

Lindenwood University

Digital Commons@Lindenwood University

---

Dissertations

Theses & Dissertations

---

Fall 8-22-2019

## A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation

Jeremy R. Philips  
*Lindenwood University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Philips, Jeremy R., "A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation" (2019). *Dissertations*. 98.

<https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations/98>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses & Dissertations at Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. For more information, please contact [phuffman@lindenwood.edu](mailto:phuffman@lindenwood.edu).

A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in  
School Culture and Professional Motivation

by

Jeremy R. Phillips

August 2019

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

School of Education

A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in  
School Culture and Professional Motivation

by


Jeremy R. Phillips

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

Lindenwood University, School of Education

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dr. Trey Moeller, Dissertation Chair

8.22.19  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dr. Sherry DeVore, Committee Member

8-22-19  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dr. Tony Rossetti, Committee Member

8-22-19  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree.

Jeremy Robert Phillips: Jeremy R. Phillips

Signature:  Date: 8-22-19

## Acknowledgments

I first would like to thank my committee for their time and efforts to help me through this process. Specifically, to Dr. Trey Moeller, I want to express my sincere gratitude for your support throughout this journey. I appreciate the “one bite at a time” approach in this endeavor, and your mentorship/friendship demonstrated through listening and encouraging. Dr. Sherry DeVore I also appreciate your patience, time, and feedback you provided.

I also want to acknowledge my boss for her push to pursue this degree and her support along the way. Mrs. Satotha Burr, you are a one of a kind leader, and without your mentorship and encouragement I would not be where I am today, so thank you very much. I also want to express my gratitude to my neighbors and dear friends, Mr. and Mrs. Chett Daniel. This family has been an instrumental piece in my family’s life the last two years. The support and assistance you all have provided has been priceless. In addition, I would like to thank Dr. Jim Cummins for meeting with me when I first began to consider pursuing this challenge and for always being a positive role model.

Lastly, I want to recognize and thank the most important people in my life, my son, Jax, and my daughter, Jett. You are my entire world and inspire me to be a better person/dad every day. So, although you are too young to understand the sacrifices you made for Daddy to work on this you were also my inspiration to finish what I started. I want you to know there is no dream/goal too big for those willing to pursue it passionately and persistently. Put God first and let Him provide your strength and direction in all you do; I love you with all my heart.

## Abstract

Schools need effective leaders to embrace the many challenges of today's school systems and to adequately prepare students for the 21st century (Bayar, 2016; Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013). Bartoletti and Connelly (2013) asserted, "Great schools do not exist apart from great leaders" (p. 1). The last few years have provided volumes of high-quality research confirming leadership matters (Bartoletti & Connelly, 2013). The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among the following variables: teachers' perceptions of what they value in leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. Using a quantitative survey developed from an assimilation of the current research, a Likert scale was used to represent participants' responses as five unique scores. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations (PPMC) were calculated to determine the existence and strength of the linear relationship among these variables scores. The results demonstrated a positive correlation between variables except for total leadership behaviors and motivation. Participant responses supported much of the current literature reflecting positive relationships between the leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers, between the leadership behaviors consideration and initiating structure, and between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and what they find professionally motivating. Overall, the findings from this study highlighted the significance and value of effective leadership in schools.

## Table of Contents

|   |      |
|---|------|
| Acknowledgments.....                              | ii   |
| Abstract .....                                    | iii  |
| Table of Contents.....                            | iv   |
| List of Tables .....                              | vii  |
| List of Figures .....                             | viii |
| Chapter One: Introduction .....                   | 1    |
| Background of the Study .....                     | 1    |
| Conceptual Framework .....                        | 4    |
| Statement of the Problem .....                    | 7    |
| Purpose of the Study .....                        | 7    |
| Research Questions and Hypotheses .....           | 8    |
| Significance of the Study.....                    | 10   |
| Definition of Key Terms .....                     | 10   |
| Delimitations, Limitations, and Assumptions ..... | 13   |
| Summary .....                                     | 14   |
| Chapter Two: Review of Literature .....           | 15   |
| School Reform .....                               | 16   |
| Leadership .....                                  | 20   |
| Leadership Research .....                         | 46   |
| School Culture and Climate .....                  | 50   |
| Teacher Motivation .....                          | 57   |

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Summary .....  | 63 |
| Chapter Three: Methodology .....                               | 64 |
| Problem and Purpose Overview .....                             | 65 |
| Research Questions .....                                       | 65 |
| Research Design .....  | 67 |
| Population and Sample.....                                     | 68 |
| Instrumentation .....  | 68 |
| Data Collection .....  | 69 |
| Data Analysis .....  | 70 |
| Ethical Considerations .....                                   | 74 |
| Summary .....  | 75 |
| Chapter Four: Analysis of Data .....                           | 76 |
| Quantitative Analysis .....                                    | 76 |
| Research question one .....                                    | 77 |
| Research question two .....                                    | 81 |
| Research question three .....                                  | 84 |
| Research question four .....                                   | 86 |
| Research question five and six .....                           | 88 |
| Summary .....  | 91 |
| Chapter Five: Findings, Implications, and Recommendations..... | 94 |
| Review of Methodology .....                                    | 94 |
| Total Leadership and School Culture Data Analysis .....        | 95 |



|  |     |
|--|-----|
| Implications Regarding Total Leadership and School Culture .....     | 96  |
| Total Leadership and Teacher Motivation Data Analysis .....          | 101 |
| Implications Regarding Total Leadership and Teacher Motivation ..... | 102 |
| Initiating Structure and Consideration Data Analysis .....           | 106 |
| Implications Regarding Initiating Structure and Consideration .....  | 107 |
| School Culture and Teacher Motivation Data Analysis .....            | 108 |
| Implications Regarding School Culture and Teacher Motivation .....   | 109 |
| Leadership Behavior Quadrants Data Analysis .....                    | 109 |
| Implications Regarding Leadership Behavior Quadrants .....           | 110 |
| Recommendations for Further Study .....                              | 111 |
| Discussion .....   | 114 |
| Conclusion .....   | 117 |
| Summary .....  | 120 |
| References .....   | 122 |
| Appendix A .....   | 134 |
| Appendix B .....   | 135 |
| Appendix C .....   | 136 |
| Appendix D .....   | 137 |
| Appendix E .....   | 141 |
| Appendix F .....   | 142 |
| Vita.....  | 144 |

## List of Tables

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Table 1. <i>Scoring Results for Variables</i> ..... | 92 |
| Table 2. <i>Correlational Coefficients</i> .....    | 93 |

## List of Figures

|   |    |
|---|----|
| <i>Figure 1.</i> Relationship between culture and total leadership.....           | 79 |
| <i>Figure 2.</i> Total leadership.....  | 80 |
| <i>Figure 3.</i> Culture.....   | 80 |
| <i>Figure 4.</i> Relationship between motivation and total leadership.....        | 82 |
| <i>Figure 5.</i> Motivation.....  | 83 |
| <i>Figure 6.</i> Relationship between initiating structure and consideration..... | 85 |
| <i>Figure 7.</i> Consideration.....   | 86 |
| <i>Figure 8.</i> Initiating structure.....  | 87 |
| <i>Figure 9.</i> Relationship between culture and motivation.....                 | 88 |
| <i>Figure 10.</i> Leadership behavior quadrants.....                              | 90 |
| <i>Figure 11.</i> Leadership grid.....  | 91 |

## **Chapter One: Introduction**

Leadership means different things to different people because there are numerous styles and approaches to leading others (Workman & Cleveland-Innes, 2012). It is easily identifiable in practice, but it is often difficult to define (Day & Antonakis, 2018).

Although, it is a complex and diverse topic, most scholars will agree, leadership can be defined as a form of influence called motivating (Day & Antonakis, 2018; Vroom & Jago, 2007). In education, leadership has evolved over the years from a managerial role to a role with multiple responsibilities, which in part includes shaping the school culture and motivating teachers (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). According to Louis (2016), the leadership influences the school's culture and the culture motivates members of the school to be more productive and more satisfied.

### **Background of the Study**

It has been known for several years student learning is directly and indirectly affected by school leaders (Day & Sammons, 2016). Evidence compiled and analyzed indicates a principal's impact on student learning ranks second behind the influence of teachers (Leithwood, Seashore Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Mitgang (2012) determined, "It is the principal, more than anyone else, who is in a position to ensure that excellent teaching and learning are part of every classroom" (p. 3).

Therefore, as a result of their significant impact, school leaders would benefit from understanding how leadership behaviors affect the school culture and the people they lead (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

According to Devine and Alger (2011), "leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people" (p. 2). Hersey,

Blanchard, and Johnson (as cited in Devine and Alger, 2011) further explained the style of a leader can be defined by the primary behaviors the leader displays.

Urick and Bowers (2014) concluded from their study principals enact different leadership styles in their role as a school leader. Furthermore, Urick and Bowers (2014) explained more evidence is needed to describe types of leaders and how they “influence teacher practices and student learning” (p. 14). Regardless of the style used, leaders must understand they have an influence on everything around them, including the working environment and staff (Illies, Judge, & Wagner, 2006).

In schools, the working environment made up of a group’s personality, attitude, values, beliefs, perceptions, assumptions, and unwritten rules is often referred to as the culture and climate (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). School leaders’ actions and behaviors make a difference in the school culture, or “the way things are done,” and in the school climate, or “the way people feel” (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015, p. 10). Effective school leaders can have a much larger impact on student learning compared to teachers because principals can create a schoolwide climate encouraging of learning and achievement (Syed, 2015).

There are many experts who claim school culture is the driving force behind everything else (Whitaker, 2012). DuFour and Mattos (2013) believed creating a collaborative culture is the most powerful strategy school leaders can practice to improve both teaching and learning. Leithwood, Seashore Louis, and Anderson (2012) affirmed when principals focus on instruction and provide supportive working conditions in school, they positively affect student learning. DuFour and Mattos (2013) claimed school

reform efforts have failed because knowledge of the importance of culture and climate has not been applied effectively.

In addition to a positive culture and climate, leaders who possess the interpersonal skills to motivate and communicate well are perceived as more effective in driving change (Gilley, Gilley, & McMillan, 2009). Mitgang (2012) reported the administrative support is the most significant determinant for teachers deciding to stay in education. This demonstrates the direct influence school leaders have on their teachers, and therefore, on student learning (Day & Sammons, 2016). According to Whitaker (2012), great school leaders “never forget that it is people, not programs, who determine the quality of a school (p. 11). The best leaders, lead people to accomplish important work and adapt to change without losing sight of what matters most (Whitaker, 2012). Smith (2016) claimed, “Leaders who have an integrated people-first leadership style and are genuinely committed to the well-being of their staff have the greatest effect on the positive culture in their schools” (p. 76).

Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) explained how the education sector has not done enough to understand what motivates teachers. Despite a great deal of research on leadership, considerable work remains to understand all its effects on school culture and teacher motivation (Illies et al., 2006; Urick & Bowers, 2014). According to Arbabi and Mehdinezhad (2015), “based on the self-efficacy theory, individual motivation and performance could be increased by increasing teachers’ self-efficacy” (p. 130). Arbabi and Mehdinezhad (2015) explained the importance of understanding self-efficacy, leadership, and how leadership styles dramatically increase teachers’ self-efficacy as well as performance. They concluded from their research leadership styles used by principals

affect teachers' self-efficacy (Arbabi & Mehdinezhad, 2015). Furthermore, Smith (2016) concluded, "Because of its dynamic and ever-changing nature, leadership in schools also has a great effect on both teacher satisfaction and student learning" (p. 76). Therefore, this current research project included an examination of different leadership styles and behaviors and their relationship to school culture, climate, and the motivation of teachers.

### **Conceptual Framework**

The United States public school system has been unsuccessfully addressing issues in education for three decades (Fullan, 2014). Public schools are challenged with educating all students, and improving this process means addressing a broad set of issues (Van Roekel, 2008). Fullan (2014) explained since *A Nation at Risk* was published, there has been no "discernible strategy that derived from the report or its aftermath. A crisis without strategy is a recipe for random action and growing frustration" (p. 23). DuFour and Fullan (2013) identified school reform efforts as random acts of innovation rather than "a coordinated, sustained approach to help develop the capacity of educators to meet the challenges of today. . . programs are put in place and then replaced quickly by the next attractive innovation" (p. 17).

Fullan (2014) continued to explain how reform efforts have gone wrong with a focus on accountability, individualistic solutions, technology, and fragmented strategies. These things can be found in the policies set by federal entities, states, or districts, and were put in place with the intention to help schools obtain new levels of success. Unfortunately, these policies have not produced the desired results but instead have led principals to a narrowing role of influence with a focus on standards and

accountability (Fullan, 2014). As a result, the United States continues to score low on measures of educational performance, and the gap among high- and low-performing students is growing (DuFour & Fullan, 2013).

Fullan (2014) explained it is not a lack of knowledge; much of the research on effective leadership practices and improving student learning is not being utilized or applied. While some reform efforts are finally using some of the strategies proven to be most successful in school reform, there still is a disconnect between priorities with school improvement and educational research (Bartoletti & Connelly, 2013; Mitgang, 2012). Bartoletti and Connelly (2013) asserted, “Great schools do not exist apart from great leaders” (p. 1). The last several years have provided large quantities of quality research confirming leadership matters (Bartoletti & Connelly, 2013; Wallace Foundation 2013).

The Wallace Foundation (2013) and other researchers have highlighted the importance of the following tasks for effective leadership: shaping a vision for academic success; establishing a hospitable climate/culture; developing leadership in others; improving instruction; and managing people, data, and practices. The Wallace Foundation (2013) emphasized how each of the five tasks must interact with the other four tasks for success. Turan and Bekatas (2013) concluded a school culture can be used by school leaders “as a tool to influence and direct other people or establish coordination among employees” (p. 156). Part of creating an effective culture and improving instruction is utilizing the power of a Professional Learning Community (PLC) (DuFour & Fullan, 2013). The PLC is a systemic approach capable of being a “driving force in



helping all students achieve at higher levels while also increasing educators' sense of fulfillment and excitement with their profession" (DuFour & Fullan, 2013, p. 17).

