

CULTURAL PRACTICES AND SOCIAL ECOLOGY OF TEACHERS IN PRIMARY  
SCHOOLS IN BUTEBO COUNTY, PALLISA  
DISTRICT, UGANDA

BY  
MUTASA MOSES  
BED/40928/133/DU

A RESEARCH REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION OPEN AND  
DISTANCE LEARNING IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE BACHELOR OF PRIMARY EDUCATION  
(SCIENCE) OF KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL  
UNIVERSITY

APRIL 2015

### **DECLARATION**

I *Mutasa Moses*, BED/40928/ 133/ DU declare that this research is my original work and has never been presented to any other university for award of any academic certificate or anything similar to such. I solemnly bear and stand to correct any inconsistency.

Signature

Date

  
.....

5/4/2015  
.....

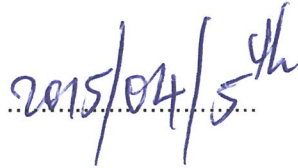
### APPROVAL

This research report has been submitted for examination with my approval as the candidate's university supervisor.

Sign.....

**Kirya Kent Robert**

Date .....



## **DEDICATION**

This research report is dedicated to my beloved wife Anyango Teddy Ndibayisa for her perseverance as I spent many half sleep nights compiling my work.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, I glorify the Almighty God for the provisions and wisdom he gave me to accomplish this programme. I would like to acknowledge the proprietor of Kampala International University (KIU) Hajji Hassan Bassajjabalaba and his administration for coming up with the initiative to give people a go ahead for further studies. With them I feel great to be a future educator.

The staff of College of Education, Open and Distance Learning deserves a lot of thanks; Miss. Edith Gwokyalya Bagala; the head of Foundations of the College and Kirya Robert Kent for the guidance throughout this research report and also the staff members of the college of Kampala International University for their Special gratitude, who made suggestions on the context and style throughout the course.

To the head teachers, teachers of primary schools in Butebo County whose cooperation during the data collection which was excellent. I am also grateful to my children who gave me moral support and accepted my long absence from home. I also extend my gratitude to my colleagues of BED-Science (Ali Scopas Modi) of Kampala international University for their tireless effort in assisting me throughout my course trimesters and even in word processing and printing the research report.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
APPROVAL	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	2
1.3 Purpose of the Study	3
1.4 General Objective	4
1.5 Specific Objectives	4
1.6 Research Questions	4
1.7 Null Hypothesis	5
1.8 Scope of the Study	5
1.9. Significance of the Study	5
1.10. Definition of Terms	6
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1 Concepts, Ideas, Opinions from Authors/ Experts	9
2.1.1 Culture Practices	9
2.1.2 Socio Ecology	10
2.2 Theoretical Perspective	11
2.3 Related Studies	14
2.3.1 Cultural Practices (Positive School Culture)	14
2.3.2 Collaborative Leadership;	14
2.3.3 Teacher Collaboration;	17

2.3.4	Professional Development;	21
2.3.5	Collegial Support;	24
2.3.6	Unity of Purpose;	26
2.3.7	Learning Partnership;	29
2.3.9	The Significance of an Effective, Collaborative School Culture	33
2. 4	Belief Systems	36
2.5	Teacher Practices and Beliefs	36
2.6	Culturally Responsive Teaching	37
2.7	Social Ecology	39
2.8	Spheres of Influence	41
2.9.	Summary of gaps identified by literature review	43
<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>		<b>44</b>
3.1	Research Design	44
3.2	Target Population	44
3.3	Sample Size	44
3.4	Sampling procedure	44
3.5	Research Instruments	45
3.6	Validity and Reliability tests of the Instruments	45
3.7	Data Gathering Procedure	46
3.8	Data Analysis	46
3.9	Data Analysis	47
3.10	Ethical Considerations	47
3.11	Limitations of the Study	48
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA</b>		<b>49</b>
4.1	Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	49
4.2	The Teachers' Culturally Relevant Belief Systems	51

4.3 The social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers	52
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	<b>55</b>
5.1 Chapter Overview	55
5.2 Findings of the Study	55
5.2.1 Profile of the Respondents:	55
5.2.2 The teachers' level of culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of the student's performances:	55
5.2.3 The level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers	55
5.2.4 Relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers	56
5.3 Conclusion	56
5.4 Recommendations	57
5.5 Suggestions for Future Research	57
REFERENCES	58
APPENDICES	63
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE	63
APPENDIX B: RELIABILITY	66
APPENDIX C: VALIDITY AND REBLIABILITY COMPUTATION	67

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Profile of the Respondents .....	49
Table 2: Shows the extent of the Teachers' cultural Practices' Systems .....	51
Table 3: Shows the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers .....	52
Table 4: Summary of the Pearson correlation of the research hypothesis about the relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers.....	54

## **ABSTRACT**

This study is attempted to correlate the level of cultural practices and social ecology in Butebo County. A descriptive study was conducted at 20 primary schools with a sample population of 120 primary teachers as respondents of the research study. The study attempted to; determine the profile of the respondents in terms of age, gender, marital status and level of education, identify the teachers' culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of their student's performances, determine the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers in the teaching profession and establish if there is a significant relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers. A Qualitative and Quantative method of data collection, including a questionnaire, was the main research instrument used. The findings showed that there was a significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers in the 20 primary schools covered by this study. The study recommended that Educators must have a comprehensive understanding of what "school culture" is and Schools need tools for developing and assessing school culture, and must be held accountable for their school cultures.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

As an activity educational administration has historical precedents dating back 100 years. The theories that have driven our understanding of educational administration include classical organizational thought, human relations theory, and behavioural management (Musaazi, 1982). Scientific management approaches (1900 – 1930) examine organizations from the individual worker upward contrasting with classical organizational theory which study organizations from the individual managing director downwards (Owens, 1998). Musaazi (1982) notes that, some ideas arising out of classical organizational thought are useful to educational administration, such as the idea that everyone has a clear understanding of their role, responsibility and accountability, and what the aims and objectives of the organization are. For the scientific manager, staff selection is important as is the idea that people can be trained to perform a role. Classical organizational theory (Musaazi, 1982; Pallestini, 2003) sometimes known as 'administrative management theory' defines administrative behaviour as planning, organizing, staffing, commanding/directing, coordinating, reporting, and controlling (via financial means). In order for administrative management theory to work formal structures need to be in place. It is a theory that often underestimates the influence of personal interests while overestimating the organizational goals.

The human relations approach (1930-1950) arose out of the understanding that humans form informal groups when in continuous contact with each other; and that the formation of the group may result from common interests, experience, background, and/or time in the organization (Owens, 1998). The human relations approach combined sensitivity to human relationships with the technical competency identified by scientific management. This was one of the first interdisciplinary approaches to understanding organizations. The human relations approach recognized that staff

cooperation is critical to the success of an administrator, and that their willingness to cooperate is dependent upon the communication of the organization's goals and the staff's understanding of those goals. The human relations approach emphasizes that administrators work with, and through others, that both formal and informal groups can exist within the organization and that informal groups can protect the workers from unfair action by the leader and that informal leaders may be accorded greater respect and authority than the formal leader. The human relations approach acknowledges that administration is a shared responsibility, and that economic incentives are not the only motivator. It accepts that individuals are active, not passive, and that the span of control is not simply a numbers issue, understanding is necessary. More recently (1950-present) the behavioural approach has acknowledged that organizations are open systems that interact with, and are dependent upon their environment (Pallestini, 2003).

Administration is a social process concerned with identifying, maintaining, motivating, controlling and unifying formally and informally organized human and material resources within an integrated system specifically to achieve predetermined objectives (Musaazi, 1982). Not only does administration implement the decisions of an organization, it also influences the results to be achieved, the directions to be pursued, and the various priorities to be recognized within the organization. The administration determines the working relationships and organizational climate – these are both cultural components. It can make employees more productive, make good use of resources, unify and coordinates human activity, evaluate the quality and quantity of the outcomes actually achieved, shapes its own image, builds in provision for innovation and the capacity to change and develop (Musaazi, 1982; Pallestini, 2003).

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Cultural practices and social ecology are the factors that refer to the school's structural and organizational processes (e.g., size, course offerings, class formation procedures, grouping practices), resource allocations teacher course assignment, funding particular

programs, its academic focus (e.g., curriculum alignment and delivery, expectations of students, educational experiences, monitoring student progress) and social integration (e.g., how students interact with peers, teachers) according to Georgia Department of Education, (2006b). Decisions on how schools are organized and how they are operated, how resources are allocated, how classrooms are formed, and how students are taught, all impact on student learning. Despite the fact that research continues to show that education is a critical factor in improving an individual's life circumstances, researcher observed the presence of an achievement gap remains problematic. The issue here is to identify what factors contribute to the achievement gap problem. In an effort to explore school cultural influences in greater depth, this study proposes to examine teacher's cultural beliefs and behaviors, their impact and the development of a culturally responsive perspective and pedagogy through students' achievement. In 2010 MOE (2010) report on UPE results show very poor achievement of pupils, the researcher suspects that the problem with student achievement is linked to multicultural issues, their attitudes and behaviors toward the same, along with lack of strategies provided by their training for addressing these issues in their work lives.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

This study was carried out to:

- i) Test the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers.
- ii) To validate the theory a Structural - Functionalist approach to organizational by Malinowski (1944) on which this study was based.
- iii) To bridge the gaps identified during literature review.
- iv) To contribute to the existing knowledge in the field school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers.

#### **1.4 General Objective**

The study established a relationship between cultural practices and social ecology of teachers in primary schools in Butebo County, Pallisa District, Uganda.

#### **1.5 Specific Objectives**

The study focused on the following objectives;

- i) To determine the profile of the respondents in terms of age, gender, marital status and level of education.
- ii) To determine the teachers' extent of culturally practices as it affects the underlying expectations of the student's performances.
- iii) To determine the extent of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers.
- iv) To establish if there is a significant relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers.

#### **1.6 Research Questions**

The study attempted to answer the following questions;

- i) What is the profile of the respondents in terms of age, gender, marital status and level of education?
- ii) What are the teachers' extent of culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of their student's performances?
- iii) What is the extent of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers?
- iv) Is there a significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers?

## 1.7 Null Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers.

## 1.8 Scope of the Study

**Geographical scope;** the study was carried out from Butebo County, Pallisa district of Eastern Uganda.

**The theoretical scope;** A Structural - Functionalist approach to organizational culture underpinned the study. Malinowski (1944) argues that culture is essentially an instrumental apparatus that enables humankind to better deal with specific problems in their environment, while satisfying their needs.

**The content scope;** determining the profile of the respondents in terms of: age, gender, marital status and level of education in the teachers' culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of their student's performances, determining the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers in the teaching profession and establishing the relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers in Butebo County.

**Time Scope;** the study was carried out from July 2014 to February 2015.

## 1.9. Significance of the Study

**Educational leaders;** The study may contribute to leadership by increasing the awareness of collaborative leadership within organizations.

Educational leaders must be able to foster a collaborative culture to improve student achievement. "Central to the success of high achieving schools is a collaborative culture focused on teaching and learning". Teachers simply cannot work in isolation to improve student achievement and meet the demands of high stakes accountability.

Educational leaders play a pivotal role in determining the success of a collaborative culture. According to, "The quality of teaching, learning, and relationships in professional learning communities depends on the quality of leadership provided by the principals and teachers".

**Teachers;** the study encouraged teachers to work collaboratively with each other and with the administration to teach students so they learn more.

**School;** A school with an effective learning culture maintains the image of a "professional community," similar to the fields of law or medicine. Teachers pursue a clear, shared purpose, engage in collaborative activity, and accept a collective responsibility for student learning.

**Researchers;** The findings of this study might help future researchers to direct more research in related fields like to find out the school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers in schools. And finally, this dissertation will act as a reference material for future researchers.

**Education and Research;** Social Ecology's basic commitment will help to solve contemporary environmental and social problems through an approach which is simultaneously "multi-disciplinary, interdisciplinary, and societally relevant.

#### **1.10. Definition of Terms**

**Cultural practices;** Cultural practice generally refers to the manifestation of a culture or sub-culture, especially in regard to the traditional and customary practices of a particular ethnic or other cultural group. In the study, this term will apply to any person manifesting any aspect of any culture at any time. However, in practical usage it commonly refers to the traditional practices developed within specific ethnic cultures among , especially those aspects of culture that have been practiced since ancient times in schools like fighting of students, stealing of their properties, nature of the school environment

**Social Ecology** is an academic unit characterized by an interdisciplinary approach to the study of social and environmental problems. These problems are examined at multiple levels of analysis, are viewed from an ecological perspective and involve a systems theory analysis of interdependence. Social ecology is not a term in common use. It has been chosen to express an integrating and contextual focus. The use of the word social underlies the belief that it is people who make meaning. Meaning is not out there in nature, or in the events themselves that we participate in. Meaning is understood to be a social construction.

