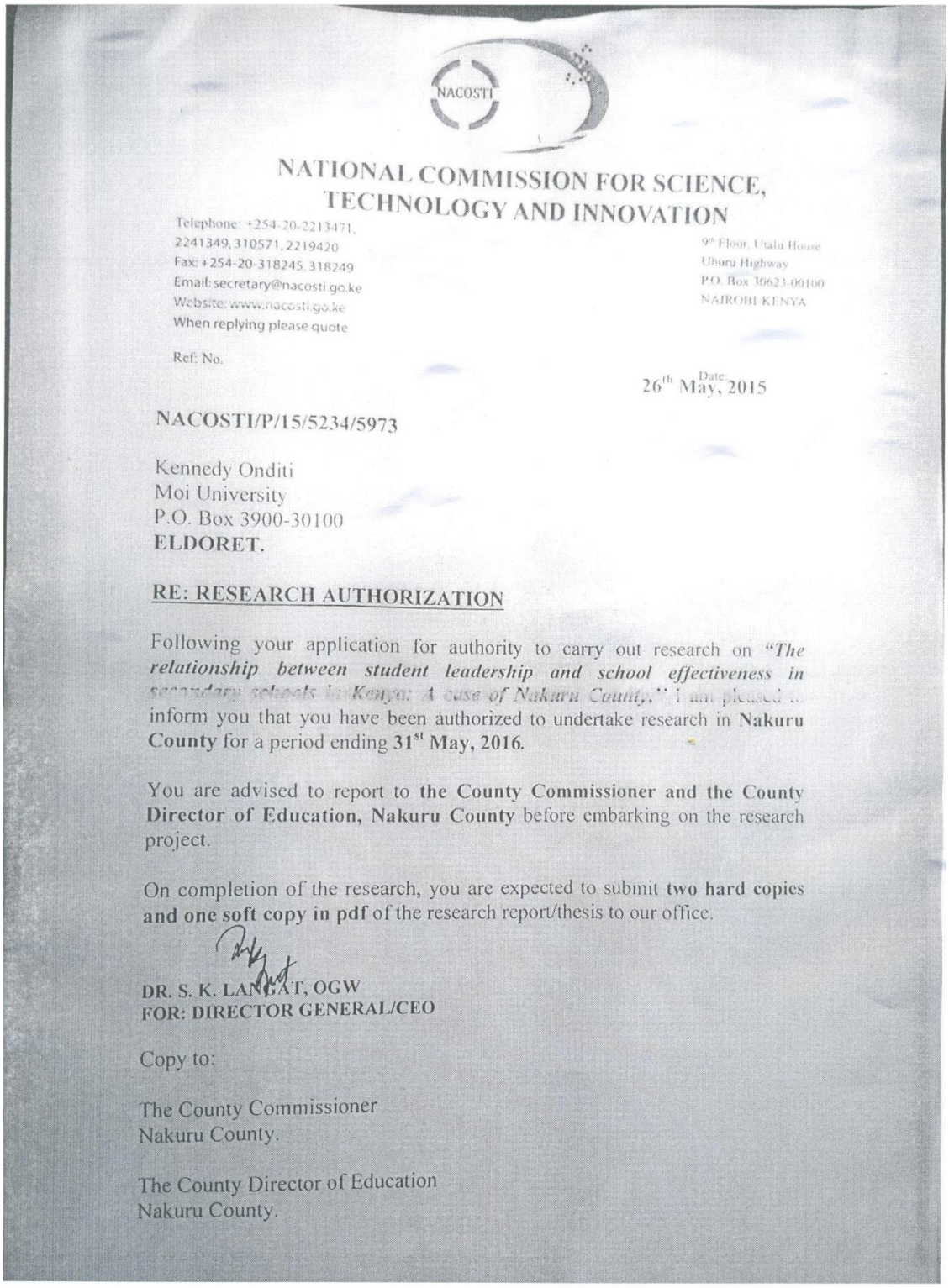
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No. A 5174

CONDITIONS: see back page

## APPENDIX V – LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION



NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

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Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No.

Date: 26th May, 2015

NACOSTI/P/15/5234/5973

Kennedy Onditi
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
**ELDORET.**

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *"The **relationship between student leadership and school effectiveness in** secondary schools in Kenya: A case of Nakuru County,"* I am pleased ... inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nakuru County** for a period ending **31st May, 2016.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nakuru County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

**DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW**
**FOR: DIRECTOR GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Nakuru County.

The County Director of Education
Nakuru County.

## APPENDIX VI – KREJCIE AND MORGAN SAMPLE SIZE TABLE

| 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).