Motivating and retaining teachers is another challenge for school leaders (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2012). Almost half of new teachers leave the teaching profession within their first five years, which directly contributes to the struggling educational system in the United States (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, Many, & Mattos, 2016). DuFour et al. (2016) explained the solution to this problem is not to pour more new teachers into schools but to make schools more inviting and rewarding places to work. Whitaker (2012) explained how great school leaders "take every opportunity to hire and retain the very best teachers" (p. 56).

According to Whitaker (2012), the most significant impact by school leaders is found in their actions, what they do, not what they know. Walters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) explained effective leadership means school leaders need to know more than just what they are doing but the when, how, and why. Van Roekel (2008) further explained school leaders should know how leadership styles will affect the school culture/climate and the teachers' motivation to inspire significant and meaningful change.

Illies, Judge, and Wagner (2006) explained how researchers have demonstrated school leaders have an influence on everything around them, including the working environment and staff. However, despite the large volumes of research on leadership, significant work is needed to completely understand the motivational effects (Illies et al., 2006; Urick & Bowers, 2014). While research has demonstrated leadership matters, it also has been concluded there is still work needed to understand the most effective

leadership behaviors to establish a positive school culture and to motivate teachers (Illies et al., 2006; Urick & Bowers, 2014).

### **Statement of the Problem**

School leaders must do more than manage to be effective in the 21st-century education system (Bayar, 2016). Mitgang (2012) explained successful schools “depend on having school leaders well prepared to change schools and improve instruction, not just manage buildings and budgets” (p. 3). Times have changed, but the United States school systems have struggled to effectively evolve to meet the needs of students in the Informational Age (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). Therefore, school leaders need to understand the skills needed in schools and have a willingness to inspire change (Fox & McDermott, 2015). To inspire meaningful change, school leaders need to understand how leadership behaviors affect the school culture, climate, and teachers’ motivation (Van Roekel, 2008).

### **Purpose of the Study**

Effective leadership is imperative to any organization, yet there is still much more work needed to uncover what leadership behaviors make a principal most effective (Dhuey & Smith, 2014). The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among teachers’ perceptions of what they value in a principal’s leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure), what they value in a school’s culture, and what they find professionally motivating. Researchers have demonstrated school culture is a critical element in effective leadership (Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) explained how school culture influences educational leadership, but leadership makes the real difference in schools. School leaders have an influence on

everything around them, including the working environment and staff, and despite the high quantity of research on the topic of leadership, there remains considerable work to be done in understanding the motivational effects of leadership (Illies et al., 2006). As a result of this study, a framework for best practices for school leaders can be created for more effectively developing a positive school culture, motivating teachers, and ultimately having a positive impact on student achievement.

**Research questions and hypotheses.** The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers?

*H1<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

*H1<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

2. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating?

*H2<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H2<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

3. What is the relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure?

*H3<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

*H3<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

4. What is the relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating?

*H4<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H4<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

5. What are the differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?

*H5<sub>o</sub>*: There are no differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

*H5<sub>a</sub>*: There are differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

6. What are the differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?

*H6<sub>o</sub>*: There are no differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

*H6<sub>a</sub>*: There are differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

### **Significance of the Study**

The purpose of this proposed project was to help school leaders have a more positive impact on student learning. This quantitative study was designed to investigate the relationship among teachers' perceptions of what they value in a principal's leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. If school leaders are to be effective, they must do more than manage to be effective in the 21st-century education system (Bayar, 2016). School leaders must recognize the skills needed today and be willing to inspire significant change (Fox & McDermott, 2015). Van Roekel (2008) determined school leaders must better understand leadership and the effects of leadership behaviors on the school culture and teachers if a significant change is to occur.

To be effective as a leader, research has demonstrated a critical piece is found in the school culture (Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Researchers have also demonstrated school leaders have an influence on everything around them including the working environment and staff, and despite a lot of research on leadership, there is yet work to be done to understand the motivational effects (Illies et al., 2006). A result of this study may be the development of a framework of best practices for school leaders to more effectively lead staff, develop positive school culture, and motivate teachers.

### **Definition of Key Terms**

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are defined:

**Consideration.** Consideration, also referred to as the relationship behaviors, includes the extent to which a leader acts friendly, shows concern, and provides support

for subordinates (Yukl, 2013). In this study, consideration behaviors were on the vertical axis.

**Initiating structure behavior.** Initiating structure behavior, sometimes referred to as task-oriented behaviors, includes “the degree to which a leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group’s formal goals” (Yukl, 2013, p. 75). In this study, initiating structure behaviors were on the horizontal axis.

**Instructional leader.** An instructional leader, sometimes referred to as a pedagogical leader, emphasizes the importance of establishing clear educational goals, planning the curriculum, and evaluating teachers and teaching (Day & Sammons, 2016). The leader’s prime focus is to promote better outcomes for students by emphasizing the importance of teaching and learning and enhancing the quality of teaching (Day & Sammons, 2016).

**Leading learner leader.** Leading learner leaders are good managers and understand the value of building relational trust with colleagues (Fullan, 2014). This type of leadership takes a collective leadership approach drawing from primarily two models or theories of effective leadership, transformational and instructional (Fullan, 2014).

**Quadrant I leader.** In quadrant I, a leader is defined as someone who displays strong task behaviors and weak relationships (John & Taylor, 1999). These leaders are represented in the lower right quadrant ( $t > 10$ ,  $r \leq 10$ ) (John & Taylor, 1999).

**Quadrant II leader.** In quadrant II, a leader is defined as someone who displays strong task behaviors and strong relationships (John & Taylor, 1999). These leaders are represented in the upper right quadrant ( $t > 10, r \geq 10$ ) (John & Taylor, 1999).

**Quadrant III leader.** In quadrant III, a leader is defined as someone who displays weak task behaviors and strong relationships (John & Taylor, 1999). These leaders are represented in the upper left quadrant ( $t < 10, r \geq 10$ ).

**Quadrant IV leader.** In quadrant IV, a leader is defined as someone who displays weak task behaviors and weak relationships (John & Taylor, 1999). These leaders are represented in the lower left quadrant ( $t < 10, r \leq 10$ ) (John & Taylor, 1999).

**School climate.** The school climate includes the collective beliefs and values influencing policies and practices within a school (Whitaker, 2012). Climate is a school's attitude based on perceptions (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Climate allows school personnel to reveal what they value and is many times the first thing to improve when positive changes are made (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

**School culture.** The school culture is a school's personality based on values and beliefs, which often takes years to evolve (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). The culture determines whether improvements are possible (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

**Transformational leader.** The transformational leader identifies high goals, creates a team spirit, has enthusiasm, and constantly motivates followers (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013). This type of leadership is most often associated with "vision; setting directions; restructuring and realigning the organization; developing staff and curriculum; and involvement with the external community" (Day & Sammons, 2016, p. 18). This

leader takes into consideration the desires and needs of followers to help all be successful and thrive (Aydin et al., 2013).

### **Delimitations, Limitations, and Assumptions**

The scope of the study was bounded by the following delimitations:

**Time frame.** The data collection for this study took place in May of the spring semester of 2017.

**Location of the study.** This study took place in five school districts located in Southwest Missouri.

**Sample.** The sample of this study included teachers belonging to the Southwest Center for Educational Excellence.

**Criteria.** Only participants who were certified teachers were considered when selecting this sample.

The following limitations were identified in this study:

**Sample demographics.** The sample was limited based on the geographical location. A total of five school districts were selected in Southwest Missouri based on membership to the Southwest Center for Educational Excellence.

**Participants.** There were 45 participants who completed the study, and all were certified teachers.

**Instrument.** The instrument used for data collection was a survey created by the primary investigator.

The following assumptions were accepted:

1. Participants gave honest, unbiased responses when completing the survey.
2. Participants completed the study of their own free will.



**Summary**

In Chapter One, the background of leadership research, conceptual framework, and statement of the problem were discussed. Next, the purpose of this study and research questions were presented. Then the significance of the study and definition of key terms were provided. Concluding this chapter were the delimitations, limitations, and assumptions of this study.

Chapter Two is a review of literature of the topics related to this study. The following were examined: the history of school reform, leadership, school culture and climate, and teacher motivation. How these main topics relate to one another and affect each other is also examined. In addition, significant information from research on the topics is provided.

## Chapter Two: Review of Literature

For several years, school reform efforts have been underway to raise standards, develop a common curriculum, reduce class sizes, use new assessment tools, and provide school staff with the flexibility to pursue innovative learning models (Dhuey & Smith, 2014). There are several similarities among current reform efforts and those of the late 1800s. For example, both were driven by a desire to standardize education and resolve the competition across the nation (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012).

In 1892, the National Education Association (NEA) asked for recommendations on needed reform and turned to the Committee of Ten, a group composed mainly of higher educators (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). Schwahn and McGarvey (2012) explained how the Committee of Ten's recommendations are still used and implemented more than 100 years later. Ultimately, the Committee of Ten helped create the education system used to prepare the United States for the Industrial Revolution (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). The NEA published the following in 1894:

The secondary schools of the United States, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. Only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these schools go to colleges or scientific schools. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school. (National Education Association of the United States, 1894, p. 51)

This demonstrates how the traditional school system was not originally designed to prepare all students to leave ready for college.

However, times are changing. According to Mattos (2018), researchers in a recent study predicted by 2020 the United States economy will have a shortfall of five million college-educated workers. Furthermore, Carnevale, Smith, and Strohl (as cited in Mattos, 2018) claimed 65% of all jobs in the economy will require training outside of high school and postsecondary education by 2020. Consequently, this demonstrates the need for change in the United States education system, and this is where many problems are found, due to the lack of change in the ways schools operate, teach, and prepare students (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012).

Mattos (2018) argued, “Unfortunately, far too many schools cling to outdated educational mythology to justify outdated practices to resist change” (p. 175). What made good sense when designed, implemented, and redefined during the Industrial Age, no longer works for students and school systems (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). Due to the proliferation of technology and the ever-changing world and society, the basis of the educational system no longer works effectively to meet the needs of students (Mattos, 2018; Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012).

### **School Reform**

School reforms have been proposed for three decades following the publication of *A Nation at Risk* under President Ronald Reagan (Fullan, 2014). This publication created a state of urgency for improving the education system so the country could compete economically in the increasingly competitive global world (Fullan, 2014). Fullan (2014) explained how quality for everyone (school leaders and teachers) was the answer, but

there were no specific strategies derived from the report. Consequently, a crisis, without a strategy to resolve it, has resulted in increased frustration and a lack of progress for public education (Fullan, 2014). Ravitch (2014) explained how this began an era of popularity for charter schools and perpetuated the notion public schools were failing. Following, was an era known as the standards-based movement (Fullan, 2014). During this era, President George W. Bush signed into legislation one of the most significant reform efforts to date known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) (Fullan, 2014).

After NCLB came President Obama's Race to the Top in 2009, which was composed of the following four components:

- New standards and assessments
- Massively improved assessment and data systems
- Greater-quality teachers and principals via recruitment, appraisal, rewards, punishment
- A focus on the bottom 5% of schools. (Fullan, 2014)

The core strategies of both NCLB and Race to the Top largely ignored the call for practices grounded in research (DuFour & Mattos, 2013). Both programs set unrealistic targets for students, and when the targets were not met, many underperforming schools fired teachers and school administrators (Ravitch, 2014). Consequently, legislation forced states and districts to search for the best ways to embrace pressures put upon them to meet high standards (Ravitch, 2014).

The U.S. Department of Education (2016) explained how, "in 2012, the Obama Administration began granting flexibility to states regarding specific NCLB requirements in exchange for rigorous and comprehensive state-developed plans to close achievement

gaps, increase equity, improve the quality of instruction, and increase outcomes for all students” (p. 1). More recently, in December 2015, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was passed (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). According to the U.S. Department of Education (2016), the ESSA resulted from the realization the previous NCLB Act and Race to the Top enforced prescriptive requirements that were unrealistic for schools and educators.

The U.S. Department of Education (2016) reported the following provisions to safeguard success for all students and schools under ESSA:

- Advances equity by upholding critical protections for America's disadvantaged and high-need students.
- Requires—for the first time—that all students in America be taught to high academic standards that will prepare them to succeed in college and careers.
- Ensures that vital information is provided to educators, families, students, and communities through annual statewide assessments that measure students' progress toward those high standards.
- Helps to support and grow local innovations—including evidence-based and place-based interventions developed by local leaders and educators—consistent with our Investing in Innovation and Promise Neighborhoods
- Sustains and expands this administration's historic investments in increasing access to high-quality preschool.
- Maintains an expectation that there will be accountability and action to effect positive change in our lowest-performing schools, where groups of students

are not making progress, and where graduation rates are low over extended periods of time. (p. 1)

In addition, the provisions included, for the first time, support for developing school leaders (Herman, Gates, Chavez-Herreias, & Harris, 2016). Herman, Gates, Chavez-Herreias, & Harris (2016) explained how the ESSA advocates “the use of evidence-based activities, strategies, and interventions” to improve school leadership (p. 1). Before the recent ESSA was passed, school leaders were asked to improve student learning by implementing mandated reforms, which consistently have proven ineffective with raising student achievement (DuFour & Mattos, 2013).

In terms of school reform, it is apparent the United States has started to move in the right direction; however, many believe there is much work to be done to meet the needs of schools and students and to better train aspiring principals (Mitgang, 2012). The National Staff Development Council (NSDC) asserted the essential ingredient in school reform is to strengthen school leadership (Van Roekel, 2008). Years ago, Leithwood et al. (2004) explained how the focus of school reform has been as widespread as new innovative curricula for a district or as narrow as changing one teacher at a time. The real focus should be specifically on leadership, as the success of any reform effort depends on the motivations and capacities of local leaders (Leithwood et al., 2004). Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) supported this and explained educational reform needs to focus on the teachers in the profession instead of merely ensuring high standards for all students.