**Profile of the Respondents;** This refers to the demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of age, gender, marital status and level of education

**Culture;** For the research study would consider Culture to be defined as:

An informal understanding of the "way we do things around here." Culture is a strategic body of learned behaviors that give both meaning and reality to its participants

*OR*

Culture is defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group has learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

**School Culture:** This is inner the reality that reflects what organizational members in school care about, what they are willing to spend time doing, what and how they celebrate, and what they talk about. Thus School culture states that it is "the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors which characterize a school".

**Beliefs;** Beliefs refer to "inferences made by an observer about underlying states of expectancy". Beliefs are instrumental in defining behavior, organizing knowledge, and making decisions.

**Teachers' Beliefs;** Teachers' attitudes about education, teaching, and learning are referred to as "teachers' beliefs." In this investigation, teachers' attitudes are

equivalent to educational beliefs since professional/educational beliefs are strongly and positively correlated with each other. Teachers' beliefs are defined as constructs that provide an understanding of a teacher's practice.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Concepts, Ideas, Opinions from Authors/ Experts**

##### **2.1.1 Culture Practices**

Taylor (1871, cited in Cleland, 1996) defined culture as “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society” (p. 1). Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined culture as “the way we do things around here” (p. 4). These general definitions of culture are also applicable to schools.

Schools are organizations with very specific cultures. School culture is the historically transmitted patterns of meaning that include the norms, values, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, and myths understood by the schools’ stakeholders (Short & Greer, 2002). The school culture reflects norms, values, standards, and practices that reinforce the academic, social, emotional, and relational growth of each student and a commitment to the professional growth of all educators (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a).

Bolman and Deal (2003) posited that trying to shape the culture, change it, or fight it could have serious repercussions. Prior to making changes, principals need to begin by asking, “What is the culture of the school, its values, traditions, assumptions, beliefs and ways” (Deal & Peterson 1987, as cited in Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996). Paying attention to routines within the school before changing them may provide valuable insight to a principal regarding how the school culture functions. Principals simply must understand the school’s culture before changing it (Deal & Peterson, 1987 as cited in Fullan & Hargreaves). Priority must be on meaning before management and time and patience are essential for principals in understanding a school’s culture (Deal & Peterson, 1987, as cited in Fullan & Hargreaves). Principals must also realize that changing the prevailing culture of a school is a challenging, yet important job if the culture is toxic (Barth, 2002). The six elements of a positive school culture provide principals with a framework to focus on throughout the school year.

### **2.1.2 Socio Ecology**

Social ecology is not a term in common use. It has been chosen to express an integrating and contextual focus. The use of the word social underlies the belief that it is people who make meaning. Meaning is not out there in nature, or in the events themselves that we participate in. Meaning is understood to be a social construction (cf. Berger & Luckman, 1966).

Social ecology is then a way of integrating the practice of science, the use of technology, and the expression of human values. It draws from any 'body of knowledge' in its pursuit of designing activities that result in self-respecting, sensitive and social behaviours which show an awareness of social and ecological responsibilities. The context for action and the subsequent critical reflection on the consequences of those actions need to involve the actor's relationship with the physical environment, the cultural setting and its history, organizational aspects, and an understanding of the constraints and possibilities set by an individual's cognitive processes.

The commitment to the fundamental importance of one's day-to-day experience of living, as constituting the raw material for the educational process, has been consistent throughout the development of the various programs that function under the social ecology banner. One's acting in the world is seen to be the primary experience; how this experience is then interpreted and made sense of, flows from this essential experience as the actor reflects upon what has happened. While the act of reflection is not essential to the actual living in the world, it does represent the very heart of the educational process and, when linked with the world of experience, constitutes a very satisfying and stimulating endeavor.

Social ecology is a label that emphasizes relationships over events and discrete elements. It was chosen because we rejected the belief in an objective world 'out there', one that is proposed to exist independent of the act of the proposer. Given that we, as observers and proposers, bring into experience the world out there, it is the process of making this happen that is the focus of our attention.

## 2.2 Theoretical Perspective

**A Structural-Functionalist Approach to Organizational Culture;** The structural-functionalist approach is rooted in the functionalist research tradition of which Malinowski (1944) was one of the main representatives. Malinowski's functionalist position emerges most clearly in his first two cultural axioms. In the first, Malinowski argues that culture is essentially an instrumental apparatus that enables humankind to better deal with specific problems in their environment, while satisfying their needs. The second axiom states that culture encompasses a system of objects, actions, and attitudes in which each part exists as means to an end.

Starting from these axioms, Radcliffe-Brown (1952) states that culture does not serve individual needs, but rather an objective entity that goes beyond individuals. In his view, the function of culture refers primarily to the integration of social groups. Moreover, Radcliffe-Brown has broadened Malinowski's theory that was purely focused on functions, by identifying the concept of 'structure'. 'Structure' is as central to his theory as the 'function' of culture. His functionalist theory of human community is grounded by a presupposed analogy between social and organic life, which leads to the notion of society as 'a system of functions of a social structure'. In Radcliffe-Brown's view social structure is essentially an arrangement of individuals in institutional controlled or defined relationships. The social structure itself cannot be further reduced to certain processes or constructs. Radcliffe-Brown, thereby, refers to Durkheim's argument that "social and cultural phenomena can only be explained by social concepts", instead of physiological or psychological concepts.

Although Malinowski and Radcliffe-Brown made an important contribution to studying culture from a functionalist perspective, it was even more influenced by the functionalist approach in sociological theory. Parsons (1951), in particular, has further elaborated structural-functionalist theory for the study of culture. Parsons identified his theory as an 'action' theory. 'Action' is distinguished from 'behavior', for action is purposeful behavior. The subject of such an action theory, therefore, is the meaningful goal-oriented actions of socialized humankind. This intentionality of human action

results from the idea that the perception of situations and behavior that is based on these perceptions, are not caused by inherence or instinct but result from the learning of cultural symbols. The symbolic world on the other hand, is shaped in interaction in other words, in common action and maintained through interaction. The epistemological object of structural-functionalism, however, is not the concrete, empirical action, but rather the determining action programs or schemes. Parsons' main interest was focused on the question of the determinants of social order. He therefore identified four system types: biological organic systems, psychological systems, social systems and cultural systems. Biological organic systems determine which actions individuals take from a physical perspective. Psychological systems refer to the need and motivational dispositions of social actors. Social systems consist of interdependent roles within collectivities, in which "specific interaction is regulated by norms that are rooted in values and derived from values" (Ackerman & Parsons, 1976). Cultural systems encompass value and meaning bases for action. The cultural system provides meaningful orientation towards the environment and the action system, the physical world, the personalities and social systems.

In Parsons' view, the personality system is an operating system for the actions individuals take. The social system controls the personalities of its members and the cultural system in turn acts on the social system. Parsons further assumes that each action system is subject to four major functions: adaptation, goal achievement, integration and latency. Adaptation involves the problem of acquiring sufficient resources and accommodating to the demands of the environment. Goal achievement reflects the problem of defining and implementing goals. Integration incorporates the problem of maintaining solidarity and unity among the members of the system. Latency consists of the problem of maintaining and renewing the motivational and cultural patterns of the system.

As a formal analytical point of reference, Parsons (1960) uses "the primacy of orientation to the attainment of a specific goal ... as the defining characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other types of social systems". He further

argues that "a minimal description of an organization will have to include an outline of the system of values which defines its functions and of the main institutional patterns which spell out these values in the more concrete functional context of goal-attainment itself, adaptation to the situation, and integration of the system. There are other aspects, such as technical lore, ideology, and ritual symbolization", which are not directly related to the social system. Parsons therefore argues not to take cultural artifacts, like symbols and ideology, into account, but rather focus on the values and meaning bases that underlie the action organization members take. Schein (1985) has further developed the functional analysis of organizational culture. Schein based his analysis of cultural processes and manifestations in organizations on Parsons' (1951) social systems theory and Merton's (1968) modifications of functional analysis, and related these to the work of Homans (1950) on group behavior. Like Homans, Schein (1985) analyzed organizational culture primarily from a social psychological point of view. What culture does in Schein's view is to solve the group's basic problems of surviving and adapting to the external environment on the one hand, and integrating its internal processes to ensure the capacity to continue to survive and adapt, on the other. Schein argues that the process of culture formation is, in a sense, identical with the process of group formation. Every group develops an identity the shared patterns of thought, belief, feelings, and values that result from shared experience and common learning within that group.

The external issues concern survival in what must be assumed to be a real environment, that is, in part, beyond the control of the group members. These external realities define the basic mission, primary task, or core functions of the group. The group must then figure out how to accomplish the core mission, how to measure its accomplishment, and how to maintain its success in the face of a changing environment. The "external" system the physical, technological, and cultural environment generates activities and interactions, which in turn generate sentiments and norms. Once such sentiments and norms have formed, according to Schein, they can be thought of as the "internal" system that begins to influence the external system

reciprocally by also determining activities and interactions. In other words, once culture is formed, it affects how the environment is perceived and dealt with. However, as Schein notes, the environment initially determines the possibilities, options, and constraints for a group and thus forces the group to specify its primary task or function if it is to survive at all. The environment thus initially influences the formation of the culture, but once culture is present in the sense of shared assumptions, those assumptions, in turn, influence what will be perceived and defined as the environment.

## **2.3 Related Studies**

### **2.3.1 Cultural Practices (Positive School Culture)**

There are six elements of a positive school culture that the researcher reviewed basing on six specific elements of a positive school culture: (a) collaborative leadership, (b) teacher collaboration, (c) professional development, (d) collegial support, (e) unity of purpose, and (f) learning partnership. Defining the elements in detail will underscore the importance of each of the elements in building a positive school culture. Positive school culture may lead to a better learning environment for students.

**2.3.2 Collaborative Leadership;** Collaborative leadership describes the degree to which school leaders establish and maintain collaborative relationships with school staff (Gruenert, 1998). High stake's testing can push teachers and administrators to deliver better test results but not necessarily better learning (Blankstein, 2004). Principals empower teachers to become leaders through these collaborative relationships (Cordeiro & Cunningham, 2003). The principal is responsible for sustaining the cohesiveness of the stakeholders. Community and staff members want to feel that they are part of something (Raelin, 2006). Failing to establish opportunities for teachers to be leaders can create an empty professional relationship between teachers and school leaders (Marshall, 2005).

The lead teacher, master teacher, and program coordinator, for example, carry out a wide range of responsibilities for the school. Block (2003) discussed the notion of an

ideal social space that was conducive to solving even the most perplexing of organizational problems. Leadership is the critical element in fostering the critical discussions necessary to build the notion of a social space in schools. The principal must exert strong leadership to ensure that teachers trust the concept of becoming leaders (Schlechty, 2002). Effective collaborative leadership stresses the importance of the principal, as the instructional leader, working with the teachers to improve student success (Schlechty, 2002). The concept of distributive leadership entails leaders and followers in the same organization changing roles as the situation warrants. Harris (2003) posited that research indicated distributed approaches to leadership in schools facing challenging circumstances are important, especially in problem solving and decision making. Collaborative leadership is essential in building distributive leadership in schools (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond 2003; Spillane & Sheerer, 2004). The principal giving up power is a key element in fostering collaborative leadership. Empowerment is the process that encourages teachers to help the school achieve its primary goal of improving the work teachers give to students (Short & Greer, 2002).

Having parents, teachers, and students as part of the decision-making process is new to some principals, but vital to the success of implementing a school's mission statement (Short & Greer, 2002). Schlechty (2005) noted that, "The important thing a teacher does is to lead—meaning to inform, inspire, direct, encourage, and nurture" (p. 106). Empowerment includes, but is not limited to, making information available. It also encourages autonomy and participation, redesigning work, fostering teams, promoting egalitarianism, and giving work meaning (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Teachers can be further empowered by increasing their autonomy and obtaining support from the principal for their efforts (Bass, 1990). Principals can also encourage innovation and risk taking by teachers. "Risks can be taken, and mistakes can be tolerated" (Bass, p. 90). Innovation and risk taking are essential components for continuous improvement. School leaders act as members of teams rather than sole decision makers. Principals must believe that through participation in decision-making teachers will be more

committed to the results of such decision-making and the decisions themselves will be better (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

Principals create environments that provide teachers with enabling experiences that lead to empowerment. "In schools, enabling experiences may focus on roles and responsibilities, the culture of the school, the way problems are identified and solved, or the structure of the organization" (Short & Greer, 2002, p. 154). Participating in the shared decision-making process is an example of empowerment. Principals create a culture where teachers participate in decisions involving budgets, teacher selection, scheduling, and curriculum. A school culture that encourages teachers to participate in decisions fosters honest and open communication and risk taking (Short & Greer). Several researchers purported that the principal could hamper the ability of teachers to lead by not sharing authority (Scribner, Hager, & Warne, 2002; Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002; Somech, 2002). Principals can hamper teachers' ability to share in the decision-making process by seeking opinions of the teachers and then making the decision themselves (Short & Greer, 2002). Principals and stakeholders can benefit from collaborative leadership within the structure of a school leadership team. A functional school leadership team fosters a culture of collaborative leadership. Although there is no best way for a school's governance system to work, a school's leadership team is a healthy method to incorporate shared decision making by teachers.

The leadership team is the focal point for school-wide communication and decision making about learning and instruction. Leaders of learning put learning at the center of everything they do; student learning first, then everyone else's learning in support of student learning (Glickman, 2002; Stoll, Fink, & Earl, 2002). The leadership team coordinates and integrates all activities that occur within the school building and between school and community organizations. The leadership team can identify the critical learning challenges students are facing school-wide and find effective ways to address them. Leadership teams are implementing methods that include stakeholders' input in identifying a clear direction and focus (Marino, 2007). Serving on the leadership team allows teachers to feel empowered, to assume new roles and responsibilities, to

try new ideas and take risks, and to assess openly the results. Marino stated that, "By establishing a community of leaders, administrators can collectively harness the talent of a diverse group of individuals and benefit from their multiple perspectives" (p. 10). The principal as a model for collaborative leadership is essential. The principal plays a pivotal role in fostering a trusting, respectful atmosphere within the school. Day's (2005) research study found that trust, drawing upon and constructing social capital within the school and between the school and its local community, was a hallmark in the research study. A trusting environment is optimal for collaborative leadership. The quality of a principal's leadership depends upon the quality of his or her relationships with the entire school community (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Principals must model the cooperative behaviors they expect from teachers. Modeling occurs through collaboration with teachers on important matters. Integrity and fairness should guide the principal in collaborating with teachers, and trust and fairness are essential for healthy collaborative leadership to take place. Providing a caring, trusting work environment and many opportunities for participation and shared decision making are two of the ways that organizations enlist people's commitment and involvement at all levels (Bolman & Deal). "Schools are places where principals, teachers, students, and parents all lead" (Blankstein, 2004, p. 210).

**2.3.3 Teacher Collaboration;** Teacher collaboration describes the degree to which teachers engage in constructive dialogue that furthers the educational vision of the school (Gruenert, 1998). "Collaboration is not natural or common in the traditional school environment" (Blankstein, 2004). Principals must make a deliberate effort in establishing a collaborative school culture. Principals must also define what effective collaboration looks like. Collaboration can easily become an empty gesture if there is no commitment to work together to address common concerns (Blankstein). Constructive dialogue, hard work, and determination that no child will slip through the cracks are elements of teacher collaboration (Reeves, 2004). Faculties that work together can set clear goals for teaching and learning, monitor student progress over time, and develop

action plans to increase student achievement and establish a learning community (Dearman & Alber, 2005). Providing time for teachers to plan learning activities that have meaning and value to students is essential for fostering teacher collaboration and increasing student achievement (DuFour, 2004). A positive school culture consistently provides support to enhance the academic achievement of all learners in a diverse student population Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). The support ensures that individual needs and strengths prepare the students for success with state standards, postsecondary education, and the world of work (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). The goal of a schedule is to facilitate the entire school program (R. DuFour, R. DuFour, Eaker, & Karhanek, 2004). The principal's primary responsibility is to use the resources of the school to allow teachers to provide quality work for the students.

The physical characteristics of a school cannot become a barrier to collaboration. "Individual buildings, separated egg-crate classrooms and isolated portables are all architectural features which can induce individualism and make it hard for teachers to work together" (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996, p. 40). The resources, which allow teachers to provide the quality work needed include time, technology, finances, and people (Schlechty, 2005). Schmoker (2004) posited schools would perform better if teachers worked in focused, supportive teams. Supportive teams provide opportunities for teachers to share ideas about school matters, specifically student learning (Bezzina, 2006). Teachers learn best from other teachers, not from external experts (DuFour et al., 2005). Collaboration, which is a source of power in team building, has many benefits for both teachers and schools. Teachers' collaboration builds an awareness of interdependence and friendship. For example, when teachers recognize the benefits of helping one another, and realize it is expected, they will work together to achieve common goals. Nias, Southworth, and Yeomans' (1989) study revealed that help, support, trust, and openness are at the heart of a collaborative staff. Silverman (2006) stated that, "Employees with a best friend at work are more productive, likely to positively engage with customers, share new ideas, and stay longer in their jobs" (p. 2). When people work together to achieve common goals, they stimulate each other to

higher levels of accomplishment. Collaboration builds and reinforces recognition and mutual support within a team. Collaboration leads to commitment to support and accomplish organizational goals. Teachers gain confidence when they know others share their views and are acting in concert with them (Silverman). Teachers working in isolation do not promote the sharing of resources between teachers. Isolationism cuts the lifeline of useful information (Schmoker, 2004). Teachers, who engage in a process of questioning and investigating teaching and learning with their peers, gradually revise their beliefs to incorporate those new practices in their classrooms (Fullan, 2000). The role of the principal is to make informational resources available to teachers, providing them with opportunities for in-depth conversations about teaching and schooling, supporting well-organized programs for professional development, and introducing new ideas for the school to consider (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). When administrators designate time during the school day for faculty members to study together, teachers can make a positive change (Fullan, 2000). Teachers must collaboratively engage in study teams that develop and implement curricula and assessments, look at student work to reflect upon their practice, and plan together to meet the needs of the students (Kelleher, 2003). Teachers working together promote the planning and implementation of creative lessons that incorporate inquiry and lifelong learning (Coatney, 2007).

Teacher collaboration requires teamwork, not group work. Teachers need to listen to other team members' concerns, take the concerns seriously, and try to facilitate the concerns. "For schools to be more cohesive and synergistic there should be an open communication among teachers" (Toremén & Karakus, 2007, p. 4). Positive school cultures distinguish between the two. Characteristics of group members include working individually, communicating what to do, distrusting the motives of their colleagues, having little opportunity to utilize their skills, and participating little in the decision making process. In contrast, characteristics of team members include recognizing their interdependence and understanding both personal and team goals are best accomplished with mutual support, feeling a sense of ownership for their jobs, contributing their skills to the organization, working in a climate of trust, practicing

honest and open communication, and participating in decisions affecting the team. Collaborative school cultures emphasize hard work, a strong and common commitment, dedication, collective responsibility, and a special sense of pride (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996). Collaborative cultures also raise student achievement and facilitate the commitment to change and improvement (Fullan & Hargreaves). Restructuring a school's governance to include shared decision-making will ultimately improve student achievement (Erbes, 2006). Teachers working in teams will positively affect student achievement. Collaboration is highly important in learning for teachers (Fernandez & Robinson, 2006). Teamwork and collaboration are necessary in order for teachers to discuss the learning challenges of their students and to develop collaboratively lessons that more effectively meet students' needs (Wagner, 2004). Together teachers can control the content of the curriculum they actually deliver to students (Schmoker, 2004). This type of control ensures that the state-mandated curriculum is the primary focus in the classroom.

Teachers simply must know what students are to learn (Marzano, 2003). Teachers need to establish a common, concise set of essential curricular standards and teach to them on a generally common schedule (Schmoker, 2006). Teachers can also control the qualities and characteristics of the tasks assigned to students (Schlechty, 2002). The sense of control over the content delivered to the students and the emotional outlets teaming provides for teachers contribute to building a positive school culture. Effective teams also make data-driven decisions (DuFour et al., 2004). The use of common assessments by teachers is essential in determining how best to meet students' academic needs. "Both effective assessment procedures and effective use of the associated data are fundamental to a school's continuing achievement and improvement" (Blankstein, 2004, p. 142). Creating a culture of trust is essential in sharing data to make continuous improvements. "As trust among teachers grows and meeting protocols are well established, data revealing distinctions between results of various teachers' classrooms can be shared" (Blankstein, p. 145). Assessments should mesh perfectly with what teachers want students to learn. True teamwork entails a

regular schedule of formal meetings where teachers focus on the details of lessons and adjust the lessons based on the assessment results (Schmoker, 2006). Schmoker (2006) noted that, "Data make the invisible visible, revealing strengths and weaknesses that are easily concealed" (p. 38). Data also promote certainty, which increases teachers' confidence in their abilities to collect and analyze student data. Data can convey the magnitude of a problem and help teachers establish instructional priorities (Schmoker, 2006).

Establishing a professional learning community requires teachers to be willing to work together to analyze and improve their classroom practice. Teachers meeting regularly have the opportunity to engage in the dialogue about teaching practices that promote deep team teaching (DuFour et al., 2005). Deep team learning leads to higher levels of student achievement. Schools that value surface level learning and teach to the test in response to high-stakes testing measures lack professional learning communities (DuFour et al., 2004).

**2.3.4 Professional Development;** Professional development describes the degree that teachers value continuous personal development and school-wide improvement (Gruenert, 1998). A positive school culture ensures that the climate, culture, and practices of the school continually reinforce and support the professional growth of all adults and include effective and varied professional development opportunities. All staff is committed to collaboration and shared inquiry and decision making that promotes continuous professional growth to ensure student achievement and organizational productivity (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). Schools, unlike most major businesses, spend relatively little on training and development (Schlechty, 2005). Teachers do not look favorably on mandatory in-service training and principals often state that a lack of time prevents the implementation of staff development (Schlechty, 2005). With traditional staff development, classroom application of innovative strategies is minimal because teachers do not have adequate time to study together (Dearman & Alber, 2005). The goal of professional development in schools must be to improve

results in terms of student learning, not simply to enhance practice. Facilitating student growth and development is the ultimate purpose of professional development (Gordon, 2004). Effective professional development depends upon strong leadership and support, collegiality and collaboration, data-based development, program integration, a developmental perspective, relevant learning activities, and professional development as a way of life within the culture of the school.

Positive school cultures emphasize lifelong learning as a necessary component for continuous improvement. Barth (1981) explained that, "Probably nothing within a school has more impact upon students in terms of skills development, self-confidence, or classroom behavior than the personal and professional growth of their teachers" (p. 145). The principal must advocate, nurture, and strive to sustain a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning, and staff professional growth (Blankstein, 2004).

The principal as instructional leader has an intricate role in promoting meaningful staff development for teachers as well as being involved in the professional development process itself. Principals must exhibit, model, and celebrate lifelong learning. Students model what they observe adults do. Adults embracing the concept of lifelong learning model lifelong learning for the students. The principal who joins with the staff and students in learning activities is the one who changes the school culture into one that fosters lifelong learning (DuFour et al., 2005).

A characteristic of a positive school culture occurs when adults in the school as a learning community take advantage of opportunities offered by the school, district, community, and state to enhance their academic knowledge and insights into accountability initiatives as well as their mental, emotional, and physical health to promote positive relationships with all stakeholders (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). Professional development for school leaders is necessary to help them develop the communication, trust-building, collaborative, problem-solving, and facilitative skills needed for transformational leadership (Gordon, 2004). The pace of change and the turbulence of organizational life require every leader to continue his or her development

in purposeful ways (Schlechty, 2003). Professional development fosters collegiality and professional dialogue, helps teachers develop a common educational purpose, and facilitates collaborative planning, experimentation, and critique of teacher practice (Gordon, 2004). These skills are necessary for creating and sustaining a positive school culture. Great opportunities for professional development reside under the schoolhouse roof and the principal can be a powerful force in assisting teacher growth. Professional growth refers to teachers' perceptions that the principal provides them with opportunities to grow and develop professionally, learn continuously, and expand their own skills (Short & Greer, 2002). Fullan (1990) linked classroom improvement to school improvement via professional development.

The four critical characteristics of effective professional development are collegiality, shared purpose, belief in continuous improvement, and appropriate structures that include roles, policies, and organizational arrangements (Fullan, 1990). Fullan (1990) purported that staff development must be seen both as part of a broader approach focused on changing school culture and as the key link in such an approach between the classroom and the school. Supporting teachers instructionally, particularly during the implementation of a new program, is the heart of leadership and of fostering a positive school culture (McEwan, 2003). For students to learn, teachers must learn. Brosnan (2003) explained that, "Teachers and students go hand in hand as learners—or they don't go at all" (p. 86). Principals attempting to implement school improvement initiatives must take into account the school's culture. School culture and professional development interact (Gordon, 2004). Professional development for teachers and administrators is an effective strategy for developing precision in knowledge, skills, and daily practices for improving learning. Capacity building and professional learning for teachers and principals are essential for school reform initiatives to be successful (Campbell & Fullan, 2006). Engaging in capacity building, which includes focusing on district and school strategies for achieving improvement such as developing school improvement teams, strengthening the role of the principal, helping schools develop collaborative learning cultures, and increasing assessment for learning capabilities at

the school and district level, promotes positive school cultures. Professional development is critical in increasing student achievement. It is critical for all teachers to engage in results-oriented professional development. Effective professional development is results driven, standards based, and embedded in teachers' daily work (Schlechty, 2003).