The positive for school systems and school leaders is school leadership ranks at the top of the priority list for school reform efforts, and there is substantial evidence

demonstrating school leaders have the potential to positively affect student learning and achievement (Leithwood et al., 2004; Mitgang, 2012). Therefore, continuing efforts are needed to focus on the behaviors of principals and the practices of teachers, as these essentials have the largest impact on student learning (Leithwood et al., 2004). Bayar (2016) stated, “At this point, it can be said that the principal is the most important and critical component of education in school” (p. 192). According to Fullan (2014), however, the answer is not for school leaders or principals to be the direct instructional leader. Fullan (2014) explained, “If principals are to maximize their impact on learning, we must reconceptualize their role so that it clearly, practically, and convincingly becomes a force for improving the whole school and the results it brings” (p. 6).

### **Leadership**

When considering educational leadership, “it is important not to get stuck in the old paradigm of command and control that dominated the 20th century—and is still strong today” (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013, p. 45). The idea of principals positively influencing school improvement efforts and student learning has been studied and validated over the course of American educational history numerous times (Parsons & Beauchamp, 2012). Syed (2015) supported the need for great leadership by explaining if today’s students are to stand a chance in the economy, they need a solid education; to get a solid education, they need great instruction. To get great instruction and make the changes needed, the key ingredient is great leadership—a great principal (Syed, 2015). Mitgang (2012) explained how states and districts are finally recognizing that successful school reform is dependent on school leaders capable of more than management but competent in establishing school change and improving instruction.

There has been little significant change in how schools are designed and operated, but there has been a change in the principal's role as an educational leader (Fullan, 2014; Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012; Tobin, 2014). Previously considered a managerial position of supervision of facilities, funds, and student discipline, the principalship has evolved into a position with not only those responsibilities but many more (Dhuey & Smith, 2014). Now, according to Darling-Hammond, "principals are expected to be educational visionaries, instructional and curriculum leaders, assessment experts, disciplinarians, community builders, public relations/communications experts, budget analysts, facility managers, special programs administrators, as well as guardians of various legal, contractual, and policy mandates and initiatives" (as cited in Van Roekel, 2008, p. 1). The expectations and tensions continue to grow with the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) curriculum (Fullan, 2014). According to Fullan (2014), tensions are due to the focus around these standards and digital innovations to flourish in an ever-changing world, and this means a new type of leadership must evolve to navigate these troubled waters in education.

To understand how school leaders must evolve and effectively embrace the challenges of their roles and responsibilities in today's schools, it is important to understand how leadership is defined, the popular theories of leadership, and some of the research on the topic of leadership. There are numerous concepts recognized as accurately defining what it is to be a leader (Northouse, 2015). Northouse (2015) explained leadership as a trait, a behavior, a relationship, a skill, an ability, and an influence process. It quickly becomes apparent leadership is a subject with a broad range



of meanings and values; this can be found in the current collection of leadership theories and approaches or styles (Workman & Cleveland-Innes, 2012).

Leadership is a “word taken from common vocabulary and incorporated in the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined” (Yukl, 2013, p. 2). To define leadership generally, Yukl (2013) explained it as the “influence processes involving determination of a group’s or organization’s objectives, motivating task behavior in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture” (p. 5). More specifically the U.S. Army (2015) uses the following as their definition of leadership: “influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization” (p. 4).

Cezmi Savas and Toprak (2014) defined leadership as an effort by the activities of an organization to achieve a common goal. While Workman and Cleveland-Innes (2012) defined leadership as the *outcomes achieved* rather than the *inputs applied*, they explained, without personal transformation, there are different forms of management, not leadership. Northouse (2019) identified the following components most important to the phenomenon of how leadership has been theorized: a process, involves influence, occurs in groups, and involves common goals. From these four components leadership is defined by Northouse (2019) as a “process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 5).

Robbins and Judge (2013) explained not all leaders are managers, and not all managers are leaders; they defined leadership as the ability to inspire a group to the attainment of a vision or goals. Furthermore, for optimal effectiveness organizations

need strong leadership, and management to challenge the status quo, create visions of the future, and inspire organizational members to want to achieve the visions (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Devine and Alger (2011) explained the leadership style as “the manner or approach one takes providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people” (p. 3).

Devine and Alger (2011) further explained the style of a leader will differ with each leader and with each situation but can be simply defined as the predominant behaviors or traits of the individual. Yukl (2013) explained, “nearly all leadership can be classified into one of the following four approaches: power-influence approach, behavior approach, trait approach, situational approach” (p. 7). From each of these approaches come several theories or models. Trait theory dominated the study of leadership until the 1940s, behavioral theories followed until the 1960s, then contingency and interactive theories, and finally, there are the more contemporary theories researched and used today by leaders such as charismatic, transformational, and transactional (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The trait theory is posed around the belief certain people in society have special inborn qualities making them leaders, and leadership is restricted to those who are believed to have special characteristics (Northouse, 2019). Early theorists claimed leaders could be distinguished from non-leaders by personality characteristics and certain physical traits (Khan, Z. A., Nawaz, A., Khan, I., Department of Public Administration, Gomal University, & Khan, D. I., 2016). Initially, there were challenges identifying particular traits characteristic to leadership (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Ekvall and Arvonen (as cited in Khan et al., 2016) identified two types of traits; emergent traits

which are strongly dependent on heredity; and then effectiveness traits which are based on learning or experiences. Yukl (2013) then organized a taxonomy of traits/skills needed to be a leader into three categories to eliminate the confusion of all the different skill concepts by researchers. Those three categories were defined as follows:

- **Technical Skills.** Knowledge about methods, processes, procedures, and techniques for conducting a specialized activity, and the ability to use tools and operate equipment related to that activity.
  - **Interpersonal Skills.** Knowledge about human behavior and interpersonal processes, ability to understand the feelings, attitudes, and motives of others from what they say and do (empathy, social sensitivity), ability to communicate clearly and effectively (speech fluency, persuasiveness), and ability to establish effective and cooperative relationships (tact, diplomacy, knowledge about acceptable social behavior).
  - **Conceptual Skills.** General analytical ability, logical thinking, proficiency in concept formation and conceptualization of complex and ambiguous relationships, creativity in idea generations and problem solving, ability to analyze events and perceive trends, anticipate changes, and recognize opportunities and potential problems (inductive and deductive reasoning).
- (Yukl, 2013, p. 191)

More recently, the investigation of trait leadership “has been more productive, due to the inclusion of more relevant traits, use of better measures of traits, examination of trait patterns, and use of longitudinal research” (Yukl, 2013, p. 202).

Motivation, self-confidence, emotional stability, and stress tolerance were some of the personality traits found to be connected to leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2013). Using particular traits was further supported in research, and it was ultimately concluded traits were predictors of leadership when researchers began to organize traits around the personality framework called the Big Five model (Judge, Bono, Illies, & Gerhardt, 2002). There is a significant amount of research supporting the Big Five as a strong predictor of how people behave in certain situations, and there are certain personality traits associated with being an effective leader (Northouse, 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2013). The Big Five consists of the following five factors:

- Extraversion. The extraversion dimension captures our comfort level with relationships. Extraverts tend to be gregarious, assertive, and sociable. Introverts tend to be reserved, timid, and quiet.
- Agreeableness. The agreeableness dimension refers to an individual's propensity to defer to others. Highly agreeable people are cooperative, warm and trusting. People who score low on agreeableness are cold, disagreeable, and antagonistic.
- Conscientiousness. The conscientiousness dimension is a measure of reliability. A highly conscientious person is responsible, organized, dependable, and persistent. Those who score low on this dimension are easily distracted, disorganized, and unreliable.
- Emotional stability. The emotional stability dimension-often labeled by its converse, neuroticism-taps a person's ability to withstand stress. People with positive emotional stability tend to be calm, self-confident, and secure. Those

with high negative scores tend to be nervous, anxious, depressed, and insecure.

- Openness to experience. The openness to experience dimension addresses range of interests and fascination with novelty. Extremely open people are creative, curious, and artistically sensitive. Those at the other end of the category are conventional and find comfort in the familiar. (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 136)

Mount, Barrick, and Strauss (1994) the authors of the most-cited research on the Big Five, stated, “The preponderance of evidence shows that individuals who are dependable, reliable, careful, thorough, able to plan, organized, hardworking, persistent, and achievement-oriented tend to have higher job performance in most if not all occupations” (p. 272).

Judge et al. (2002) found from their major meta-analysis of leadership and personality studies that extraversion was the factor most associated with leadership. Agreeableness was found to be only weakly associated with leadership (Judge et al., 2002). Furthermore, research findings surrounding the trait theories suggest the Big Five can predict leadership, but it more accurately predicts up-and-coming leaders better than distinguishing the quality of a leader (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Feser, Mayol, and Srinivasan (2015) suggested there to be “a small subset of leadership skills closely correlate with leadership success” (p. 2). From this list of leadership traits, it was discovered leaders in organizations with high-quality leadership teams typically demonstrated the ability to solve problems effectively, maximize productivity, seek a variety of perspectives, and supports others (Feser, Mayol, &

Srinivasan, 2015). Robbins and Judge (2013) explained individuals can exhibit particular traits, but this does not necessarily mean they can successfully lead a group to accomplish desired goals.

The next approach, the behavioral theories of leadership, evolved in the late 1940s through the 1960s since the trait theory was deemed ineffective (Surucu & Yesilada, 2017). Where trait research is based on selecting the right people for leading, behavioral leadership can be taught and learned (Surucu & Yesilada, 2017). Most of the behavioral leadership research followed the founding research programs at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University (Day & Antonakis, 2018). The early studies narrowed the dimensions of the leadership behavior into the categories of initiating structure and consideration (Khan, et al., 2016). Yukl (2013) defined consideration as “the degree to which a leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, and looks out for their welfare” (Yukl, 2013, p. 75). Then initiating structure behavior is defined as the extent to which a leader guides his or her efforts and the roles of others toward attaining the group’s formal goals (Yukl, 2013).

Research studies have shown how the culture and/or values held by individuals demonstrate preferences for initiating structure and consideration behaviors (Menon, 2014). For example, John and Taylor (1999) found from their study in the Philippines, teachers felt more committed to their school when consideration was practiced by the school leaders. Therefore, it was concluded school leaders everywhere, but especially in the Philippines, would benefit with teacher commitment and school climate by practicing considerate leadership behaviors such as constructive criticism, support, and genuine concern for teachers (John & Taylor, 1999). Contrary to this is the French who have a

more bureaucratic view of leaders and therefore, are less likely to anticipate or need considerate leadership behaviors (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Studies have proven leaders who possess certain traits and practice certain behaviors are more effective; however, there are other factors in the equation, which include people, culture, and context (Menon, 2014; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Day and Antonakis (2018) further explained how behavioral styles of leadership were contradictory because “there was no consistent evidence of a universally preferred leadership style across tasks or situations” (p. 8). Robbins and Judge (2013) further explained how the rise and fall of leaders illustrate predicting leadership success is more complex than simply identifying traits or behaviors of the leader, and “as important as traits and behaviors are in identifying effective or ineffective leaders, they do not guarantee success. The context matters, too” (p. 372). So, due to inconsistent findings and the critic’s arguments of no single type of leadership effective for all conditions or situations, the situational approach to leadership was developed in the 1960s (Day & Antonakis, 2018; Surucu & Yesilada, 2017).

There are several models or theories under the contingency and/or situational leadership approach. The most widely researched is Fiedler’s contingency model, but there is also situational leadership theory (SLT), path-goal theory, and the leadership-participation model (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Workman and Cleveland-Innes (2012) determined, “Contingency/situational leadership theories focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation” (p. 317). The situational approach to leadership prioritizes

the importance of the conditions and examining which type of leadership would adapt to the given circumstances (Surucu & Yesilada, 2017).

The Fiedler contingency model was the first approach suggesting the effectiveness of a group depended on the connection between the leader's style and situational factors (Robbins & Judge, 2013). It was believed by Fiedler an individual's leadership style was fixed, meaning "if a situation requires a task-oriented leader and the person in the leadership position is relationship oriented, either the situation has to be modified or the leader has to replace to achieve optimal effectiveness" (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 373). The basic belief was a leader's influence on success was determined by the leader's traits and various features of the working situations (Mohammed, Yusuf, Sanni, Ifeyinwa, Bature, & Kazeem, 2014). A measure of leadership effectiveness was attempted by Fiedler with a trait measuring system called the least preferred coworker score (LPC) (Mohammed et al., 2014).

A leader's LPC score and effectiveness are contingent on a complex variable called the situational control or favorableness (Miner, 2015). Favorability was defined by Fiedler as the extent to which the situation gives a leader control over subordinates, and favorability is measured in terms of the following three aspects of the situation:

- Leader-member relations: The extent to which the leader has the support and loyalty of subordinates and relations with subordinates are friendly and cooperative.
- Position power: The extent to which the leader has authority to evaluate subordinate performance and administer rewards and punishments.



- Task structure: The extent to which there are standard operating procedures to accomplish the task, a detailed description of the finished product or service, and objective indicators of how well the task is being done. (Yukl, 2013, p. 195)

These three variables are used to evaluate the situation in terms of eight possible situations in which leaders can be located (Miner, 2015). According to Fiedler, Chemers, and Mahar (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2013) to obtain maximum leadership effectiveness, it is proposed to match an individual's LPC score with the eight situations.

There is considerable evidence supporting parts of the Fiedler model, but there also many critics (Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995). The critics argued the logic underlying the LPC questionnaire and the stability with respondents' scores (Rice, 1978). However, modifications were made with the model by decreasing the original eight categories to three, and this helped with validity and supported Fiedler's final conclusions (House & Aditya, 1997).

House developed another contingency theory called the path-goal theory by extracting the research components of initiating structure and consideration from the Ohio State leadership research and the components of the expectancy theory of motivation (House, 1996; Yukl, 2013). Robbins and Judge (2013) explained the duties of a leader using path-goal theory to include providing subordinates with information, support, and/or resources needed to obtain goals. Vroom and Jago (2007) explained how leadership effectiveness is dependent on the factors found in the subordinates and environmental characteristics (Vroom & Jago 2007).