School improvement plans must identify the pressing learning challenges and the professional development activities in which the teachers need to participate in. Solid teacher capacity, expertise, and commitment are crucial factors for ensuring effective teaching practices to raise student achievement (Campbell & Fullan, 2006). Above average teaching could eliminate the achievement gap on some state assessments (Haycock, 2005). Building capacity requires districts to implement a combination of types of professional learning for teachers. These types include the use of external expertise, state-sponsored in-service sessions, and school and system professional learning teams (Campbell & Fullan).

Teachers need to share in the creation of professional development that fosters student achievement. Principals should expect that teachers develop annual professional development plans linked to school- or district-wide instructional and student performance goals, and not linked to administrative and political pressures (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996). The principal must support this expectation by providing the time for teachers to implement the knowledge gained from professional development experiences (Campbell & Fullan, 2006). The resource of time is also critical in fostering a high level of collegial support.

**2.3.5 Collegial Support;** Collegial support describes the degree to which teachers work together effectively. Collegiality is important to the health of the school and the health of its educators (Brosnan, 2003). Teachers should trust each other, value each other's ideas, and assist each other as they work to accomplish the tasks of the school organization (Gruenert, 1998). Collegial support encourages colleagues to share their personal professional development experiences. Collegial support also provides opportunities for teachers to review the knowledge base of specific professional

development experiences and allows teachers to practice the desired behaviors of implementing strategies learned in professional learning experiences (Walsh & Sattes, 2005). Barth (2001) said, "I wonder how many children's lives might be saved if we educators disclosed what we know to each other" (p. 60).

A positive school culture consistently supports and enhances the social growth and development of all learners, ensuring the learners acquire the ability to interact positively and effectively with diverse peers and adults within the school and in the world beyond the school environment (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). Teachers can easily continue to work in relative isolation with only limited support from colleagues if the principal does not create and sustain a positive school culture and opportunities for collegiality (Barth). However, in a culture of high-stakes accountability, no teacher acting alone can improve student achievement for the entire school. Haycock (2005) reported that if teachers who work alone made all instructional decisions inferior practices would dominate in most schools. To cope with the challenges of high-stakes testing and accountability, teachers need to work together to reflectively review student work. The review process needs to lead teachers to modifying researched based instructional strategies to improve student achievement (Dearman & Alber, 2005). Educator dialogue and problem solving are essential in building capacity to improve student achievement (Fullan, 2000). Collegial support and technical support from technology specialists and persons with special enterprise in curriculum design and assessment are required to create and sustain the positive school culture necessary to improve student achievement school wide (Schlechty, 2002). Lifelong learning is a contributing factor to the level of collegiality in a school. It is important to formulate a working definition of self-directed learning. "Self directed learning is a self-motivated desire to pursue one's choice of knowledge" (Hsu & Shiue, 2005, p. 144). Self-directed learning begins with a person having the need to know or being curious about a certain subject.

Knowles' (1980) theory of andragogy indicated that as a person matured, the self-concept moved from being a dependent human being to being a self-directed

human being. Self-directed learners are individuals that have control over the learning process (Hsu & Shiue). Having control allows the self-directed learners to be selective regarding the type of learning environment (Hsu & Shiue). Self-directed learners show more independence than learners who are less self directed. The self-directed learner uses self-motivation to engage in lifelong learning experiences. Being more independent, the self-directed learner is a proactive learner with greater motivation and retention (Hsu & Shiue, 2005). The self-directed learner possesses a solid foundation in subject matter from past learning experiences. Self-directed learners bring into any learning experience resources from experiences and training (Knowles, 1980).

The resources from previous training are talking points for the self-directed learner to educate others. These learning experiences make it more than likely that self-directed learners learn from each other. Motivation is a key concept that is important to self-directed learners. Vroom's expectancy theory posited that motivation was a result of a rational calculation (Dessler, 2001). Calculation allows adults in deciding to participate in a learning experience. Motivation, according to Vroom's expectancy theory, consisted of three influences. A person thinks about these influences prior to engaging in learning experiences. First, a person thinks about the effort he or she will put into the learning experience (Dessler, 2001). The person has to believe that the effort will yield acceptable performance. Second, a person thinks about whether his or her performance will lead to some type of reward (Dessler). Third, a person thinks about the value of the rewards and decides how positive they are.

Using Vroom's framework, a self-directed learner, being in control of the learning process, selects a learning activity that the self-directed learner has confidence in completing. The reward for a self-directed learner is gaining new knowledge and applying the new knowledge to an applicable problem. Gaining new knowledge and applying it to solve a problem is gratification for a self-directed learner.

**2.3.6 Unity of Purpose;** Unity of purpose is the degree to which teachers work toward a common mission for the school (Gruenert, 1998). A mission statement

provides the stakeholders with a clear understanding of the school's purpose and existence (Blankstein, 2004). Three critical questions form the foundation of a mission statement. First, what do we expect students to learn? Second, how will we know students are learning? Third, what will we do when students do not learn? (DuFour, 2002). Teachers understand, support, and perform in accordance with that mission (Gruenert). To choose a direction, a leader must first have developed a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the school or organization. Leaders must be able to engage stakeholders through the creation of a shared vision (Bennis, 2003). Transformational leaders set the vision and project the vision in a way as to empower others to take responsibility in achieving it (Short & Greer, 2004).

Planning and organization are vital to any organization. Planning and organization are the processes, procedures, structures, and products that focus the operations of a school on ensuring attainment of standards and high levels of learning for all students (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). An operational school that exemplifies successful planning and organization has a written school vision and mission that are reflective of the district's vision and mission. The school's vision presents a picture of the desired future and ways stakeholders would like the school to be different in the future. Altering negative beliefs and values can transform a school (Richardson, 2004). Mission and purpose give members guidance toward the organizational goals on a daily basis (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Compelling beliefs and vision give focus and direction, desired results are clear, and everyone knows that decisions are in accordance with the beliefs, vision, and results to be achieved (Schlechty, 2003).

The principal and school administrators foster the development of the vision of the school and articulate the vision as spokespersons for the school. The school's mission represents a written synthesis of (a) what the purpose of the organization is, (b) who the individuals and groups responsible for achieving the school's goals are, and (c) who are the clients the school functions as a unique learning organization for. The mission also communicates the academic direction of the school and the responsibility of the school to its students. In a positive school culture, the mission understandable,

believed, and practiced by staff and other stakeholders (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). The vision and mission synthesize the focus of the entire school and reflect consensus and understanding among all administrators, faculty, staff, parents, community, and students. The vision and mission in successful schools consistently guide and inform the continuous improvement process (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). Vision is a central component of leadership. Clarity and direction are essential in the goal-setting process. Setting organizational and personal goals provides the foundation for motivation and inspiration. Effective schools have a culture characterized by well-defined goals all stakeholders value (Brown, 2005). The principal has a critical role in communicating goals that define the school in terms of academic achievement. Transformational leadership encompasses key concepts such as vision, mission, and goal setting. Transformational leaders are change agents.

Bass (1990) identified four dimensions of transformational leadership: charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Charismatic leaders have extraordinary influence over their followers (Bass). Words such as vision, communication, symbols, and charisma describe a charismatic leadership style (Bass). Followers describe charismatic leaders as those who make everyone enthusiastic about assignments. Inspirational leaders are goal oriented (Bass). The changes in the attitudes and assumptions of the followers in the organization are the catalyst for change. Bass (1990) noted that transformational leadership commonly involves the actions generated from the leader's influence over the followers. The leader's influence causes the people in an organization to be motivated to accomplish goals. Transformational leadership provides organizations with a clear vision and purpose. Leadership requires vision. The followers become champions of a well communicated vision. The process of creating a shared vision promotes collegial and collaborative relationships. Bennis (1990) explained that, "All leaders have the capacity to create a compelling vision, one that takes people to a new place and the ability to translate that vision into reality" (p. 46). An individual, who is involved in the realization of the organization's vision, needs to share the same vision for the

organization and support the vision. The stakeholders of the organization must know that the overall vision of the school is student success. A shared vision can be better sustained over time than a vision that is poorly communicated (Schlechty, 2003).

The presence of an active school vision is the single most important success factor for an organization (Gruenert, 1998). Groups that are able to express what they wish to accomplish through a vision statement discover the passion they share about the organization. Working together to develop vision helps the stakeholders identify the core business behind their work, tapping into the underlying individual and shared values. It is the responsibility of the principal to ensure that the staff, students, and parents of a school guide their improvement effort by helping to create a vision statement. The vision is a portion of the philosophy the principal shares with the community, when explaining how the action associated with the vision is visible in the everyday behaviors and programs of the school (Gruenert).

Communicating the overall school district's vision is a common element in successful school systems. The district's vision and shared focus stress student achievement as the priority. The vision articulates clearly in the district's focused strategic direction and actions for student achievement (Campbell & Fullan, 2006). Principals have the responsibility for developing and realizing the vision for student achievement with the stakeholders. In positive school cultures, school staffs share a commitment to the vision for student achievement (Campbell & Fullan). The coherence between the district's vision, school plans, and classroom plans reflects the commitment to the vision (Campbell & Fullan).

**2.3.7 Learning Partnership;** Learning partnership is the degree to which teachers, parents, and students work together for the common good of the student. The common good of the students includes academic performance and the student as a whole. Positive school cultures foster respect, best effort, honesty, good judgment, and kindness from all of the stakeholders (Lickona, 2004). Parents and teachers share common expectations and communicate frequently about student performance. Parents

trust teachers, and students generally accept responsibility for their schooling (Gruenert, 1998). Most parents know their children much better than most teachers know them (Schlechty, 2003). Parents are a valuable source of information for teachers. Teachers do not always exploit this source of information for the best interest of the student. Instead of asking the parents about their children, teachers may attempt to tell the parents about their children. By allowing the parents to tell about their children, teachers will gain valuable information about the most effective methods to engage the children in work that has meaning and value (Schlechty, 2003).

A healthy relationship with the community fosters a positive school culture. Informing the community consistently on student progress is an essential building block for a positive school culture. Schools should satisfy a community's reasonable expectation that they provide meaningful information on how they are performing. Parents, communities, and local employers want to know about not only a school and its programs but also how well the school is doing. Parents tend to think highly of their local schools. Principals often communicate this confidence to the community by stating that instruction is good enough (Schmoker, 2006). This sense of reasonable accountability between schools and communities builds a learning partnership that benefits the students. Continuous school improvement requires a partnership between the school and community. Research by Henderson (1987), and Henderson and Berla (1995) concluded that greater parental involvement lead to greater student achievement, irrespective of such factors as socioeconomic status or ethnic background. The conclusions also stated that the most common predictor to student achievement is the ability of the student's family to create a home environment that encourages learning; to communicate high, yet reasonable, expectations for achievement, and to become a partner in the student's education (Henderson; Henderson & Berla). The United States Congress underscored the importance of parental involvement in the National Educational Goals. Goal 8 stated that, "By the year 2000, every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in

promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children (National Educational Goals Panel, 1995).

In high-poverty schools, a lack of parental involvement is often the first excuse for poor performance. Student, family, community involvement, and support are essential components in bridging the gap between schools and communities. Schools must have empathy for students' home life situations. Schools must be aware of the specific conditions that affect many families and make it difficult for them to support their children's learning (Blankstein, 2004). The school as a community of learning must involve parents and community members as active participants. In positive school cultures, there is a consistent and growing evidence of parental involvement and volunteerism, participation in workshops and enrichment activities, and a process of two way communication. Positive school cultures embrace the concept of everyone collaborating to help the school achieve its continuous improvement targets and short and long-range goals (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). Positive school cultures also foster working together with families to help them overcome problems and barriers that interfere with participating in the children's education (Blankstein). The school needs to take responsibility to establish a steady method of communicating with the community. Effective principals establish open and honest communication with the stakeholders of the school. This type of communication remains constant even when the communication about the school may be bad or negative (McEwan, 2003).

Communication between the school and parents and community members is consistently regular, two-way, and meaningful with clear and comprehensive evidence of its contribution to short- and long-range improvement plan goals, particularly student achievement targets (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). Positive school cultures embrace creating alternative methods of communicating with families who lack telephones and internet service (Blankstein, 2004). Teachers and school officials need to contact parents as soon as a student is at risk of a course failure (Reeves, 2006b). The principal needs to be the cheerleader for communicating the school goals clearly and consistently so that the goals implant in the school's culture. The principal must also

lead the charge of inviting families into the school. Inviting families into the school can be a catalyst for changing the culture of isolationism teachers often feel. Teachers need to be accepting of parent volunteers in the classroom in order to facilitate a positive school culture (Blankstein). The school needs to establish a support structure to include the community in the decision-making process.

The school staff must work collaboratively to ensure that rules, policies, and procedures related to sustaining a safe, productive, and inviting learning environment are clearly and effectively articulated (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). In addition, a requirement is that implementation of the policies is successful and consistent throughout the school (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). Because of the collaboration, the school will consistently be a safe, orderly, and inviting learning community (Georgia Department of Education, 2006a). The principal is responsible for modeling exemplary behavior in terms of morals and values. The highly effective principal is a character builder and a role model whose values, words, and deeds are marked by trustworthiness, integrity, authenticity, respect, generosity, and humility (McEwan, 2003). The community expects certain academic standards from the school. Maximization of instructional time in the master schedule ensures the community's expectations of fulfilling academic standards (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). The master schedule must reflect no interruptions that would otherwise detract from time on learning. In a positive school culture, the school emphasizes the value of in-class attendance and active student engagement in the learning process in all content areas and grade levels (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). The level of student engagement is high when producing quality work (Schlechty, 2005). The physical condition of the school reflects the quality of the relationship with the community. The school's physical plant should reflect a very high state of maintenance and should contain many examples of up-to-date or even state-of-the-art mechanical systems and technology. These reflections are inviting to the community. The overall condition of the physical plant thoroughly enhances the school as a learning community and positively affects student and staff perceptions of the learning environment as safe

and orderly (Georgia Department of Education, 2006b). A safe and orderly school fosters a positive school culture. An inviting physical plant will attract the community to participate in students' learning.

### **2.3.9 The Significance of an Effective, Collaborative School Culture**

A school with an effective learning culture...

- i) Maintains the image of a "professional community," similar to the fields of law or medicine. Teachers pursue a clear, shared purpose, engage in collaborative activity, and accept a collective responsibility for student learning (Newman & Wehlage, 1995).
- ii) Has a clear mission. Teachers value the interchange of ideas with colleagues. Strong values exist that support a safe and secure environment. There are high expectations of everyone, including teachers. There is strong, not rigid, leadership (Deal & Peterson, 1990).
- iii) Encourages teachers to work collaboratively with each other and with the administration to teach students so they learn more (Fullan, 1993).
- iv) Is a place where both teachers and students learn (Rosenholtz, 1989).

Schools organized around democratic and collaborative cultures produce students with higher achievement and better levels of skills and understanding than do traditionally organized schools (Darling-Hammond, 1997). In addition, Fullan (1998) reported:

*"Student achievement increases substantially in schools with collaborative work cultures that foster a professional learning community among teachers and others, focus continuously on improving instructional practice in light of student performance data, and link to standards and staff development support. (p.8)"*

Gruenert (2005) analyzed the relationship between school culture and student achievement in a study of 81 Indiana elementary, middle, and high schools. Working from the assumption that school culture can be defined as the guiding beliefs, assumptions, and expectations that are evident in the way the school operates (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1996), he found significant relationships between various factors of

school culture, school climate, leadership, and student achievement. Of most interest are the significant correlational relationships between school culture factors and student academic orientation, instructional management, and student achievement in both math and language arts. Of the twelve relational tests between culture and student achievement, nine were significant. Though only correlational in design, this study adds to the growing body of research supporting the importance of an effective, collaborative school culture.

Reporting findings from a national study of highly successful middle level schools Valentine, Clark, Hackmann, and Petzko (2004), provided practical insight about effective, collaborative school cultures in highly successful schools.

- i) Principals and teachers shared a common core of values and beliefs that guided programs and practices, including high expectations for all students, education of the whole child, all students will be successful, and a dedication to a coherent curriculum, student-centered instruction, and the effective use of formative and summative student data.
- ii) Principals viewed themselves as collaborative leaders, as did their teachers. They fostered collegiality and the opportunity for collaborative work among teachers centered on curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- iii) Teachers were also strongly committed to collaboration, fulfilling school-wide roles as decision-makers, coordinators of professional development, and leaders in the efforts to improve classroom instruction across the whole school.
- iv) Student and adult learning was the focus of the schools, with all adults committed to continual learning for student and themselves.
- v) School structures, such as student and adult schedules and physical arrangements of classrooms, were designed to foster collaboration and relationship building among students-teachers, students-students, and teachers-teachers.
- vi) Principals and teachers indicated that building "relationships" among adults was a major factor in creating their effective school cultures, with principals and

teachers regularly discussing the importance of relationships and the part relationships play in the difficult decision-making, problem-solving tasks that a faculty/staff must address. (p. 91-92)

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) described the link among school culture, leadership, and student achievement. They stated, "Fostering school culture that indirectly affects student achievement is a strong theme within the literature on principal leadership" (p. 47). From their comprehensive meta-analysis of empirical studies of leadership and student achievement, they described the following key leadership behaviors: (a) promote cohesion among all staff, (b) promote a sense of well-being among all staff, (c) develop an understanding of purpose among all staff, and (d) develop a shared vision of what school should be like (p. 48). They concluded that each of these leader behaviors directly related to school culture and school culture related to student achievement. In another comprehensive synthesis of the leadership literature associated with student achievement, Cotton (2002) described 26 principal behaviors that contributed to student achievement. The behaviors fell into five categories, one of which was characterized as school culture. It is evident from these two comprehensive studies of the literature that the educational research community has concluded that leadership influences school culture and school culture influences student achievement.

School leaders, both formal and informal, help shape the nature of school culture (Leithwood, 2005) and thus the nature of school improvement. Leadership and school culture go hand in hand, in both the development and the sustainability of school reform. Dantow (2005) described the relationship: "In the schools that sustained reforms, there was more likely to be continuity of leadership (but not always), commitment to the reform among key stakeholders, and the reform was an obvious feature of the structure and culture of the school" (p. 135).

## **2.4 Belief Systems**

The focus on the belief system has been examined by educational researchers who try to understand the nature of teaching and learning in school settings. A growing amount of literature suggests that teachers' beliefs have great influence on both their perceptions and judgments, and that these in turn affect their behaviors in the classroom. Teachers' beliefs and attitudes are believed to be major factors that determine teachers' practice and pedagogy (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Therefore, the belief system is an essential part of improving both professional preparation and teaching effectiveness (Mewborn, 2002; Nespor, 1987; Ruddell & Kern, 1986). According to Rokeach (1968), "a belief system may be defined as having represented within it, in some organized psychological but not necessarily logical form, each and every one of a person's countless beliefs about physical and social reality". Rokeach identifies three simple assumptions regarding beliefs. They are: (1) beliefs vary in centrality; not all beliefs are equally important; (2) the more central a belief, the more it will resist change; and (3) change in central beliefs lead to overall change in the belief system in order to change peripheral beliefs that lead to less change in overall systems. These assumptions need to be considered when addressing changes in teachers' beliefs.

## **2.5 Teacher Practices and Beliefs**

Beliefs influence how teachers may teach (Kagan, 1992). Kagan refers to beliefs as a "particularly provocative form of personal knowledge" and argues that most of a teacher's professional knowledge can be regarded more accurately as belief. Consequently, teachers' beliefs have great influence on the way they perceive, judge, and act in the classroom. Teachers' beliefs often refer to attitudes about education, teaching, learning and students. Three patterns related to changing teacher beliefs have been conceptualized by Richardson and Calfee (1994). The patterns are: (1) teachers change their beliefs after they change their practice; (2) changes in beliefs precede changes in practice; (3) the process of changing beliefs and practice is

interactive. Pohan & Aguilar (2001) state that, "teachers' beliefs serve as filters for their knowledge bases and will ultimately affect their actions". Teachers' beliefs have a great impact on their practices in classrooms; teachers' beliefs affect various aspects of teaching and the way they interact with their children.

## **2.6 Culturally Responsive Teaching**

Many researchers have explored pedagogical approaches to integrating cultural heritage and prior experiences of minority students into the learning environment (Darling-Hammond, 2002; Gay, 2002). According to Gay (2002), these pedagogical approaches generally utilize different names to present the same idea about the importance of making "classroom instruction more consistent with the cultural orientation of ethnically diverse students". Gay (2000) points out effective teaching is inclusive of consideration for the cultural history of the students. This concern for personalizing the information taught to students communicates an appreciation for the perspectives of various ethnic experiences and identities. In order to facilitate the increase in academic achievement levels of diverse students. Teachers need to "deliberately create cultural continuity". Gay refers to these teachers as demonstrating "culturally responsive teaching" (CRT) as a means of describing instructional behaviors that are responsive to the cultural needs of students. Gay defines culturally responsive teachings as a multifaceted approach to teaching and learning and identifies six components: (a) validating; (b) comprehensive; (c) multidimensional; (d) empowering; (e) empowering; (f) transformative; and (g) emancipatory.

According to Gay, these components of culturally responsive teaching "simultaneously develop along with academic achievement, social consciousness and critique, cultural affirmation, competence and exchange; community building and personal connections; individual self-worth and abilities and an ethic of caring" (p. 43). Culturally responsive teaching is a conceptual framework that can be utilized in providing effective instruction in all subject areas with culturally diverse students. The first component of CRT is "validating". This component communicates the strengths of

diverse students' cultural heritage. It acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups as legacies that affect students' dispositions, attitudes, and approaches to learning. So much that teachers look to build meaningful bridges between home and community in order to make school experiences meaningful. The "validating" component of CRT incorporates a variety of instructional techniques that are related to different learning styles (Banks, 2006), and instructs students to know and praise their cultural backgrounds as well as others.

Ladson-Billings (1992) describes culturally responsive teaching as instruction that incorporates learning for all aspects of the learner which includes affective, communal, mental, and political aspects of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Expectations and skills within this approach are not separate items that are taught in isolation but are interwoven as one. This approach is inclusive throughout all curriculum content and classroom processes. Within this approach student's work as a team in which each individual takes responsibility for other's learning success. CRT as a multidimensional approach to instruction encourages curricular alignment across disciplines. Multidimensional culturally responsive teaching involves examining an extensive array of affective and mental processes together with facts with the purpose of keeping curriculum and instruction congruent with ethnic diversity. Students are allowed to question the accuracy of cultural facts introduced during instruction which provides opportunities to refine one's own cultural values.

Multidimensional teaching requires teachers to use a wide range of cultural knowledge, experiences, perspectives and contributions based on the curriculum content, learning context, classroom climate, student-teacher relationships, instructional techniques and performance assessments (Gay, 2000). Culturally responsive teaching is empowering which facilitates students' academic achievement levels and it promotes the development of good citizenship. The empowering aspect of CRT enables students to cultivate personal integrity and academic success. Students who are empowered are confident, competent, and ambitious. They are risk takers and willing to pursue academic success at its highest level. Shor (1992) highlights the effect of empowering

education, he notes, The goals of this pedagogy are to relate personal growth to public life, to develop strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power, inequality and change. Shor (1992) further stresses how students are the primary source and center, subjects and outcomes, consumers and producers of knowledge.

This aspect of culturally responsive instruction clearly places the student at the center from which all learning evolves and seeks to extract the internal power to learn. According to Banks (1991), culturally responsive teaching is transformative in that it helps “students to develop the knowledge, skills and values needed to become social critics who can make reflective decisions and implement their decisions in effective personal, social, political and economic action”. The transformative agenda has two folds: it confronts the mainstream view of learning and it develops social consciousness in students so that they might apply knowledge while combating various forms of oppression such as racism and prejudice. Students are encouraged to transform classroom knowledge in ways that address societal issues and students are motivated to search for tangible solutions.

## **2.7 Social Ecology**

Social ecology is the study of people in an environment and the influences on one another (Hawley, 1950). Social ecology can be conceptualized using the Social Ecology Model (SEM), also called Social Ecological Perspective, is a framework to examine the multiple effects and interrelatedness of social elements in an environment. SEM can provide a theoretical framework to analyze various contexts in multiple types of research and in conflict communication (Oetzel, Ting-Toomey, & Rinderle, 2006). This model allows for the integration (Oetzel, Ting-Toomey, & Rinderle, 2006) of multiple levels and contexts to establish the *big picture* in conflict communication, health or physical activity contexts. Research that focuses on any one level underestimates the effects of other contexts (Klein et al., 1999; Rousseau & House,

1994; Stokols, 1996). SEM is primarily a qualitative research model to conduct field observations; however, it has and can also be utilized in experimental settings.