According to Davis (2017), these leaders are interested in the relationships with their subordinates and support the morale to increase obtainment of goals for the betterment of the organization, and they do this with one of four leadership styles: participative, supportive, directive, and achievement-oriented leadership:

- Participative leaders encourage subordinate's participation the process of decision making
- Supportive leaders pay high attention to the subordinates' needs and well being
- Directive leaders explain to the subordinates what is expected from them, provides guidance, and ensures procedures and rules implementation
- Achievement-oriented leaders, according to Prasad, attempt to enhance the performance, define the standards, and ensure achievement of these standards by the subordinates (as cited in Davis, 2017).

Robbins and Judge (2013) further explained the following could be predicted using the path-goal theory:

- Directive leadership yields greater satisfaction when tasks are ambiguous or stressful than when they are highly structured and well laid out.
- Supportive leadership results in high performance and satisfaction when employees are performing structured tasks.
- Directive leadership is likely to perceived as redundant among employees with high ability or considerable experience. (p. 376)

Testing the path-goal theory is complex, and as a result, the reviews and support for this theory are mixed (Illies, et al., 2006; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Villa, Howell, and Dorfman (2003) argued adequate tests of the theory have yet to be conducted. Other

research has demonstrated this type of goal-focused leadership can lead to higher levels of performance for conscientious subordinates but may cause stress for others (Colbert & Witt, 2009; Perry, Witt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010).

The last of the contingency or situational theories to be discussed is the leadership-participation model. This theory posits, “The way the leader makes decisions is as important as what she or he decides” (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 376). This model was developed by Vroom, Jago, and Yetton and, like the path-goal theory, is narrower in focus, specifically, with the degree to which the leader involves subordinates in the process of making decisions (Vroom & Jago, 2007).

Vroom and Jago (2007) explained the original model as normative or prescriptive with a decision tree of seven situation variables and five different leadership styles used in the process of decision making. The effectiveness of this model, according to Field, is not encouraging even after revisions (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2013). Like many other leadership models, House and Aditya (1997) explained how the critics focus on the complexity of the model and the variables which are omitted.

Yukl (2013) explained what is needed is a leadership theory with simple universal and situational components, providing leaders with general, easily applicable principles. The principles need to be more concrete than universalistic such as “allow participation” and “show high concern for both task and people” (Yukl, 2013, pp. 120-121). Robbins and Judge (2013) stated most of the theories assume leaders to use the same style with everyone they work with, and this is where the next theory differs.

The leader-member exchange theory (LMX) considers differences in the relationships leaders form with different subordinates or followers (Robbins & Judge,

2013). The LMX is based on the idea that leaders form special relationships with their followers and categorize them in one of two groups: the in-group or the out-group (Day & Antonakis, 2018). Day and Antonakis (2018) explained:

High-quality relations between a leader and his or her followers (i.e., the “in group”) are based on trust and mutual respect, whereas low-quality relations between a leader and his or her followers (i.e., the “out group”) are based on the fulfillment of contractual obligations. (p. 9)

According to Dulebohn, Bommer, Linden, Brouer, and Ferris (2012), the LMX theory, when first introduced, was groundbreaking for the following two reasons: “First, LMX focused on the separate dyadic relationships between leaders and each of their followers. Second, LMX stipulated that leaders do not develop the same type of relationship with each follower” (p. 1716).

The LMX theory states that leaders vary their interactions across followers and as a result, determine their relationships with followers (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Illies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2013) explained how research testing the LMX theory has generally been “supportive, with substantial evidence leaders do differentiate among followers, and the followers with the in-group status will have higher performance ratings, engage in more helping or ‘citizenship’ behaviors at work, and report greater satisfaction with their superior” (p. 378). Dulebohn et al. (2012) explained how researchers claim high-quality relationships are based solely on social exchange and not transactional behaviors, while other researchers believe effective leaders engage in both transformational and transactional behaviors. Furthermore, Dulebohn et al. (2012) explained how followers of leaders who unambiguously state the

linkages between behavior and corresponding rewards tend to form clear perceptions of task requirements, contributing to follower effort-performance expectancies. How employees fall into the categories is not as clear, but there is evidence high-quality or in-group members have things such as demographics, attitude, personality characteristics, and/or gender in common or similar with the leader (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Moreover, Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, Dineen, and Graen and Uhl-Bien (as cited in Dulebohn et al., 2012) claimed high-quality LMX relationships are built on the trust, respect, and mutual obligation, none of which would be present if a leader did not recognize, reward, and clarify expectations. Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Illies (2009) made the following conclusion:

[In] the initial interaction, members based their initial judgments on the agreeableness of the leader, whereas leaders based their initial judgments on the extraversion of the member. We also found that after leaders and members have interacted, behaviors such as performance become the key predictors of relationship quality for both leaders and members. (p. 265)

However, Yukl (2013) explained there is a danger of having hostility build between the groups as the out-group often feels alienated, develops apathy, and believes there are favorites. As a result, the out-group will lack compliance with their leader and undermine necessary cooperation and teamwork (Yukl, 2013).

Some of the more contemporary leadership theories include charismatic and transformational leadership, and then specific leadership theories to education include instructional and leading learner leadership (Fullan, 2014; Robbins & Judge, 2013). According to Day and Antonakis (2018) “transformational, charismatic leadership, and

other leadership models under the ‘Neo-charismatic approaches,’ make up the single most dominant leadership paradigm over the past decade. . .” (p. 11). The common theme with each of these types of leadership is “they view leaders as individuals who inspire followers through their words, ideas, and behaviors” (Robbins & Judge, 2013, p. 379). Instructional and leading learner leadership are specific theories of leadership found in the profession of education. Instructional leadership has leaders focused on improving teaching and learning, while leading learner leadership is a collective approach by leaders to use both transformational and instructional leadership theories (Day & Sammons, 2016; Fullan, 2014).

The first researcher to explain the charismatic leadership theory was House (Minor, 2015). The following is charismatic leadership defined by House: “a leader who has charismatic effects on followers to unusually high degree. These effects include devotion, trust, unquestioned obedience, loyalty, commitment, identification, confidence in the ability, to achieve goals, radical changes in beliefs and values” (as cited in Minor, 2015, p. 339). Yukl (2013) explained how “the inclusion of leader traits, behavior, influence, and situational conditions, makes this theory more comprehensive in scope than most leadership theories” p. 205).

Yukl (2013) provided the following indicators to determine the extent to which a leader is charismatic:

- Followers’ trust in the correctness of the leader’s beliefs.
- Similarity of the followers’ beliefs to those of the leader.
- Unquestioning acceptance of the leader by followers.
- Followers’ affection for the leader.

- Willing obedience to the leader by followers.
- Emotional involvement of followers in the mission of the organization.
- Heightened performance goals of followers
- Belief by followers that they are able to contribute to the success of the group's mission. (p. 205)

Other characteristics of charismatic leaders found in studies include the following: they have a vision, they are willing to take a risk, they are sensitive to follower needs, and they have practice unconventional strategies (Robbins & Judge, 2013, Yukl, 2013).

Additional characteristics of charismatic leaders, noted by Conger and Kanungo (1988), include an ability to accurately assess situations, communication of self-confidence, and the use of personal power.

Robbins and Judge (2013) demonstrated how charismatic leaders are born, by explaining how studies have shown people are born with charismatic characteristics and how one's personality is also related to charismatic leadership. It has been discovered charismatic leaders tend to be goal-oriented, self-confident, and extraverted (House & Howell, 1992). According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), experts believe charismatic behaviors can taught. Richardson and Thayer (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2013) explained one can develop charisma by developing an optimistic view and being passionate, then drawing others in by establishing a strong relationship and desire to follow, and lastly tapping into the emotions of the followers. Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) presented evidence suggesting charismatic leaders influence their followers with the following four-step process:

- Articulate a vision or strategy for future progress toward a long-term goal(s).

- Develop a vision statement which expresses the overall purpose of the leader and the mission of organization.
- Create new values and set a passionate example through a tone, words, and actions for followers to imitate.
- Bring out the potential in followers by tapping into their emotions with behaviors demonstrating courage and conviction for the vision.

Yukl (2013) explained how charismatic leadership depends on not just the actions and influence of the leader but also the situation. Charismatic leadership is more likely to arise with challenges found in a new organization, or struggling organization, and is often most effective in these times of stress, crisis, and when values or beliefs are being questioned (Yukl, 2013). Another situational factor affecting charisma is the level of management in the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2013). According to Robbins and Judge (2013), charisma is more valuable in higher-level organizations where a vision is more likely to be needed to align with larger goals of the organization.

The charismatic leadership approach and the transformational and transactional leadership theories have been dominant since the late 1980s (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Transformational leadership is very similar to charisma and is sometimes used interchangeably in the literature (Yukl, 2013). Similar to transformational is another leadership approach called transactional leadership, which is a style of leadership where the leader rewards and punishes followers (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Robbins and Judge (2013) explained:

The Ohio State studies, Fiedler's model, and path-goal theory describe transactional leaders, who their followers toward established goals by clarifying



role and task requirements. Transactional leaders inspire followers to transcend their self-interests for the good of the organization and can have an extraordinary effect on their followers. (p. 382)

These leaders tend to focus on the followers' work to find error and deviations and is the type of leadership that is effective when projects need to be done in a specific way and/or in emergency or crisis situations (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) determined:

Transactional leadership, also known as managerial leadership, focuses on the role of supervision, organization, and group performance; transactional leadership is a style of leadership in which the leader promotes compliance of his followers through both rewards and punishments. (p. 358)

Some researchers originally believed transactional and transformational leadership were dichotomous, but Bass and Avolio viewed the two leadership styles as related and complementary to one another (as cited in Hauserman & Stick, 2013).

Burns made a distinction between a transactional and transformational leader by explaining transactional leaders as those who trade tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers, while transformational leaders focus on higher-order intrinsic needs, interact with followers, and remind them of the importance of specific outcomes (as cited in Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) clarified the distinction between the two approaches by explaining transactional leaders are simply looking to maintain the status quo while transformational leaders are looking to change the future.

Furthermore, the transformational leader is one who creates a team spirit, has enthusiasm, and constantly motivates followers (Aydin et al., 2013). This type of leader,

according to Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013), pays “attention to the concern and developmental needs of individual followers. . . helping them to look at old problems in a new way. . . arouse, excite and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals” (p. 356). The transformational leader enhances the motivation, morale, and performance of followers through the following mechanisms:

Connecting the follower's sense of identity and self to the project and the collective identity of the organization; being a role model for followers that inspires them and makes them interested; challenging followers to take greater ownership for their work, and understanding the strengths and weaknesses of followers, so the leader can align followers with tasks that enhance their performance. (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013, p. 356)

A transformational leader takes into consideration the desires and needs of followers to help all be successful and thrive (Aydin et al., 2013). In the school setting the primary focus of a transformational leader is promoting better student outcomes and emphasizing the value of improving the quality of teaching and learning (Day & Sammons, 2016). Day and Sammons (2016) further explained transformational leaders typically stress the following:

. . .vision and inspiration, focusing upon establishing structures and cultures which enhance the quality of teaching and learning, setting directions, developing people and (re)designing the organization, instructional leadership is said to emphasize above all else the importance of establishing clear educational goals, planning the curriculum and evaluating teachers and teaching. (p. 226)

The transformational leadership style is backed with empirical evidence demonstrating positive relationships with follower well-being, employee satisfaction, creativity, a higher level of productivity goal attainment, and lower turnover rates (Eisenbeib & Boerner, 2013). Workman and Cleveland-Innes (2012) explained, “The transformative perspective of leaders and leadership tends to create the foundational difference between management and leadership: Management affects outcomes for efforts, while leadership affects outcomes for people” (p. 319). Smith and Bell (2011) concluded from their research with school leaders in England who used both transactional and transformational leadership, it was the transformational leadership producing the most significant improvements within the school.

Robbins and Judge (2013) explained studies have demonstrated, despite the benefits with transformational leadership, it is not perfect. Like other leadership theories, critics have highlighted several weaknesses with a transformational leadership approach (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). For example, one issue noted was the less than desired effects on student achievement contributed to the focus of this approach on staff relationships (Day & Sammons, 2016). Due to a focus on enhancing effective teaching and learning, the next approach, instructional leadership is believed to have a greater impact on student outcomes (Day & Sammons, 2016).

Instructional leadership, also sometimes referred to as pedagogical leadership, views the leader’s primary focus to be on promoting better outcomes for students by enhancing the quality of teaching (Day & Sammons, 2016). Day and Sammons (2016) claimed from their meta-analysis review, instructional leadership is four times as

effective when compared to transformational leadership. This is contrary to the thoughts of Leithwood and Poplin (1992) who explained instructional leadership as:

. . . an idea that has served many schools well throughout the 1980s and early 1990s. But in light of current restricting initiatives designed to take schools into the 21st century, “instructional leadership” no longer appears to capture the heart of what school administration will have to become. (p. 8)

Moreover, Leithwood and Poplin (1992) explained how “transformational leadership evokes a more appropriate range of practice; it ought to subsume instructional leadership as the dominant image of school administration. . . (p. 8).

Despite this, Fullan (2014) explained how many school leaders are led to be instructional leaders, and the solution is neither instructional nor transformational leadership to most effectively impact learning. Fullan (2014) agreed with the research suggesting benefits from both instructional and transformational leadership but claimed school leaders need to be more hands-on and to focus their energy on leading the learning of collaborative groups versus having a too-focused approach as with instructional leadership or too-broad approach as with transformative leadership. Kramer (2015) supported this by stating:

. . . leadership is always collective endeavor. No one person has all the expertise, skill, and energy to improve a school or meet the needs of every student in his or her classroom. In a professional learning community, instead of being the instructional leader in charge of all things important, the principal becomes the leader of the school. In this role, the goal is to build the compacity of the people within the school to ensure high levels of learning for all students. (p. 44)

Fullan (2014) used the research of Robinson, Timperley, Leithwood, and Bryk to demonstrate exactly how the different approaches leading could positively affect student learning. As a result, Fullan (2014), synthesized these key research findings to create a framework with characteristics from both instructional leadership and transformative leadership styles for a leadership style he named “Leading Learner.” DuFour et al. (2016) supported this leadership approach and defined the principal as the “leader of learning, the one who leads the school community in learning about and implementing best practices and ensuring a culture of continuous learning and improvement” (p. 247).