There are several adaptations of the Social Ecological Model; however, the initial and most utilized version is Urie Bronfenbrenner's (1977, 1979) *Ecological Systems Theory* which divides factors into four levels: macro-, exo-, meso-, and micro-, which describe influences as intercultural, community, organizational, and interpersonal or individual. Traditionally many research theorists have considered only a dichotomy of perspectives, either micro (individual behavior) or macro (media or cultural influences). Bronfenbrenner's perspective (1979) was founded on the person, the environment, and the continuous interaction of the two. This interaction constantly evolved and developed both components. However, Bronfenbrenner realized it was not only the environment directly affecting the person, but that there were layers in between, which all had resulting impacts on the next level. His research began with the primary purpose of understanding human development and behavior. Bronfenbrenner's work was an extension from Kurt Lewin's (1935) classic equation showing that behavior is a function of the person and the environment.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) considered the individual, organization, community, and culture to be nested factors, like Russian dolls. Each echelon operates fully within the next larger sphere. Although Bronfenbrenner first coined the phrase *Ecological Systems Theory*, it is necessary to mention that Amos H. Hawley (1950) conducted a significant amount of research in this field as well, along with many other philosophers, including his colleague, R. D. McKenzie. Hawley's work on the "interrelatedness of life" in his book, *Human Ecology* (1950), was grounded in Charles Darwin's writings on the "web of life".

SEM is essentially a *Systems Theory* approach to understanding development that occurs in various spheres due to actions in different systems. There are many effects that occur from cross-level influences and relationships between and among

levels that SEM addresses. Relationships include parallels or isomorphisms and discontinuities or cross-level effects (Klein et al., 1999; Rousseau and House, 1994). The single direction arrows indicate cross-level effects, whereas the circular arrows indicate isomorphisms or discontinuities.

## **2.8 Spheres of Influence**

Microsystems; consist of individual or interpersonal features and those aspects of groups that comprise the social identity (Gregson, 2001) which may include roles that a person plays (i.e. mother, father, sister, brother, child, etc.) or characteristics they have in common. These interpersonal attributes are strong as to how an individual perceives oneself. These qualities and factors can be learned, as in membership to a group, but many are ingrained (e.g., ethnicity, gender). In the interpersonal sphere, there are also many components of the individual, including psychological and cognitive factors, like personality, knowledge, beliefs (Gregson, 2001). The individual in his or her own microsystem is constantly shaped, not only by the environment, but by any encounter or other individual they come in contact with. This *shaping* is well explored in child development, as it would be unreasonable to believe a child is solely a product of the societal environment. There are multiple, simultaneous influences in child behavior and learning including culture, school, teacher, parental support and education level, involvement in extracurricular activities, etc. Examples of microsystems outside the self also include groups of friends, family, unorganized athletics, or social clubs.

Mesosystems; are the organizational or institutional factors that shape or structure the environment within which the individual and interpersonal relations occur (Gregson, 2001). These aspects can be rules, policies, and acceptable business etiquette within a more formal organization. There are some organizations that foster entirely different atmospheres than other corporations, i.e. Google, where employees may wear pajamas to the office. The organizational component is especially influential with younger, more impressionable employees, as it helps to shape the ethics and expectations of a typical organization for these individuals. Examples include schools,

---

companies, churches, and sports teams. Mesosystems are essentially the norm forming component of a group or organization, and the individual is an active participant in this group or organization. Bronfenbrenner (1979) also claimed that the richer the medium for communication in this system, the more influential it is on the microsystem.

Exosystems; refer to the community level influence, including fairly established norms, standards, and social networks (Gregson, 2001). There will likely be many organizations and interpersonal relationships that compose the community, and this web of organizations and relationships creates the community. The community is larger than the meso-; however, it is considerably smaller than the respective nation or culture it composes. The community level in a geographic sense, for example, may be Midwestern or Iowan, while the next level up (macro) would be an American. However, it does not have to be associated with any physical or spatial relationships. Another example could be membership in special interest groups or political affiliations. Exosystems are essentially any setting which affects the individual, although the individual is not required to be an active participant (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Macrosystems; are the cultural contexts (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), not solely geographically or physically, but emotionally and ideologically. These influences are more easily seen than the other factors, mainly due to the magnitude of the impact. Examples of significant intercultural effects include Communism, Western culture, Military, Islam, and Christianity. For instance, the macrosystem of Communism is a Marxist philosophy that believes that wealth should be shared in the macrosystem. A Communist country, such as Cuba (exo), governs and regulates the environment within which corporations (meso) and society or individuals (micro) exist. Media plays a significant role on all levels, as it communicates information and assists in the development of expectations for all individuals in the respective culture.

## **2.9. Summary of gaps identified by literature review**

The literature used in order to develop a theoretical framework for this study can be classified as secondary sources, as it represents data that is already collected by others. Majority write of articles used in this thesis, are empirical works carried out by different researchers in the areas of school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers. Thus as a result most of the findings are based on school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers in America, Europe and teacher – pupil relationship perspectives of these researches probably influence these results. However, the chosen literature has a wide variety when it comes to time perspective (from the 1980s to present). Even though some critics may argue the theory by Malinowski (1944) which is a structural - functionalist approach to organizational, it may not be useful today, and thus produces mixed feelings depending on what one is interesting. On and where, I believe this theoretical approach remains highly influential and important to school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers and perhaps the research field. Furthermore, despite the fact that this theory is criticized for being too method bound, there are observable connections between the different studies using different approaches. The different researchers seem to continuously refer to each other's work, and so seem to relate to each other and present more or less similar results. Due to this interline, I am of the opinion that the literature used in this study could be considered highly relevant, up-to-date and therefore, correct and useful.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Research Design

The researcher in this study employed a descriptive survey which adopted the descriptive correlation research design which is a scientific method that also involves observing and describing the behavior of a subject without influencing it in any way. Cultural practices were correlated with social ecology.

#### 3.2 Target Population

The study targets twenty public (20) primary schools that run from class one to seven in Butebo County. The total population in school was 180 teachers as a target population for the study.

#### 3.3 Sample Size

A sample of 120 respondents was taken from twenty schools.

#### 3.4 Sampling procedure

The researcher employed a technique of simple random sampling to obtain six teachers from each school were teachers had equal chances of participation in the study. Hence, a total of sample respondents were taken as part in this study, based on the computation using Slovenes' formula (1978)

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

**Table of sample size**

Category	Target	Sample	Technique
Schools	20	20	Purposive
Teachers	180	120	Slovene's formula

### 3.5 Research Instruments

**Questionnaire;** The researcher used self administered questionnaires for the respondents. These were distributed among the pre-teachers in their respective schools. The justification for using this instrument is that questionnaires are easy to quantify and analyze. In addition, the questionnaires were used because the study focuses on opinions, attitudes, feelings and perceptions of teachers. A Likert scale was preferred because it is flexible and easy to construct. Questionnaires were used because the target population is large and literate; it is therefore possible for the respondents to respond to questionnaire items.

### 3.6 Validity and Reliability tests of the Instruments

**Reliability test;** the researcher employed the test – retest method of reliability testing. Nine (09) respondents were administered with the instrument. A space of two weeks was allowed and the same instrument was given to the same respondents. The two results were correlated using the Pearson's Product moment coefficient of correlation ( $r$ ). A coefficient of 0.77 was obtained showing that the instrument was reliable. (See Appendix VI)

**Validity;** Content Validity Index (CVI) of a questionnaire focuses on the extent to which the instrument corresponds to the theoretical content as designed to measure. Content validity refers to the degree to which the text actually measures the traits for which it is designed. The researcher achieved that by use of the three researcher experts who rated the 45 questions of the questionnaire. The scores were then computed for each individually using the Content Validity index formula. Overall, the questionnaire had a CVI index of 0.8 which was above 0.5, thus it was acceptable as valid as seen from Appendix VII. Following the calculations, the results revealed a CVI 80% reliable, thus the researcher rendered the instrument appropriate for use.

### 3.7 Data Gathering Procedure

Before going to the field the researcher obtained an introduction letter from office of the director of the college of higher degrees and research. This introduced the researcher as a learner attempting to carry out an academic research. The researcher sought permission from the concerned authorities of the District Education Officer to access the respondents and to be introduced to the pre-primary schools of the County. To ensure promptness and accuracy some of the interviews were carried out by the researcher and others administered by the research assistants that the researcher employed. The data was analyzed and report prepared on the same from primary and secondary sources.

### 3.8 Data Analysis

The data was cleansed in order to screen the un wanted data from the data that carried meaning to the study. This was then later be coded under themes that give more meaning to the data that was collected. The results were then presented in form of tables and percentages for easy comprehension and later deductions will be made from the analyses. The questionnaire items were scored; 4 for the most favorable response (Strongly Agree); 3 for a favorable response (Agree); 2 for a fairly favorable response ("Disagree") and 1 for unfavorable response (Strongly disagree).In order to understand the analysis of the data collected from the respondents. The following numerical values and interpretation were utilized for the obtained means.

Mean Range	Response mode	Interpretation
3.20 – 4.00	Strongly agree	very high
2.51 – 3.25	Agree	high
1.76 – 2.50	Disagree	Low
1.00 – 1.75	Strongly Disagree	Very low

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

- i) Objective 1: Frequencies, percentage distributions
- ii) Objective 2: Means
- iii) Objective 3: Means
- iv) Objective 4: Pearson's correlation coefficient

### **3.10 Ethical Considerations**

The researcher assured the informants of confidentiality. The information given to the researcher was used solely for the purposes of research. The researcher avoided using any kind of enticement for the purpose of obtaining information. Throughout the period of the study, it was crucial that ethical issues to be taken into consideration to ensure reliability and accuracy of data.

Confidentiality; Anonymity and confidentiality was strictly observed during description and reporting of findings. From the beginning of the research, the researcher made sure that the respondents' privacy is respected.

Protection from harm; The researcher had to protect respondents against potentially harmful effects of participation, for example stress through participation and loss of self-esteem.

Informed consent; Respondents were informed about the procedures of the study and make their decision to participate. The researcher provided information on the purpose of the study, benefits to the respondents, expected duration of participation and procedures to be followed. As part of the ethical issues, the researcher sought the consent of the participants and also informed those participants who were willing to participate that their involvement in the study was purely voluntary.

Honesty; The researcher ensured that the honest throughout the study. Avoided plagiarism, the researcher acknowledged the works of other scholars that was utilized, reported the data as it had been collected, and during the whole data collection process, the researcher was honest to the respondents.

### **3.11 Limitations of the Study**

Extraneous variables: variable which the researcher could not control such as biases, misconceptions and lack of knowledge about the subject of study (for example negative attitude of the respondents).

Testing: The use of research assistants may have rendered inconsistencies such as differences in conditions and time when the data shall be obtained from respondents.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter focuses on presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The chapter examines the state of the profile of the respondents in terms of; age, gender, marital status, working experience and the teachers' level of education, identifying the teachers' culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of their student's performances, determining the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers in the teaching profession, establishing if there is a significant relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers in Butebo County, Pallisa district. The researcher was in position to access 120 teachers which was 100% of the targeted sample population. Table 1 presents the age analysis of the respondents.

#### 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

**Table 1: Profile of the Respondents**

Major Category	Subcategory Descriptions	Frequency Analysis	Percent (%)
Age	20 – 29	48	40.0
	30 – 39	53	44.2
	40 – 49	13	10.8
	50 – 59	06	05.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>
Gender	Male	81	67.5
	Female	39	32.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>
Marital Status	Single	40	30.8
	Married	73	60.8
	Divorced	3	02.6
	Widowed	4	03.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>
Working Experience	1 – 5 years	34	28.6
	6 – 10 years	53	44.2
	11 – 15 years	19	15.6
	16 + years	14	11.6
	<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>
Level of Education	Licensed	02	01.7
	Certificate	75	62.5

	Diploma	26	21.6
	Bachelors	17	14.2
	<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Primary Data (2015)**

Table 1 affirms that the age distribution of the teachers is skewed to the left as it is not normally distributed as the rate of entry is not equal to that of exit. With 40%, 44.2% draw percentages for 20 – 29 and 30 – 39 as age interval for teachers this implied that the system had clearly youthful and energetic teachers in the system. The male teachers emerged with the highest percentage (67.5%) this can be attributed that female are not so much interested in those low profile jobs of teaching in lower section as girl child having a smaller ratio compared to the boys in the education system therefore resulting into smaller numbers for female teachers. The findings revealed that 60.8% of the respondents were married and 30.8% were single implying that these were newly recruited employees in the system. However 2.6% were falling in the category of the divorced but the two lamented that were not divorced but the husbands had passed on, since the questionnaire had not carted for that thus the researcher categorize them in that section. Table 1 further revealed that a few of the respondents persisted in the system of teaching for 10 years as 15.6% of the respondents and 11.5% had worked for 16 years and beyond but these may be attributed to the less years of life expectance of Ugandans that is 47 years as a result few can make it, however it cannot be overlooked because the role of years of experience plays in the formulation of practices, beliefs and ideology. They were useful for research study because of their experience about the social aspect. 62.8% of the respondents were holding certificates as their highest level of education which is a prerequisite qualification for primary school teachers by the ministry of Education. It was found out that 1.7% of the teachers were licensed teachers who always employed by school board were there is a crisis in a school for teachers. It is seen that teachers have continued to upgrade as revealed from table 1 o which 21.6% are diploma and 14.2%

are degree holders. Table 2 presents the teachers' culture beliefs that are relevant in their profession.