Robinson and her colleagues conducted a large-scale research study on the impact of school leaders on student achievement (as cited in Fullan, 2014). From the research conducted by Robinson, the following five domains were found to have a significant effect (effect sizes are in parentheses) on student achievement:

- Establishing goals and expectations (0.42)
- Resourcing strategically (0.31)
- Leading teacher learning and development (0.84)
- Ensuring an orderly and safe environment (0.27). (as cited in Fullan, 2014, p. 9)

The most impactful of any other domain was leading teacher learning and development, and Fullan (2014) explained how within this particular domain Robinson et al. found the principal, who makes the most significant impact on learning, attends to other matters as well, but, most importantly, “participates as a learner” with teachers in helping move the school forward (p. 58).

Therefore “leading teacher learning means being proactively involved with teachers such that principal and teachers alike are learning” (Fullan, 2014, p. 58). Cutting across the five domains, Robinson (2011) used three key leadership competencies—applying relevant knowledge, solving complex problems, and building relational trust. Together, the five leadership domains and the three leadership capabilities accurately describe Fullan’s (2014) leading learner at work.

To create the leading learner, Fullan (2014) also referenced Timperley, a colleague of Robinson. From Timperley, Fullan (2014) determined a leading learner leader must utilize team leaders—teachers “who in turn can leverage the learning of other teachers in their group, thereby generating greater learning across the school” (p. 58). This concept is supported by Maxwell (2007) who called this, The Law of Explosive Growth. Maxwell (2007) explained how the leaders’ job is to develop the people who are going to build the organization, and if leaders develop a team, their organization can experience growth, but if they truly want to experience explosive growth, then leaders must develop leaders. Manna (2015) further explained how school leaders such as principals, through their actions, can experience this explosive growth as powerful multipliers of effective teaching and leadership practices in schools and as a result contribute to the success of the nation’s students.

Leithwood, Seashore, and their colleagues were authors Fullan (2014) referenced in the leading learner style to define skills, motivation, and working conditions. Leithwood et al. (2012) explained, “Leadership affects student learning when it is targeted at working relationships, improving instruction and, indirectly, student achievement” (p. 234). Furthermore, Leithwood et al. (2012) concluded from their

extensive work on the principalship that principals had the greatest impact on student learning, which came from a focus on instruction, including teacher knowledge, skills, and motivation and—on supportive working conditions (such as time for collaboration).

Bryk's work helped Fullan (2014) further develop the leading learner style with an emphasis on capacity, climate, community, and instruction. Bryk and his colleagues concluded from their research the key explanation for significant success with schools over their peer schools was found in a leadership focused on change (Fullan, 2014). As a result, Bryk et al. posited the following system of five essential organizational elements:

“Instructional guidance” is the intellectual depth, pace, coverage, and coherence of classroom learning activities. “Student-centered learning climate” is whether the environment at the school is conducive to learning in terms of the safety, seriousness of purpose, and sensitivity of student-teacher relationships.

“Professional capacity” is whether local faculty and staff are ready and competent to execute the needed changes. “Parent-community ties” is whether the family and neighborhood elements are informed and actively involved with school improvement. Overarching and activating these other elements is “Leadership as the driver for change,” represented by the school principal. The most effective leaders not only commanded the material and organizational resources of change, but also invested their time and good judgment to earn “relational trust” for their coherent reforms. (as cited in McPartland, 2011, p. 16)

The problem with this compact list of what effective school leaders should do, as reported by Fullan (2014), was only found in about 20% of the total schools.

The final author used to help create the leading learner style was Kirtman whose research was on school leadership practices and the competencies (observable behaviors or skills) associated with effectiveness (as cited in Fullan, 2014). A competent leader, according to Kirtman and Fullan (2016), involves building instructional leadership into the culture of the school and building strong leadership in teachers and has the following seven competencies:

- Challenges the status quo
- Builds trust through clear communications and expectations
- Creates a commonly owned plan for success
- Focuses on team over self
- Has a sense of urgency for sustainable results
- Commits to continuous improvement for self
- Builds external networks and partnerships

Fullan (2014) explained, “An effective leader spends time on—gets better at—all seven domains and their interconnections in order that the whole organization generates measurable instructional improvement” (p. 128).

According to DuFour et al. (2016), a professional learning community (PLC) is the answer to school success, and school leaders are vital to the PLC process. The very term *professional learning community* implies a “community of learners,” and in such a community, the principal is the leader of learning, the one who leads the school community in learning about and implementing best practices and ensuring a culture of continuous learning and improvement (DuFour et al., 2016, p. 247). This supports Fullan’s leadership style, and a recent review of research by Day and Sammons (2016)



also supported this style of finding the balance among instructional and transformative leadership. In Day and Sammons' (2016) reviews of large research studies in North America and research in Australia and England, there is evidence demonstrating the collective leadership effects have proven to be most effective.

Furthermore, Day and Sammons (2016) explained the recent research suggests the importance of both instructional and transformational leadership for improving student outcomes and using a combination of strategies is the most valuable approach for school success. Using a combination of the two of these leadership approaches illustrates the change happening over the last two decades with the principals' role being more than a manager but now also leader (Day & Sammons, 2016). Therefore, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and National Association of Elementary School Principals (2013) has agreed the quality of schools will not improve until there is a commitment to high-quality principal leadership. Bryk et al. further supported this by explaining school leadership as a key component for change, and without it, school improvement is highly unlikely (McPartland, 2011).

### **Leadership Research**

Like the different definitions of leadership, conceptions of a leader's effectiveness differ with each writer (Yukl, 2013). Researchers have tried to pinpoint exactly what the secret ingredient is for being an effective educational leader. Some researchers have claimed further studies need to be conducted, while others claimed leadership practices grounded in research and proven effective are too often ignored (Devine & Alger, 2011; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Fullan, 2014; Van Roekel, 2008). According to Whitaker (2012), it is "the actions," or the leadership behaviors of principals not what principals

necessarily know about leadership guidelines, standards, principles, and theories, making them more effective than their colleagues.

Over the past two decades, much has been written about the changes in school, and district leaders must bring about as formalized achievement standards and technology transform how schools run (Fullan, 2014). Fullan (2014) explained how leadership theories have failed to provide robust examples and insights to the specific changes needed by the principal. As a result, when one tried to determine what successful leadership is truly made of, it has been easy to become puzzled by exactly what defines success (Leithwood et al., 2004). Leithwood et al. (2004) warned the more important underlying themes common to successful leadership can be masked by the style being advocated. Krasnoff (2015) claimed research and practice have confirmed:

There is little chance of creating and sustaining a high-quality learning environment without a skilled and committed instructional leader to shape teaching and learning. Research has clearly shown that the principal is a key ingredient in the performance of the school... (p. 7)

At the turn of the century, Leithwood et al. (2004) and their extensive research through The Wallace Foundation demonstrated the important role a principal plays in school-improvement efforts, and from their evidence, they began to provide a direction for school leaders. From the data compiled and analyzed by Leithwood et al. (2004), it was concluded the following three sets of practices make up the basic core of successful educational leadership practices: “setting directions, developing people and redesigning the organization” (p. 8).

Setting directions involves creating a shared vision and purpose; developing people includes offering motivation, providing support, and modeling best practices and beliefs; and redesigning the organization includes strengthening school cultures and building collaborative processes (Leithwood et al., 2004). Alone, these practices are not considered “to significantly improve student learning. But without them, not much would happen” (Leithwood et al., 2004, p.8). These core practices are supported by many other researchers. For example, the NEA found successful principals provide a common vision, support teachers, and “monitor performances of teachers and students, with an eye on the overall goal—to create school cultures in which all children can achieve to their full potential” (Van Roekel, 2008, p. 1). Former NEA President Van Roekel (2008) stated, “Principals shape the environment for teaching and learning. The most effective principals create vibrant learning communities where faculty and staff collaborate to help every student fulfill his or her potential” (p. 1).

In addition to these core practices, studies have found evidence of certain behaviors valuable for school leaders to use. For example, through an analysis of Day and Sammons (2016), “high performing” school leaders did not work longer hours than others, but they did demonstrate the successful school leaders spent more time in their schools walking the halls, coaching teachers, and interacting with parents, other administrators, and students. Furthermore, Feser et al. (2015) suggested there is a group of skills or leadership traits with a close correlation to successful leadership. For example, successful leaders have demonstrated the ability to solve problems effectively, are driven to produce results, have a desire to gain different perspectives, and support others (Feser et al., 2015).

Hull (2012) also provided valuable characteristics of effective school leaders or principals and the characteristics of schools proven to have effective school leaders. Principals who are extremely effective are more likely to have or provide the following:

- Overall three years of leadership experience, and at least three years in their current school
- Shared leadership responsibilities
- Clear sense of instructional goals
- Informal feedback and support towards goals
- Unannounced, informal teacher evaluations with feedback following
- A school board and superintendent who exhibits a clear vision of what constitutes a good school and creates a framework for both principal autonomy and support to reach goals (Hull, 2012).

Day and Sammons (2016) claimed, “Successful principals achieve their success because they are able to enter into two kinds of relations with their worlds—the personal and the functional” (p. 36). The following are five key themes of similarity across the countries and differing contexts for successful school leaders:

- Sustaining passionate commitment and personal accountability
- Maintaining moral purpose and managing tensions and dilemmas
- Being “other centered” and focusing on learning and development
- Making emotional and rational investments
- Emphasizing the personal and the functional. (Day & Sammons, 2016, pp. 31-32)

Research has demonstrated effective principals have the most impact in elementary schools and high-poverty, high-minority schools (Hull, 2012). Furthermore, Hull reported the following about schools with highly effective principals:

- Standardized test scores that are 5 to 10 percentile points higher than schools led by an average principal
- Fewer student and teacher absences
- Effective teachers who stay longer
- Ineffective teachers typically replaced with more effective teachers
- Principals who are more likely to stay for at least three years (as cited in Krasnoff, 2015, p. 2)

It is apparent principals can impact a variety of outcomes in a school including student achievement through their efforts and abilities to create a positive school culture, to manage people, data and processes, and to motivate and retain of teachers (Krasnoff, 2015; Wallace Foundation, 2013).

### **School Culture and Climate**

What exactly is a school's culture and how does it differ from the school's climate? The school culture includes the collective beliefs and values influencing policies and practices within a school and, according to Whitaker (2012), it takes years to evolve. According to Whitaker (2012), the primary force driving everything in a school is the culture. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) explained the culture is the school's personality based on values and beliefs, "the way we do things around here," and the climate is the school's attitude based on perceptions, "the way we feel around here" (p.

10). It much easier to change an attitude (climate) than a personality (culture) (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

DuFour and Mattos (2013) claimed the reason school reform efforts have failed the last 30 years is because the reform efforts have failed to address the importance of school culture. The school culture, according to Gruenert and Whitaker (2015), determines if school improvement is possible, and the school climate is the first thing to improve when positive changes are made. Fisher, Pumpian, and Frey (2012) claimed school leaders must purposely develop the culture and then manage it to maximize the chance to live out the mission, become the vision, and fulfill the educational purpose and responsibilities within a school. Furthermore, Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) explained if schools are to be effective, leaders must understand a school's culture and be able to modify it if necessary.

Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011) claimed the primary and most critical job for school leaders is to shape the school's culture to focus relentlessly on student learning. Kelley, Thornton, and Daugherty (2005) supported this by claiming educational leadership as possibly the single greatest determinant of an effective learning environment. There is substantial evidence supporting the value of school culture and how school leaders' behaviors dictate the effectiveness of their schools through the environment (Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Balyer (2012) explained how the leadership style of the school leader is a key factor in developing an exemplary school culture. Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011) stated the following, which further illustrates the importance strong leadership and value of a positive school culture:

It's a critical element of effective leadership, and there is evidence from both private and public organizations that organizations with stronger cultures are more adaptable, have higher member motivation and commitment, are more cooperative and better able to resolve conflicts, have greater capacity for innovation, and are more effective in achieving their goals. (p. 52)

Due to the importance of school leadership and the value of school culture, there has been a lot of research to explain the most effective leadership approaches and behaviors to most effectively improve student learning. Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011) explained school leaders positively shape the culture when leadership is shared, and responsibility is taken for shaping classroom improvements. Consequently, schools would benefit if leadership was “shared or distributed leadership, which engages many stakeholders in major improvement roles, and instructional leadership, which administrators take responsibility for shaping improvements at the classroom level” (Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011, p. 52).

Kelley et al. (2005) concluded from research, a principal's behaviors and school climate are related, and results demonstrated there were statistically significant positive relationships established among teachers' perceptions of their principals' effectiveness and climate in the following areas of communication: teacher advocacy, participatory decision making, and fair evaluation procedures. There was a negative correlation between a principal's flexibility and the school climate (Kelley, Thornton & Daugherty, 2005). According to the findings of Menon (2014), the teachers' perception of leader effectiveness and teachers' overall satisfaction with their job were found to be significantly connected to the behaviors of the leader. The adage “perception becomes

reality needs to be considered; teachers' perceptions of a principal's effectiveness are authentic" (Kelley et al., 2005, p. 23).

According to Day and Sammons (2016), the improvement of teaching, learning, and student outcomes by leaders tend to happen indirectly through their influence on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions. Kelley et al. (2005) explained, "Leaders must be able to correctly envision the needs of their teachers, empower them to share the vision, and enable them to create an effective climate" (p. 23). According to DuFour and Mattos (2013), "Today's schools do not need 'instructional leaders' who attempt to ensure teachers use the right moves. Instead, schools need learning leaders who create a schoolwide focus on learning both for students and the adults who serve them" (p. 40).

Several researchers have found value in creating the necessary school culture. Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011) discovered from their study three elements necessary for a school culture to stimulate teachers' efforts to improve instruction:

- A culture of excellent instruction – deeper organizational learning among the teachers and administrators.
- Shared norms and values – professional community focused on ensuring all students learn.
- A culture of trust – organizational learning and a professional community both based on a firm foundation of trust.

Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011) further concluded from their research the following could be done by school leaders to improve the culture and student learning:



- Supporting individuals and groups to both identify and to preserve what is valuable to them.
- Guiding a school to “chip away” at cultural features that nullify or inhibit change.
- Helping members to understand the forces and conditions that will shape the future, ensuring cultural adaptation.
- Consistently checking to make sure that aspirations for change are understood and that they result in observable new behaviors in schools, (p. 56)

Day and Sammons (2016) “. . . found that when school leaders promote and/or participate in effective professional learning, this has twice the impact on student outcomes across a school than any other single leadership activity” (p. 41).

Furthermore, DuFour and Mattos (2013) claimed the most impactful strategy for improving both teaching and learning is for school leaders to create a working environment consisting of a collaborative culture through the collective responsibility of a professional learning community or PLC. Buffum (2012) supported this by stating there is conclusive, compelling research supporting the most effective and powerful strategy to change a school culture and ensure all students are learning at a high level is to become a PLC. Utilizing a PLC comes from the work of school leaders who understand a group of amazing teachers working in isolation cannot produce the same outcomes as interdependent colleagues developing and sharing best practices with one another (Garmston & Wellman, 2016).

According to DuFour and Fullan (2013), “PLCs are about people, practices, and processes—they are not a program. They are fundamentally a change in culture—the

way we do work around here” (p. 16). School leaders “must grasp the underlying principles of PLCs and realize that changing culture in systemic ways is at the heart of any successful large-scale educational reform” (DuFour & Fullan, 2013, p. 4). According to DuFour et al. (2016), there are three big ideas driving the PLC process, and the progress of a school depends on the extent to which these ideas are embraced and understood.

DuFour et al. (2016) explained “the first (and the biggest) of the big ideas is based on the premise that the fundamental purpose of the school is to ensure all students learn at high levels (grade level or higher)” (p. 11). DuFour et al. (2016) further explained the essence of a learning community is a focus and commitment on the learning for each student. Mattos (2018) stated, “We can’t settle for being good schools for most students. We must become great schools for every student” (p. 172). Therefore, school leader should consider aligning their school culture align with the essential structures found in a PLC to safeguard high levels of learning for all students (Buffum, 2012).

This leads to the second big idea driving the work of a PLC which is “educators must work collaboratively and take collective responsibility for the success of each student” (DuFour et al., 2016, p. 11). DuFour et al. (2016) stated:

Working together to build shared knowledge on the best ways to achieve goals and meet the needs of those they serve is exactly what professionals in any field are expected to do, whether it is curing a patient, winning the lawsuit, or helping all students learn. (p. 12)

Therefore, a PLC’s fundamental structure is found in the collaborative team of educators who work together in specific, intense, sustained ways (Fullan, 2014). This involves

“teachers working together to examine individual student progress, decide on and implement best instructional responses, learn from each other what is working, and build on what they are learning” (Fullan, 2014, p. 67). The collaborative teams of teachers use the following four key questions to guide their efforts:

- What is it we want our students to know and be able to do?
- How will we know if each student has learned it?
- How will we respond when students do not learn it?
- How do we extend the learning for students who have demonstrated proficiency? (DuFour et al., 2016)

These questions lead to results orientation, which is the third big idea driving the work of PLCs (DuFour & Fullan, 2013). DuFour and Fullan (2013) determined, “Schools will not know whether or not all students are learning unless educators are hungry for evidence that students are acquiring the knowledge, skills, and dispositions deemed most essential to their success” (p. 15). DuFour et al. (2016) explained the constant search for more effective ways of helping more students learn at higher levels leads to the following cyclical process for educators in a PLC:

- Gather evidence of current levels of student learning
- Develop strategies and ideas to build on strengths and address weaknesses in that learning
- Implement those strategies and ideas
- Analyze the impact of the changes to discover what was effective and what was not
- Apply new knowledge in the next cycle of continuous improvement. (p. 12)

In addition, to collaborative culture with a collective responsibility, a focus on learning, and emphasis on results, PLC schools are characterized with a common mission, vision, values, and goals (DuFour et al., 2016). DuFour and Fullan (2013) explained PLCs fundamentally alter the entire culture of a school system and the intent of the process is to impact the traditional culture of schooling through an ongoing process rather than a program. To make PLCs systematic requires school leaders to get people throughout the system to act in new ways and to contribute to the effort to make school a better place for student and adult learning (DuFour & Fullan, 2013). How school leaders go about creating this culture and using PLC for school improvement is important according to DuFour et al. (2016).

### **Teacher Motivation**

Despite a vast quantity of research on leadership, Illies et al. (2006) believed considerable work remains to be done to understand how exactly leadership and motivation are linked. Maxwell (2016) stated recent research demonstrates leaders cannot really motivate people, but they can set up environments to motivate people. Krasnoff (2015) reported, “Researchers suggest that good leadership improves both teacher motivation and work settings, which can, in turn, strengthen classroom instruction” (p. 5). This was supported by Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) who claimed the culture and climate established in a school influences everything under its roof, including the people and their motivation.

Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) further explained schools’ cultures do not have visions; only leaders have visions, and it’s the vision of school leaders for organizations needed to inspire. Convey (2014) supported this by concluding from his research the

school's mission and its culture contributed to higher levels of teacher's job satisfaction. This demonstrates school leaders would benefit to understand everything happening in their school reflects their leadership, and if they are allowing the culture to lead their building, they are not leading but simply managing (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) explained there to be powerful potential for school leaders who understand how their vision can potentially change existing culture and motivate teachers (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). The self-determination theory (SDT), has been used for decades to address the connection between motivation, performance, and wellness in organizations (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan 2017). The SDT is a theory of "human motivation that evolved from research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and expanded to include research on work organizations and other domains in life" (Deci et al., 2017, 19).

According to Deci, Olafsen, and Ryan (2017), the key to understanding the SDT for the workplace comes from understanding "all human beings have three fundamental psychological needs—competence, autonomy, and relatedness which when satisfied promote autonomous motivation, wellness, and effective performance" (p. 39). Deci et al. (2017) concluded from their research on motivation, well-being and superior performance would improve if policies and practices met the following three factors for employees:

- Allow the employees to gain competencies and/or feel confident
- Experience the freedom to experiment and initiate their own behaviors and not feel pressured or coerced to behave as directed
- Feel respect and belonging in relation to both supervisors and peers. (p. 38)

Research by Trépanier, Forest, Fernet, and Austin (2015) demonstrated how providing job resources were very beneficial as they positively influenced the job satisfaction of employees' psychological needs and negatively influenced frustration with these needs. Trépanier et al. (2015) explained how "intervening on both positive and negative job characteristics, organizations can play a key role in shaping employees' psychological and motivational experiences at work, resulting consequently in a healthy, engaged, and high-performing workforce" (p. 17).

The basic beliefs of motivation found in the SDT and in the workforce is related to the thoughts and work of Pink (2009) who explained his theory of motivation and job satisfaction in his book, *Drive*. In this book, Pink (2009) explained previous conceptions of motivation (what he referred to as Motivation 2.0) are outdated and ineffective in current society. The carrot-and-stick method of rewarding the good and punishing the bad still serves some purposes well, but many times does not work because in three areas it is incompatible with current operating systems: how we organize what we do; how we think about what we do; and how we do what we do (Pink, 2009). Lubin and Ge (2012) supported this idea and explained external rewards presented for performing an activity make an individual feel as if he/she is performing the activity merely to obtain a reward, and consequently this lowers intrinsic motivation.

Pink (2009) cited many studies and research to rationalize a new theory of motivation (Motivation 3.0), which revolves around intrinsic rewards. As with the SDT, Pink (2009) explained his theory is based on the concept of individuals having an innate drive to be autonomous, self-determined, and connected to one another. Pink's theory is based on the themes of mastery, purpose, and autonomy (as cited in Coggins &

Diffenbaugh, 2013). These three themes can provide a useful outline for leaders to use when working to motivate teachers for the long term (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013).

The first theme, mastery, according to Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2103), can often have a negative effect on both new teachers who are often challenged beyond their current capabilities and then experienced teachers' who lack a sense of challenge. For mastery to effectively motivate teachers, there needs to be quality feedback given frequently to the teacher, and for this to happen there needs to be "better data systems, improved teacher assessments, and more frequent and higher-quality classroom observations" (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013, p. 43). Whitaker (2012) suggested a method to note progress can be found in teachers' evaluations and stated there is great value in teacher evaluations if used correctly. High achievers thrive on positive recognition and often do not compare themselves to others but strive for perfection all the time; telling them they excel makes them strive to do more, but anything less can be deflating (Whitaker, 2012).

The second theme in Pink's (2009) motivation theory is purpose. Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) cited how research has long documented teachers pursue the profession to influence the lives of students. According to Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013), school leaders should consider the following to more effectively motivate teachers through the purpose theme:

- First schools need to offer career ladders to provide teachers the opportunity to learn and grow in the profession in ways which keep them in the classroom

- Second school leaders should consider helping teachers bridge the gap between policy and practice
- Third thing school leaders need to understand is “teachers want to know their efforts are having an effect, want to be recognized for that, and want help colleagues reach more students. (p. 44)

Moreover, Fullan (2014) highlighted research supporting people are most motivated when they feel they have overcome obstacles and made progress, even small steps in their daily work.

Autonomy is the third and last theme in Pink’s (2009) motivational theory. According to Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013), some argue the teaching profession offers teacher too much autonomy. Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) explained, “A teaching profession that values autonomy rejects both the notion that teachers should be left alone to do as they please and the belief that teachers are pawns who must be controlled” (p. 44). This is important to remember because it has been demonstrated school leaders who attempt to control behaviors with rules will often experience outcomes opposite to what they desire (Whitaker, 2012). Good teachers will lose autonomy and therefore, motivation, and the ones the rules are for often ignore them anyway (Whitaker, 2012). Whitaker (2012) explained how especially the outstanding teachers, need autonomy and recognition to make them feel content and motivated.

Furthermore, Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013) explained how teachers were leaving the profession in schools where they were told exactly what to teach and required to spend hours prepping for their classes. McCaughtry, Martin, Garn, Kulik, and Fahlman (2015), reported teacher burnout is a growing epidemic in school



systems. According to Coggins and Diffenbaugh (2013), Pink believed a balanced approach of being autonomous and interdependent of others is needed and explained autonomy does not mean independence. McCaughtry et al. (2015) determined, “To prevent teachers’ burnout, it is important to improve teachers’ working conditions and classroom environments” (p. 530).

As with the SDT theory by Deci and Pink’s motivation theory, Fullan (2014) claimed: “Humans are fundamentally motivated by two factors: doing things that are intrinsically meaningful to themselves, and working with others-peers, for example-in accomplishing worthwhile goals never before reached” (p. 7). This is supported by Olafsen, Halvari, Forest, and Deci (2015) who explained from their research, “The bottom line appears to be that organizations should strive to create a need-satisfying work climate to motivate employees to perform better rather than focusing all of their efforts on compensation systems” (p. 455). If school leaders can figure out how to attain this type of climate, then fundamental changes will occur more rapidly, allowing uninspired school systems to transform into dynamic learning environments (Fullan, 2014).

Like authors Coggins and Diffenbaugh and Fullan, others have claimed there is evidence suggesting the actions or behaviors school leaders can use to increase teachers’ motivation (Hauserman & Stick, 2013; Illies et al., 2006; Naile & Selesho, 2014). Illies et al. (2006) proposed there is both an affective and cognitive mechanism by which leaders influence follower motivation. Naile and Selesho (2014) determined from their research, a leadership style is a critical component when motivating teachers. Hauserman and Stick (2013) concluded from their research, teachers who work with a highly

transformational principal are enthusiastic in their comments and praise the positive organizational culture at their school.

In contrast, teachers who work with a principal exhibiting low levels of transformational qualities are frustrated with the behaviors of their respective principals and the accompanying negative implications for the school's culture (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Similarly, Kopperud, Martinsen, and Humborstad (2014) believed the perception of an engaging leader is in the eyes of the beholder; employees perceive their best relationship is with a transformational leader. Transformational leadership positively affects the climate by generating work engagement, or motivation, and engagement helps create synergy among positive outcomes for employees as well as organizations (Kopperud, Martinsen, & Humborstad, 2014).

### **Summary**

Chapter Two is a summary of the history of school reform, the current education system, and the challenges in front of school leaders. Leadership theories were examined, and important research findings and conclusions on the topic were reviewed. The topics of school culture/climate and teacher motivation were also discussed. In addition, research for effective and ineffective leadership approaches or behaviors within these two topics in education were examined.

In Chapter Three, an overview of the problem and purpose of the study is provided. In addition, the research questions guiding the study are revisited. The methodology of the study including the research design, the population and sample, and the development of the instrument are explained. Lastly, the data collection, the analysis of the data, and ethical considerations are presented.

### **Chapter Three: Methodology**

For three decades the United States public school system has been unsuccessfully addressing different challenges with educating students (Fullan, 2014). The government has intervened to help improve the nation's system but with minimal effectiveness (DuFour & Fullan, 2013; Fullan 2014). DuFour and Fullan (2013) explained this is largely due to school reform efforts being random acts of innovation. For example, programs are mandated and put in place but quickly replaced by the next attractive innovation for success (DuFour & Fullan, 2013).

Results of the reform efforts and government mandates include additional pressures and multiple responsibilities for school leaders (Bayar, 2016). School leaders are challenged daily with several, complex tasks which include but are not limited shaping the vision, creating a hospitable climate, cultivating leadership in others, improving instruction, analyzing data, managing people and processes to improve instruction, handling student discipline, maintaining safe facilities, and planning and managing a budget (Tobin, 2014; Wallace Foundation, 2013). Leading a school district involves much more than management to be effective in the 21st-century education system (Bayar, 2016). School leaders need an understanding of the skills needed in the 21st-century and must be willing to inspire significant and meaningful change (Fox & McDermott, 2015).