## 4.2 The Teachers' Culturally Relevant Belief Systems

**Table 2: Shows the extent of the Teachers' cultural Practices' Systems**

	<b>Indicators Teachers' Culturally Relevant Belief Systems</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>	<b>Rank</b>
1	Teachers support the mission of the school	3.43	Very High	1
2	Parents trust teachers' professional judgments	3.31	Very High	2
3	Teachers and parents communicate frequently about students	3.25	Very High	3
4	Teachers trust each other	3.18	High	4
5	Teachers and parents have common expectations for student	3.01	High	5
6	Teachers work cooperatively in groups	2.74	High	6
7	Teachers are involved in the decision-making process	2.71	High	7
8	Teachers spend considerable time planning together	2.67	High	8
9	Professional development is valued by the school	2.61	High	9
10	Leaders take time to praise teachers that perform well	2.58	High	10
11	Teachers are generally aware of what other teachers are	2.49	Low	11
12	Teachers are willing to help out whenever there is a problem	2.02	Low	12
13	Teachers' ideas are valued by other teachers	2.14	Low	13
14	Leaders in your school facilitate teachers working together	1.84	Low	14
15	Teachers regularly seek ideas from seminars, colleagues & workshops	1.82	Low	15
16	Teachers take time to observe each other teaching	1.67	Very Low	16
<b>Average Mean</b>		<b>2.59</b>	<b>High</b>	

**Source: Primary Data (2015)**

Table 2 reveals that Teachers support the mission of the school was ranked the high from the analysis with a mean score of 3.43 out of the sixteen indicators that were to be measured, this was followed with 3.31, 3.25 and 3.18 mean scores that were ranked too very high of Parents trust teachers' professional judgments, Teachers and parents communicate frequently about students and Teachers trust each other respectively as respondents agreed without doubt. However the respondents disagreed without doubt that that teachers took time to observe each other teaching this meant that there is no team teaching taking place in these schools. Then also indicators such as; teachers regularly seek ideas from seminars, colleagues & workshops (1.82), Leaders in your school facilitate teachers working together (1.84) and Teachers' ideas are valued by other teachers (2.14) accrued low mean scores as seen from table 4. This implies that school culture aims at school improvement were teachers must not

overlook the fact that shaping a school's culture is a complex process as have to be empowered financially to be position to help out whenever there is a problem as their cultural routine.

### 4.3 The social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers

**Table 3: Shows the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers**

	Indicators	Mean	Interpretation	Rank
<b>A</b>	<b>Early marriage</b>			
1	Introduction Only	2.57	High	1
2	Modern with Courtship	2.12	Low	2
3	Modern-choice	1.82	Low	3
4	Traditional-Limited Choice	1.56	Very Low	4
5	Forced	1.25	Very Low	5
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>1.86</b>	<b>Low</b>	
<b>B</b>	<b>Individual Practices</b>			
1	Socioeconomic status	3.47	Very High	1
2	Self-efficacy	3.52	High	2
3	Motivation	2.71	High	3
4	Age	2.21	High	4
5	Enjoyment	2.62	High	5
6	Skills (including fundamental motor skills and sports specific skills), abilities, disabilities or injuries	2.32	Low	6
7	Sex	1.76	Low	7
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.59</b>	<b>High</b>	
<b>C</b>	<b>Social Environment Practices</b>			
1	Peers	3.02	High	1
2	Family, such as the influence of parental and sibling physical activity levels and family support	2.61	High	2
3	Community norms	2.52	High	3
4	Cultural background	2.06	Low	4
5	Spouse or partner	1.84	Low	5
6	Access to social support networks versus social isolation	1.83	Low	6
7	Influence of health & other professionals such as doctors & coaches	1.22	Very Low	7
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.02</b>	<b>Low</b>	
<b>D</b>	<b>Cultural Competency of Teachers</b>			
1	The teacher understands that the ways students think, behave, and learn are influenced by factors such as race/ethnicity, social class,	3.34	High	1
2	The teacher uses his or her understanding of how students' learn and the knowledge about his or her students'	2.77	High	2
3	The teacher knows about the lives of his or her students	2.72	High	3
4	The teacher understands how learners construct knowledge	1.91	Low	4
5	The teacher affirms the views of students from diverse backgrounds	1.86	Low	5
6	The teacher views himself or herself as responsible for and capable of bringing about educational change	1.54	Very Low	6
	<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.35</b>	<b>Low</b>	
	<b>Overall Mean</b>	<b>2.20</b>	<b>Low</b>	

**Source: Primary Data (2015)**

The indicators of social ecology considered, the analysis revealed that early marriage had an average mean score of 1.86 interpreted as being low, with introduction being rated the highest (2.57) that finds respondents into early marriage. This meant that those that had a well socio economic background were in position to marry early.

Individual practices was a second indicator considered under social ecology that was interpreted being high that respondents agree without doubt, being a contributing factor that increases the likelihood of an individual being physically active with a mean score of 2.59. Socio economic status as one of the pointers under individual practices emerged the highest ranked with 3.47 mean score implying that individual who economically active will always be socially active, however age was rated least with a mean score of 1.76 implying that individual will always move out of the social active arena as long as they grow old as a result they will retire from active civil service.

Table 3 further reveals that under the social environment practices as one of the indicators it was found that peers contribute greatly (3.02), followed by the family that has the influence of parental and sibling physical activity levels and family support, however the influence of health and other professionals such as doctors and coaches was reported being a greatly driving factor for individuals out of the social environment. Generally, the social environmental practices were rated with an average mean score of 2.02 interpreted as low that means respondents disagreed with some doubt.

Cultural competency of teachers got the highest indicator being that the teachers understand the ways students think, behave and learn are influenced by factors such as race/ethnicity, social class and language that was rated with a mean score of 3.34 emerging that highest under that category of indicators, however the indicator scored an average score of 2.35 interpreted as being low. The researcher found out that socio ecological indicators; early marriage, social environment practices, cultural competency of teachers that were considered for the study scored an overall mean of 2.20 that was interpreted as being low and individual practices came forward with the a highest mean as individual have different motivational factors based on cultures.

**Table 4: Summary of the Pearson correlation of the research hypothesis about the relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers**

Variables Correlated	means	r-value	Sig.	Interpretation	Decision on Ho
School Cultural Practices Vs Social Ecology	2.59 2.20	0.189	0.014	Positive and significant	Rejected

Mean ratings by teachers

**Source: Primary Data (2015)**

Table 4 indicates the mean ratings by the teachers about school cultural practices and the social ecology of teachers were correlated. It was found out that at a five level of significance the  $r$  – value is greater than 0.05 hence rejected the hypothesis, hence accepting the alternative hypothesis that stated that there was significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers. This implies that the argument that teachers cultural practices is related to teachers' social ecology which can impact on the pupils' achievement or academic performance.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter provides the findings for the research findings, conclusion and the recommendations from the study. The findings, conclusion and recommendations were made in accordance with the research objectives.

#### 5.2 Findings of the Study

**5.2.1 Profile of the Respondents:** The study found out that 44.2% of the respondents were in the age interval of 30 – 39 years of age that is when teachers are in their active age of service and commitment, 32.5% were female teachers and 60.8% were married. There was a continuity of entry and exist as observed from table 1 in terms of levels of experience that was normally distributed.

**5.2.2 The teachers' level of culturally relevant belief systems affect the underlying expectations of the student's performances:** The study found out that teachers do not seek ideas from seminars, colleagues, and other professional sources to maintain knowledge, particularly knowledge about instructional practices as a way of continuous personal development and school-wide improvement to attain professional development.

**5.2.3 The level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers:** Social environment practices (2.59) were rated high that they contributed to the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge and cultural competency of teachers.

#### **5.2.4 Relationship between school cultural practices and the social ecology**

**of teachers:** The researcher established a relationship using the Pearson's correlation coefficient that stated that there was a significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

Based on the purpose of the study, the following conclusions were made; the null hypothesis between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers was rejected and its alternate accepted leading to a conclusion that there is a strong significant relationship between school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers. The Theory that underpinned the study was the structural-functionalist approach is rooted in the functionalist research tradition of which Malinowski (1944) was one of the main representatives. Malinowski's functionalist position emerges most clearly in his first two cultural axioms. In the first, Malinowski argues that culture is essentially an instrumental apparatus that enables humankind to better deal with specific problems in their environment, while satisfying their needs. The second axiom states that culture encompasses a system of objects, actions, and attitudes in which each part exists as means to an end.

In view of this research, the study tested the hypothesis and found out that Malinowski (1944) structural-functionalist approach is still valid based on the study findings. As pertains to the reviewed literature in this study, most of the studies cited were carried out in different contexts with different respondents and at different times. This in particular was unique in its timing, choice of respondents and conceptualization of the school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers. The findings revealed that teachers cannot be responsive to all of the pupils' needs without the assistance and support of their colleagues, administrators, and community as they need to improve knowledge and skills to enhance, improve and explore their teaching practices for better Social-cultural competencies that include the knowledge about social-cultural background of pupils and teachers, local, democracy and human rights issues, team

and collaborative work with others, and social studies. Thus, there is a strong relationship between learning and students' social-cultural background.

## **5.4 Recommendations**

Educators must have a comprehensive understanding of what "school culture" is. While there is a growing understanding and evidence of the importance of school culture, we still need to develop a common national vocabulary for defining and discussing it. Many educators and researchers use the term school climate as the foundation for the conversation about school improvement

Schools need tools for developing and assessing school culture, and must be held accountable for their school cultures. Many schools do not intentionally shape their cultures because they lack the tools for doing so. Many such tools exist and are described in detail in resources such as the frameworks of the National School Climate Council and books such as *Building an Intentional School Culture*, *An Ethic of Excellence*, *Smart and Good schools*, and *Leading a Culture of Change*, to name just a few

## **5.5 Suggestions for Future Research**

- i) The present study could be replicated within the boundaries of schools in the district using more schools and schools on the preschools and high school levels. The data could prompt school leaders to make changes in one or all elements of school culture.
- ii) Replicating the study using a further investigation into teacher characteristics could be related to teachers' perceived cultural competence. Since level of experience has resulted in mixed results, future research could examine different subscales of cultural competence in teachers to see if years experience as a teacher becomes a predictor of specific competencies.

## REFERENCES

- Banks, J.A. (1991). *Multicultural education: Its effects on students' ethnic and gender role attitudes*. In J. P. Shaver (ed.), *Handbook of research on multicultural education* (2nd ed.), (pp. 3-23). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bennis, W. (2003). *On becoming a leader*. New York: Basic Books.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American Psychologist*, 32, 513-531.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bezzina, C. (2006). *What works? The road to improvement in a Maltese Catholic school*. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 34(3), 77-88.
- Blankstein, M. A. (2004). *Failure is not an option: Six principles that guide student achievement in high-performing schools*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Block, P. (2003). *The answer to how is yes: Acting on what matters*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2003). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Brosnan, M. (2003). *At the heart of the heart of the matter*. *Independent School*, 6(2), 78 - 88.
- Brown, K. L. (2005). *An examination of the relationship between school culture and student achievement on Ohio sixth-grade proficiency tests*. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Arizona, 2005). Retrieved April 1, 2006, from ProQuest Dissertation and Thesis database.
- Campbell, C., & Fullan, M. (2006, May). *Unlocking the potential for district-wide reform. Report prepared for The Learning Secretariat Ministry of Education, Ontario, Canada*.
- Coatney, S. (2007). *Testing, testing, testing*. *Teacher Librarian*, 34(5), 60.
- Cordeiro, P. A., & Cunningham, W. G. (2003). *Educational leadership: A problem based approach* (2nd ed.). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Cotton, K. (2002). *Principals and student achievement: What the research says*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). *New standards and old inequalities: School reform and the education of African American students*. *Journal of Negro Education*, 69, 263-287.
- Dantow, A. (2005). *The sustainability of comprehensive school reform models in changing district and state contexts*. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 41(1), 121-153.