Furthermore, Van Roekel (2008) explained school leaders need to inspire and to do so must understand how different leadership styles affect the culture and teachers. Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) believed school leaders make the real difference in schools, and according to Bartoletti and Connelly (2013), recent research confirms

school leadership matters. However, Dhuey and Smith (2014) claimed there is still much work needed to uncover what leadership styles and behaviors make a principal effective.

In this chapter, the overarching problem of this study is explained. Next, the six research questions and hypotheses are restated, and the population and sample are given. The instrumentation, the procedures for data collection, and the methods for analyzing the data are also presented. Lastly, the ethical considerations taken in the study to protect and assure confidentiality and anonymity are explained.

### **Problem and Purpose Overview**

The purpose of this research study was to help school leaders understand effective leadership practices and how their leadership behaviors impact everything around them. This was accomplished by investigating teachers' perceptions of which leadership behaviors they value in a principal (initiating structure and consideration), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. As a result of this study, a framework for best practices for school leaders can be created for more effectively developing a positive school culture, motivating teachers, and ultimately having a positive impact on student achievement.

**Research questions and hypotheses.** Data were collected using an online survey instrument to determine the existence of a simple positive or negative relationship (Bluman, 2013) among leadership behaviors, school culture, and teacher motivation. The following research questions were posed to discover these possible relationships:

1. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers?

*H1<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

*H1<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

2. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating?

*H2<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H2<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

3. What is the relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure?

*H3<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

*H3<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

4. What is the relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating?

*H4<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H4<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

5. What are the differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?

*H5<sub>o</sub>*: There are no differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

*H5<sub>a</sub>*: There are differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

6. What are the differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?

*H6<sub>o</sub>*: There are no differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

*H6<sub>a</sub>*: There are differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants.

### **Research Design**

A quantitative approach was taken in this study to determine possible relationships among the specified variables: A 30-statement survey was developed to obtain information on the three different variables. In section one of the survey, there were a total of five statements for each leadership behavior randomly mixed in the first 10 survey statements. The five statements for *initiating structure* were used to determine the value participants have for their leader's efforts and actions to get his or her staff working toward the attainment of the group's formal goals.

The five questions for *consideration* were used to determine the value participants have for their leader's ability to act friendly, have a supportive manner, show concern for subordinates, and look out for teachers' welfare. These two scores were added together

for a total leadership score. In sections two and three of the survey, there were 10 statements concerning *school culture* and *teacher motivation*. These statements for school culture and teacher motivation were developed based on what the most recent research suggests leaders can do to influence and establish a positive school culture and what motivates people, specifically teachers.

### **Population and Sample**

The population for this study consisted of 1,128 certified teachers randomly selected from five school districts with a membership to the Southwest Center for Educational Excellence. This method was used to assure school districts with a total of 150 certified teachers or more would be included for an anticipated return rate of 20% or a minimum of 30 participants, because “the distribution of the sample means will be approximately normal when the sample size is 30 or more” (Bluman, 2013, p. 401).

The sample was selected from certified teachers within a specific geographical location, but the participants were not limited to a particular building or grade level. The sample was 45 certified teachers from the five different school districts.

### **Instrumentation**

A Qualtrics account was created enabling the creation of a custom-built survey and the collection of data via the Internet. The survey was created from an assimilation of information obtained in the literature review (Arbabi & Mehdinezhad, 2015; Aydin et al., 2013; Coffins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Convey, 2014; Mattos, 2018; Day & Sammons, 2016; DuFour et al., 2016; DuFour & Fullan, 2013; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Fullan, 2014; Gilley et al, 2009; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Illies et al., 2006; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lubin & Ge, 2012; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Kelley et al., 2005; Mattos, 2018;

Pink, 2009; Whitaker, 2012). The survey link was included in the emails sent to superintendents.

Participants provided their educational teaching title from a drop-down menu, elementary (K-4th), middle school/junior high (5th-8th), and high school (9th-12th). Participants then identified their years of teaching experience with another drop-down menu, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, or 21+ years. Lastly, using the Internet-based survey, participants answered each of the 30 statements, which were divided into three sections.

The following Likert scale was used in section one to answer the first 10 statements regarding the participants' perceptions of what is valued from a principal's leadership: 0 = Never, 1 = Rarely, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Most of the Time, and 4 = Always for the initiating structure and consideration questions. Finally, the following Likert scale was used to answer 10 statements in section two about the participant's school culture preferences and 10 statements in section three about the participant's professional motivation preferences: 0 = Strongly Disagree, 1 = Disagree, 2 = Neutral, 3 = Agree, and 4 = Strongly Agree.

### **Data Collection**

Following IRB approval (see Appendix A), superintendents of the participating school districts were sent permission letters (see Appendix B) and consent forms for site approval (see Appendix C) via electronic mail. A copy of the survey instrument (see Appendix D) was included. Once permission was received from the five school districts, superintendents were sent, via electronic email, the following information to forward to their teachers: a cover letter inviting participation (see Appendix E), the informed



consent form (see Appendix F), and the Qualtrics survey link. Data were electronically compiled into spreadsheet format. Data from unfinished surveys, the surveys without electronic consent, and the surveys completed by those other than certified teachers were not included

### **Data Analysis**

The Likert-type scale survey responses were converted to a total leadership score, initiating score, consideration score, school culture score, and motivation score. The initiating structure score was established by adding the scores for statements 2, 3, 6, 8, and 10. The scores for statements 1, 4, 5, 7, and 9 on the survey were added to determine each participant's consideration score. Scores for initiating structure and consideration behaviors ranged from 0-20. The sum of the initiating structure and consideration scores was calculated to generate the total leadership score for each participant. The total leadership scores ranged from 0-40. The school culture score was determined by adding together scores from statements 11-20 on the survey. The professional motivation score was calculated by adding together scores from statements 21-30 on the survey. The range for both variable scores were 0-40.

First variables were evaluated using the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations (PPMC) to identify possible relationships. The PPMCs are one of several types of correlation coefficients used to determine the strength of the linear relationship among two of the variables in this study. The correlation coefficient is used to measure the strength and direction of linear relationship among the two quantitative variables (Bluman, 2013). Bluman (2013) determined:

The range of the correlation coefficient is from -1 to +1. If there is a strong positive linear relationship among the variables, the value of  $r$  will be close to +1. If there is a strong negative relationship among the variables, the value of  $r$  will be close to -1. When there is no linear relationship among the variables or only a weak relationship, the value of  $r$  will be close to 0. (p. 533)

The critical values of the PPMC calculation of the correlation coefficient were set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , which resulted in “a 5% chance of rejecting a true null hypothesis” (Bluman, 2013, p. 404). The critical value of a two-tailed PPMC calculation with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$  was 0.304. Therefore, when the correlation coefficient was greater than 0.304, the null hypothesis was rejected. To determine the possible relationships, a total of eight PPMCs were conducted.

The first of the PPMCs applied were to answer question one and determine the relationship between total leadership and the variable of school culture. The first PPMC for question one was used to determine the relationship among the independent variable of total leadership and the dependent variable of school culture. Then, two more PPMCs were applied to each leadership behavior score by breaking research question one down into two sub-questions. The first of these sub-questions to research question one was to determine the relationship between the specific leadership behavior of initiating structure and school culture. The second of the sub-questions was applied to determine the relationship between the specific leadership behavior consideration and school culture.

The next several PPMCs were applied to answer question two and determine the relationship among total leadership, which consisted of the leadership behaviors of initiating structure and consideration valued by teachers and the variable of teacher

motivation. The first PPMC for question two was applied to determine the relationship between the independent variable of total leadership, which was calculated by adding together the initiating structure score and consideration score, and the dependent variable of teacher motivation. Two more PPMCs were again applied to each leadership behavior scores by breaking down research question two into two sub-questions. The first sub-question to research question two was to determine the relationship between the specific leadership behavior of initiating structure and teacher motivation. The second sub-question was applied to determine the relationship between the specific leadership behavior consideration and teacher motivation.

After answering the first two research questions, two more PPMCs were calculated to answer research questions three and four. Question three in the study was presented to determine the relationship between the two leadership variables of initiating structure and consideration for each teacher. Then, question four was posed to determine the relationship among the school culture teachers prefer and the factors teachers find professionally motivating.

Next, the variables in this research study were organized visually to display their relationships with scatter plots and box-and-whisker plots. A scatter plot is a visual way to describe the relationship among independent and dependent variables. Bluman (2013) reported, "A scatter plot is a graph of the ordered pairs (x, y) of numbers consisting of the independent variable x and the dependent variable y" (p. 532). Next, the results were compiled into four separate data scatter plot charts as depicted in Figures 1, 4, 6, and 9 to determine "if a relationship among two variables exists" (Bluman, 2013, p. 94).

Box-and-whisker plots are used in exploratory data analysis to graphically represent the data (Bluman, 2013). The data are graphically represented by drawing the following five specific values:

. . . a horizontal line from the minimum data value to  $Q_1$ , drawing a horizontal line from  $Q_1$  to maximum data value, and drawing a box whose vertical sides pass through  $Q_1$  and  $Q_3$  with a vertical line inside the box passing through the median or  $Q_2$ . (Bluman, 2013, p. 170)

The results from this research study were compiled into five separate box-and-whisker plot charts created from the data found in Table 1 and depicted in Figure, 2, 3, 5, 7, and 8.

Finally, the initiating structure and consideration scores were used to determine the leadership behavior quadrant for each teacher's perspective on the traits of leadership he or she values. This was intended to answer the final two research questions, which were five and six in the study. The initiating structure scores were plotted on the horizontal axis and the consideration scores on the vertical axis of the leadership behavior grid. The point where the initiating structure score and consideration score intersected determined the leadership behavior quadrant. This represented the participant's perception of how he or she values initiating structure and consideration from a leader. John and Taylor (1999) used these four quadrants to explore the relationships among principals' leadership styles, school climate, and the organizational commitment of teachers.

After plotting each participant's perspective of how they value leadership behaviors on the leadership behavior quadrant regarding initiating structure and

consideration, it was discovered all the data points were in the upper right quadrant ( $t > 10, r \geq 10$ ) (see Figure 10). This is Quadrant II where a leader is defined as someone who displays strong task behaviors and strong relationships (John & Taylor, 1999). The plan was to compute a mean score for each of the four quadrants. However, this could not be calculated since all participants scores were plotted into quadrant II. Therefore, there were no scores on culture and motivation for each quadrant to calculate a mean score for the four quadrants.

As a result, the final step of running a series of  $t$ -tests or ANOVA tests could not be conducted to investigate the possible differences in the culture and motivation means. These tests were intended to determine if there were acceptable levels of statistical significance in the differences among the means of data sets measured, or if variance among the variables were random matters of chance and not statistically significant (Bluman, 2013). Since these tests could not be run, research questions five and six in the research study could not be answered.

### **Ethical Considerations**

Participants in this study were protected to assure confidentiality and anonymity. Confidentiality is explained in the Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities (see Appendix H). It was explained to participants in the consent form participation was voluntary, and they may choose to participate or not in the research study and withdraw consent at any time. A Qualtrics account was created enabling the creation of a custom-built survey and the collection of data via the Internet. As part of this effort, the participant's identity will not be revealed in any publication or presentation as a result of this study. The use of data codes were used to

also lessen the possibility of identifying participants. All data and information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a safe location for three years after the completion of the research project and then it will be destroyed.

### **Summary**

The focus of this quantitative study was to identify potential relationships based on teacher perceptions of leadership behaviors and how the behaviors affect school culture and teacher motivation. Provided in this chapter were the overarching problem and purpose of this study, with the six research questions and hypotheses. In addition, an explanation of the research design and the population and sample were given. The instrumentation, the procedures for data collection, and the methods for analyzing the data were presented. Then finally, the ethical considerations taken in the study to protect and assure the confidentiality and anonymity were explained.

Chapter Four was completed after data collection and analysis were performed. The chapter includes several figures and tables to visually illustrate the data from the survey results. In addition to the detailed findings, Chapter Four includes a detailed analysis of how the study was conducted.

## **Chapter Four: Analysis of Data**

Vital to any organization is effective leadership, but it is inconclusive to the exact elements making a school leader effective (Dhuey & Smith, 2014). The purpose of this study was to examine the components of principals' leadership behaviors, school culture, and teacher motivation. It has been demonstrated, through research, school culture has proven to be a critical element with leadership (Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) explained how educational leadership is influenced by the school culture, but it is the leadership significantly impacting schools. As a result of this study, a framework for best practices for school leaders can be created for more effectively developing a positive school culture, motivating teachers, and ultimately having a positive impact on student achievement.

In the 21st-century education system, it takes more than management for school leaders to be effective (Bayar, 2016). School leaders must understand how the way school was done in the Industrial Age no longer makes sense in today's Informational Age (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). Leaders need to recognize what is needed in the 21st century and be willing to inspire meaningful change (Fox & McDermott, 2015). To inspire change, school leaders need to understand how culture and people are affected by different leadership styles (Van Roekel, 2008).

### **Quantitative Analysis**

This quantitative study was designed to investigate the relationship among teachers' perceptions of what they value in a principal's leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. The Wallace Foundation and other groups have

helped bring into focus the behaviors and priorities of effective school leaders and the impact on student learning (Bartoletti & Connelly, 2013; Wallace Foundation 2013).

According to Bartoletti and Connelly (2013), there have been large quantities of quality research over the last few years supporting leadership matters.

From the five school districts invited to participate in the survey, there were 65 responses when the survey was closed. Of those 65, seven responses were eliminated as the respondents were not certified teachers. Of those 58 surveys, 13 were not included due to incompleteness of survey. Therefore, data from 45 survey participants' information were used which according to Bluman (2013) constituted a valid study survey by meeting the minimum of 30 participants as "the distribution of the sample means will be approximately normal when the sample size is 30 or more" (Bluman, 2013, p. 401).

**Research question one.**

*RQ1. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers?*

*H1<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

*H1<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers.