- Day, C. (2005). *Principals who sustain success: Making a difference in schools in challenging circumstances*. International Journal of Leadership in Education, 8(4), 273-290.
- Dearman, C. C., & Alber, S. R. (2005). *The changing face of education: Teachers cope with challenges through collaboration and reflective study*. The Reading Teacher, 58(7), 634-640.
- Dessler, G. (2001). *Management: Leading people and organizations in the 21st century*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- DuFour, R., DuFour, R., Eaker, R., & Karhanek, G. (2004). *Whatever it takes: How professional learning communities respond when kids don't learn*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Fullan, M. G. (2000). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. Levittown, PA: Falmer.
- Fullan, M. & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?* New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M. (1998). *Leadership for the 21st century breaking the bonds of dependency*. Educational Leadership 55(7), 6-10.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Georgia Department of Education. (2006a). *Adequate yearly progress (AYP) No Child Left Behind*. Retrieved July 18, 2006, from <http://public.doe.k12.ga.us/aypnclb2006.aspx?PageReq=FAQS>
- Georgia Department of Education. (2006b). *Georgia school standards*. Retrieved August 1, 2006, from <http://www.doe.k12.ga.us>
- Gregson, J. (2001). *System, environmental, and policy changes: Using the social-ecological model as a framework for evaluating nutrition education and social marketing programs with low-income audiences*. Journal of Nutrition Education, 33(1), 4-15.
- Guerrero, L. K., & La Valley, A. G. (2006). *Conflict, emotion, and communication*. In J. G. Oetzel, & S. Ting-Toomey (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of conflict communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 69-96.
- Glickman, C. (2002). *Leadership for learning: How to help teachers succeed*. Arlington, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Gruenert, S. (2005). *Correlations of collaborative school cultures and student achievement*. NASSP Bulletin 89(645), 43-55.
- Gordon, S. P. (2004). *Development for school improvement: Empowering learning communities*. Boston: Pearson.
- Harris, A. (2003). *Teacher leadership and school improvement*. In A. Harris, C. Day, D. Hopkins, M. Hadfield, A. Hargreaves, & C. Chapman. (Eds.). *Effective Leadership for School Improvement*. (pp. 9-26). London: Routledge Farmer.
- Haney, C., Banks, C., & Zimbardo, P. (1973). *Interpersonal dynamics in a simulated prison*. International Journal of Criminology and Penology, 1, 69-97.

- Hawley, A. H. (1950). *Human ecology: A theory of community structure*. New York: Ronald Press.
- Homans, G.C. (1950). *The Human Group*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Hsu, Y., & Shiue, Y. (2005). *The effect of self-directed learning readiness on achievement comparing face-to-face and two-way distance learning instruction*. *International Journal of Instructional Media*, 32(2), 143-156.
- Kagan, D. M. (1992). *Implications of research on teacher belief*. *Educational Psychologist*, 27(1), 65-90.
- Kelleher, J. (2003). *A model for assessment-driven professional development*. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84, 751-757.
- Klein, K. J., Tosi, H., & Cannella, A. A. (1999). *Multilevel theory building: Benefits, barriers, and new developments*. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 243-248.
- Lewin, K. (1935). *A dynamic theory of personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994b). *The dream keepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Leithwood, K. (2005). *Educational leadership: A review of the research*. Philadelphia, PA: The Mid-Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory at Temple University, Laboratory for Student Success, Temple University Center for Research in Human Development and Education. [www.temple.edu/lss](http://www.temple.edu/lss).
- Lickona, T. (2004). *Character matters: How to help children develop good judgment, integrity, and other essential values*. New York: Touchstone Books.
- Malinowski, B. (1944). *A Scientific Theory of Culture*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.
- Marino, J. (2007). *A new paradigm for organizational change: Involving customers and stakeholders in the improvement process*. *Journal for Quality and Participation*, 30(1), 10-12.
- Marshall, K. (2005). *It's time to rethink teacher supervision and evaluation*. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 86(10), 727-744.
- Marshall, A. (1890). *Principles of economics*. London: Macmillan.
- McLeroy, K. R., Bibeau, D., Steckler, A., & Glanz, K. (1988). *An ecological perspective on health promotion programs*. *Health Education Quarterly*, 15, 351-377.
- Milgram, S. (1963). *Behavioral study of obedience*. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 371-378.
- Marzano, R., Waters, T., and McNulty, B. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- McEwan, E. K. (2003). *10 Traits of highly effective principals: From good to great performance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Mewborn, D. S. (2002). *Examining mathematics teachers' beliefs through multiple lenses*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of American Educational Research Association. New Orleans, LA.
- Newmann, F., & Wehlage, G. (1995). *Successful school restructuring*. University of Wisconsin-Madison: Center on Organization and Restructuring Schools.

- Nespor, J. (1987). *The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching*. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 19(4), 317-328.
- Nias, J., Southworth, G., & Yeomans, R. (1989). *Staff relations in the primary school*. London: Cassell.
- Musaazi, J. C. S. (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Educational Administration*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
- Oetzel, J. G., Ting-Toomey, S., Rinderle, S. (2006). *Conflict communication in contexts: A social ecological perspective*. In J. G. Oetzel & S. Ting-Toomey (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of conflict communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). *Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up the messy construct*. Review of Educational Research, 62(3), 307-332.
- Pallestini, R. H. (2003). *The Human Touch in Educational Leadership*. Maryland, USA: Scarecrow Press Inc.
- Parsons, T. (1951). *The Social System*. New York: Free Press.
- Parsons, T. (1960). *Structure and Process in Modern Societies*. New York: Free Press.
- Pohan, C. A. & Aguilar, T. E. (2001). Measuring educators' beliefs about diversity in personal and professional contexts. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(1), 159-182.
- Radcliffe-Brown, A.R. (1952). *Structure and Function in Primitive Society*. New York: Free Press.
- Raelin, J. (2006). *Does action learning promote collaborative leadership?* Academy of Management, Learning, and Education, 5(2), 152-168.
- Richardson, V. & Calfee (1994). *Being at-risk in school*. In J. L. Goodlad & P. Keating (Ed), *Access to knowledge: The continuing agenda for our nation's schools* (pp. 107-124). New York: College Entrance Examination Board.
- Rokeach, M. (1968). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Ruddell, & Kern (1986). *The development of belief systems and teaching effectiveness of influential teachers*. Journal of Reading, 29, 581-587.
- Rousseau, D. M., & House, R. J. (1994). *Meso organizational behavior: Avoiding three fundamental biases*. In C. L. Cooper & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in organizational behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 13-30). New York: John Wiley.
- Toremen, F., & Karakus, M. (2007). The obstacles of synergy in schools: A qualitative study on teamwork. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 7(1), 639-645.
- Stokols, D. (1996). *Translating social ecological theory into guidelines for community health promotion*. American Journal of Health Promotion, 10, 282-298.
- Schein, E.H. (1985). *Organizational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schlechty, P. C. (2002). *Working on the work: An action plan for teachers, principals, and superintendents*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Scribner, J. P., Hager, D. R., & Warne, T. R. (2002). *The paradox of professional community: Tales from two high schools*. Educational Administration Quarterly, 38, (1), 45-76.
- Shor, J. (1992). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*. Chicago:

University of Chicago Press.

Short, P. M., & Greer, J. T. (2002). *Leadership in empowered schools* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Somech, A. (2002). *Explicating the complexity of participative management*: An investigation of multiple dimensions. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38, 341-371.

Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2003). *Investigating school leadership practice*: A distributive perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 30(3), 23-28.

Stoll, L., Fink, D., & Earl, L. (2002). *It's about learning (and it's about time)*. London: Rutledge/Falmer.

Rosenholtz, S. (1989). Teachers' workplace: *The social organization of schools*. New York: Longman.

Valentine, J., Clark, D., Hackmann, D., & Petzko, V., (2004). *Leadership for highly successful middle level schools, volume 2*: A national study of leadership in middle level schools. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Walsh, J. A., & Sattes, B. D. (2005). *Quality questioning: Research-based practice to engage every learner*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

#### Research Questionnaire to analyze cultural practices and school administration in Butebo County, Pallisa District

Dear Respondent,

I am a student of Kampala International University carrying out an Academic research for an award of a Bachelor of Primary Education (Science).

Please kindly answer the questions as they relate to you as possible. The questionnaire is intended to collect information for a research study entitled "school cultural practices and social ecology of teachers in schools" All data collected will be treated with confidentiality and analyzed for academic purposes.

N.B:

- The exercise is purely for academic purposes. Therefore, any information given shall be treated with due confidence.
- The researcher will maintain anonymity in quoting specific statements unless permitted otherwise by the person(s) concerned.

Please tick appropriate option in the box provided and the researcher will highly appreciate your responses.

Thank you in advance

Yours faithfully

Mutasa Moses

#### PART A: Bio Data of the Respondents

1) Gender

-----Male

-----Female

2) Age

-----20 – 29

-----30 – 39

-----40 – 49

-----50 - 59

3) Working Experience

-----1 -5 years

-----6 – 10 years

-----11 – 15 years

-----16 + years

3) Marital status

-----Single

-----Married

-----Divorced

-----Widowed

4) Level of education:

- Licensed
- Certificate
- Diploma
- Bachelors

**Instructions;**

(i) Do not indicate your name

ii) Write besides the statement the number indicating your most appropriate answer.

- |   |                          |                        |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 4 | S.A – Strongly agree     | Agree without doubt    |
| 3 | A – Agree                | Agree with doubt       |
| 2 | D – Disagree,            | Disagree with doubt    |
| 1 | S.D. – Strongly disagree | Disagree without doubt |

**PART B: Identifying the teachers' cultural practices' systems affect the underlying expectations of their student's performances**

- Teachers trust each other.
- Teachers support the mission of the school.
- Teachers and parents have common expectations for student
- Teachers spend considerable time planning together.
- Teachers regularly seek ideas from seminars, colleagues, and workshops
- Teachers are willing to help out whenever there is a problem.
- Leaders take time to praise teachers that perform well.
- Parents trust teachers' professional judgments.
- Teachers are involved in the decision-making process.
- Teachers take time to observe each other teaching.
- Professional development is valued by the school.
- Teachers' ideas are valued by other teachers.
- Leaders in our school facilitate teachers working together.
- Teachers and parents communicate frequently about student
- Teachers are generally aware of what other teachers are
- Teachers work cooperatively in groups.

**PART C: Determining the level of social ecology in terms of social skill, social knowledge, and cultural competency of teachers in the teaching profession**

**Instructions;**

(i) Do not indicate your name

ii) Write besides the statement the number indicating your appropriate answer.

- |   |                          |                        |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 4 | S.A – Strongly agree     | Agree without doubt    |
| 3 | A – Agree                | Agree with doubt       |
| 2 | D – Disagree,            | Disagree with doubt    |
| 1 | S.D. – Strongly disagree | Disagree without doubt |

## **Early Marriage**

- Forced
- Traditional-Limited Choice
- Modern-choice
- Modern with Courtship
- Introduction Only

## **Individual Practices**

The individual is at the centre of the social-ecology. The personal factors that increase the likelihood of an individual being physically active include:

- Motivation,
- Enjoyment
- Skills (including fundamental motor skills and sports specific skills), abilities, disabilities or injuries
- Age
- Sex
- Socioeconomic status
- Self-efficacy

## **Social Environment Practices**

- Family, such as the influence of parental and sibling physical activity levels and family support
- Spouse or partner
- Peers
- Access to social support networks versus social isolation
- Influence of health and other professionals such as doctors and coaches
- Community norms
- Cultural background

## **Cultural Competency of Teachers**

- The teacher understands that the ways students think, behave, and learn are influenced by factors such as race/ethnicity, social class, and language.
- The teacher affirms the views of students from diverse backgrounds.
- The teacher views himself or herself as responsible for and capable of bringing about educational change that will make schools more responsive to all students.
- The teacher understands how learners construct knowledge.
- The teacher knows about the lives of his or her students.
- The teacher uses his or her understanding of how students' learn and the knowledge about his or her students' lives to connect what they already know to the new material they are expected to learn.

### APPENDIX B: RELIABILITY

X	Y	X <sup>2</sup>	Y <sup>2</sup>	XY
04	03	16	09	12
03	03	09	09	09
03	03	09	09	09
04	03	16	09	12
03	04	09	16	12
03	03	09	09	09
01	01	01	01	01
04	03	16	09	12
03	04	09	16	12
<b>ΣX= 28</b>	<b>ΣY= 27</b>	<b>ΣX<sup>2</sup>= 94</b>	<b>ΣY<sup>2</sup>= 87</b>	<b>ΣXY = 88</b>

Pearson Product Moment Correlation

$$\text{From } r_{xy} = \frac{n\sum YX - \sum Y \cdot \sum X}{\sqrt{[n\sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2] \times [n\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2]}}$$

$$r_{xy} = \frac{9 \times 88 - 28 \times 27}{\sqrt{[9 \times 94 - (28)^2] \times [9 \times 87 - (27)^2]}}$$

$$r_{xy} = \frac{36}{\sqrt{62.52}}$$

$$r_{xy} = 0.622$$

Then from  $r^1_{yx} = \frac{2 r_{yx}}{1 + r_{yx}}$

$$r^1_{yx} = \frac{2(0.622)}{1 + 0.622}$$

$$r^1_{yx} = 0.77$$

Therefore the reliability coefficient index is 0.77 which is good and reliable.