To answer research question one, a correlational coefficient was calculated using the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations (PPMC) to determine the strength of the linear relationship between the independent variable of total leadership (the sum of the initiating structure score and consideration score) and the dependent variable of school culture. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .595$  which was greater than the



critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers was rejected, indicating the existence of a significant positive relationship. According to Rumsey (2011), the correlational coefficient of .595 represents a strong positive correlation.

Two more PPMCs were applied to each of the leadership behaviors by breaking research question one down into two sub-questions. The first sub-question was calculated to find the relationship between initiating structure and the dependent variable of school culture preferred by teachers. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .480$  which was greater than the critical value of (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . The data implied a statistically significant positive relationship between the values of the leadership behavior of initiating structure and school culture preferences of teachers. This .480 correlational coefficient, according to Rumsey (2011), represents a moderate positive correlation, because it falls into the 0.30 - 0.55 range.

The second sub-question to question one was calculated to find the relationship between consideration and the dependent variable of school culture preferred by teachers. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .600$  which was greater than the critical value of (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating a statistically significant positive relationship between the values of the leadership behavior consideration and school culture preferences of teachers. This is supported by Rumsey (2011) as a strong positive correlation, since .600 falls in the 0.55 – 1 range.

Data were graphed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to create scatter plots to illustrate visually the nature of the relationship between the teacher's value of leadership behaviors and the teacher's preference in school culture. A line of best fit was also drawn through the center of the data points plotted on the scatter plot (see Figure 1). To provide an additional visual representation of the distribution of data, data were also presented using a box-and-whisker plot. For leadership behaviors valued by teachers the minimum = 28,  $Q_1 = 35$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 38,  $Q_3 = 39$ , maximum = 40, the mean was equal to 36.6, and standard deviation ( $SD$ ) = 3.2 (see Figure 2). For teacher preferences of school culture, the minimum = 27,  $Q_1 = 34$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 36,  $Q_3 = 39$ , and maximum = 40, the mean was equal to 35.8, and  $SD = 3.58$  (see Figure 3).

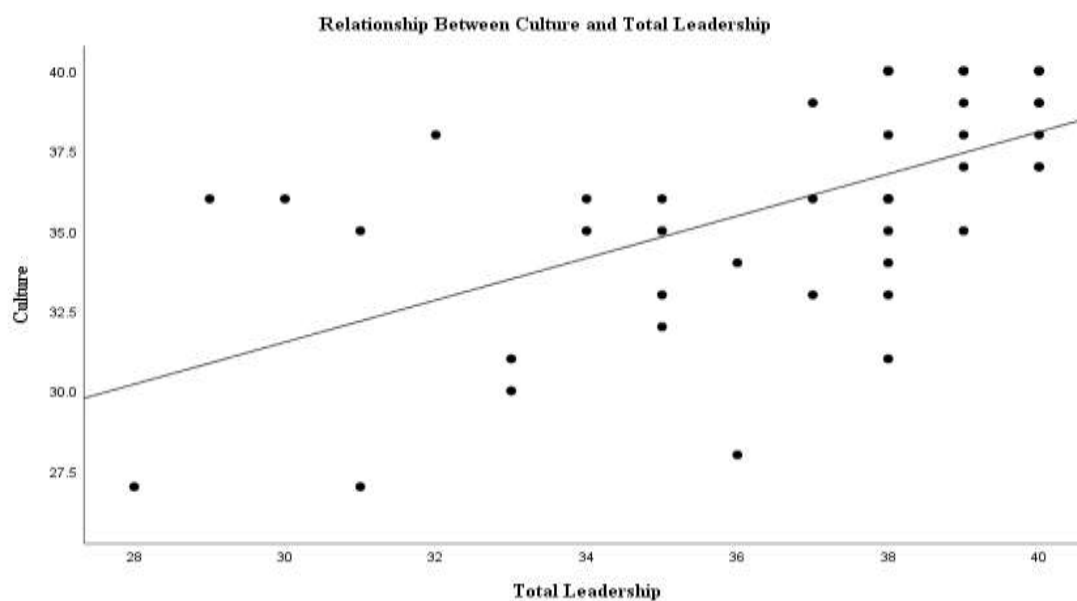


Figure 1. Relationship between culture and total leadership.

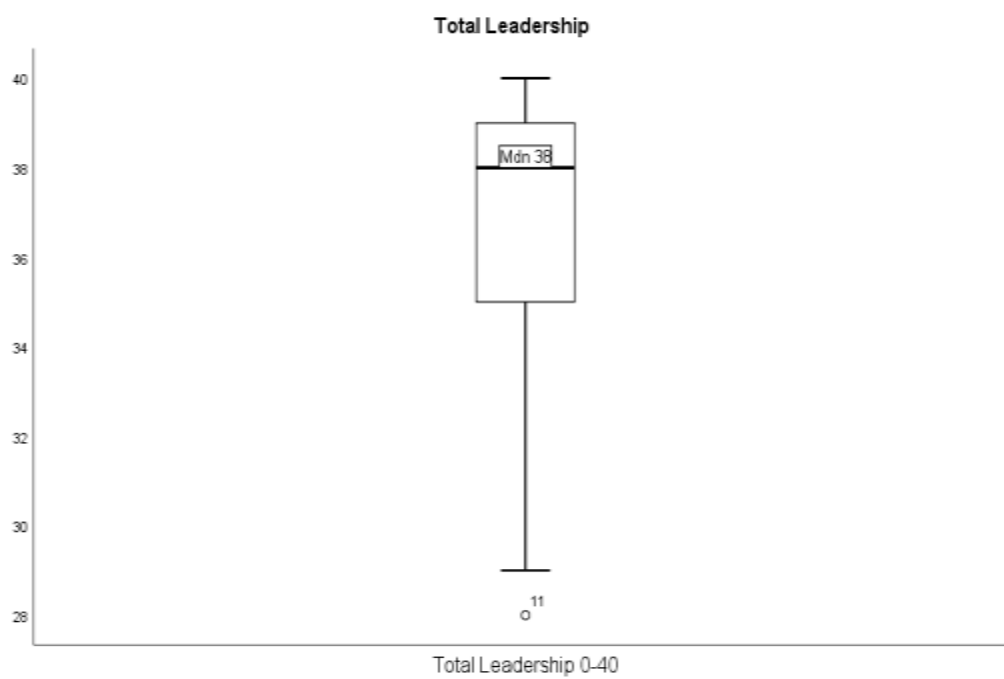


Figure 2. Total leadership.

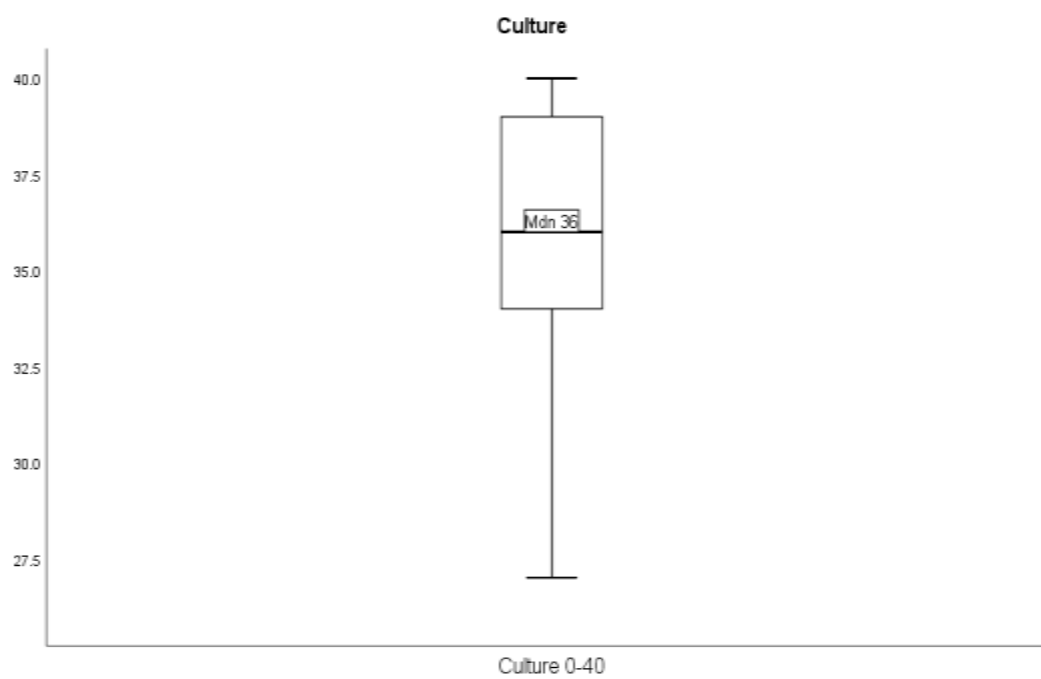


Figure 3. Culture.

**Research question two.**

*RQ2. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating?*

*H2<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H2<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating.

To answer research question two, another correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship among the dependent variable of total leadership (the sum of the initiating structure score and consideration score) and the independent variable of factors teacher's find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = -0.017$  which was lesser than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating was not rejected. This means the results did not support the relationship between the teacher's value of leadership behaviors and the factors teachers find professionally motivating, indicating the existence of an insignificant relationship. According to Rumsey (2011), the correlational coefficient of  $-0.017$  represents a weak negative correlation.

Data were graphed with scatter plots to illustrate visually the nature of the relationship among the teacher's value of leadership behaviors and the factors teacher's find professionally motivating (see Figure 4).



*Figure 4.* Relationship between motivation and total leadership.

To provide a visual representation of the distribution of data, data were also presented using a box-and-whisker plot. For leadership behaviors valued by teachers the minimum = 28,  $Q_1 = 35$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 38,  $Q_3 = 39$ , maximum = 40, the mean was equal to 36.6, and  $SD = 3.2$  (see Figure 2). For factors teachers find professionally motivating, the minimum = 25,  $Q_1 = 31$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 33,  $Q_3 = 36$ , maximum = 39, the mean was equal to 33.2, and  $SD = 2.3$  (see Figure 5).



*Figure 5.* Motivation.

Question two was posed to investigate each variable of leadership behaviors by breaking it into two sub-questions. Therefore, two more PPMCs were applied to each of the leadership behaviors. The first sub-question was calculated to determine the relationship between initiating structure and the dependent variable of factors teachers find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = 0.04$  which was lesser than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . The data implied no relationship between the teacher's value of leadership behavior initiating structure and the factors teachers find professionally motivating. According to Rumsey (2011), zero correlation occurs when there is no identifiable pattern for determining a relationship. Therefore, the 0.04 correlational coefficient, according to Rumsey (2011), represents a very weak positive correlation, because it falls into the 0 - 0.30 range.

The second sub question to research question two was calculated to find the relationship between consideration and the dependent variable of factors teachers find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .078$  which was lesser than the critical value of (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . The data implied no relationship among the teacher's value of leadership behavior consideration and the factors teacher's find professionally motivating. The 0.078 represents a very weak positive correlation, according to Rumsey (2011).

**Research question three.**

*RQ3. What is the relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure?*

*H3<sub>o</sub>*: There is no relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

*H3<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure.

The correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .631$  which was greater than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure was rejected, indicating the existence of a significant positive relationship. According to Rumsey (2011), the correlational coefficient of .631 represents a strong positive correlation.

Data were graphed with scatter plots to illustrate visually the nature of the relationship among the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure (see Figure 6).

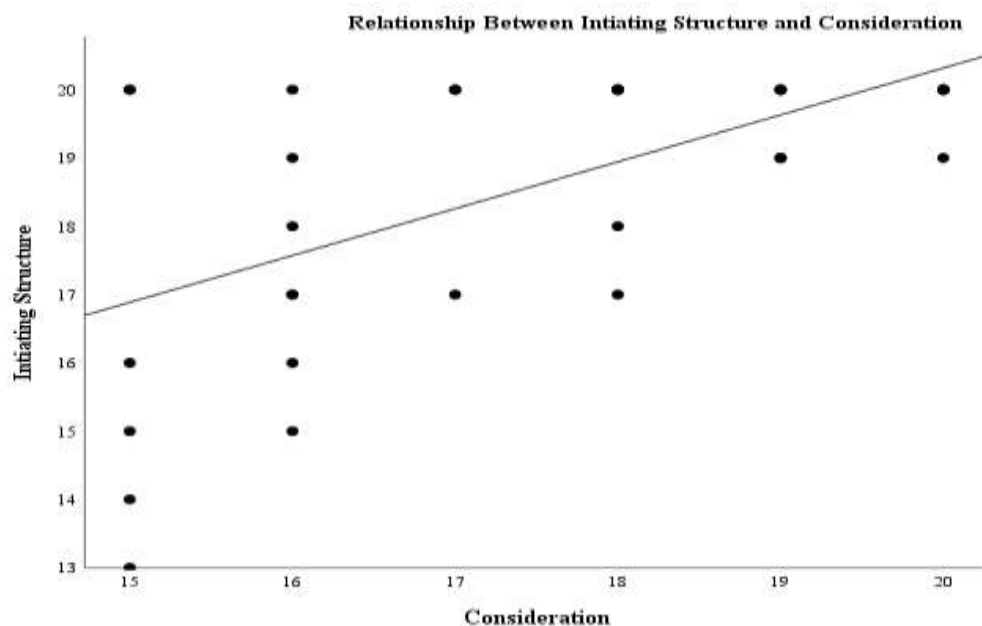


Figure 6. Relationship between initiating structure and consideration.

To provide a visual representation of the distribution of data, data were also presented using a box-and-whisker plot. For the leadership behavior of consideration valued by teachers the minimum = 15,  $Q_1 = 16$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 18,  $Q_3 = 19$ , maximum = 20, mean is equal to 17.8, and  $SD = 1.72$  (see Figure 7). For the leadership behavior of initiating structure valued by teachers the minimum = 13,  $Q_1 = 18$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 20,  $Q_3 = 20$ , maximum = 20, mean is equal to 18.8, and  $SD = 1.87$  (see Figure 8).



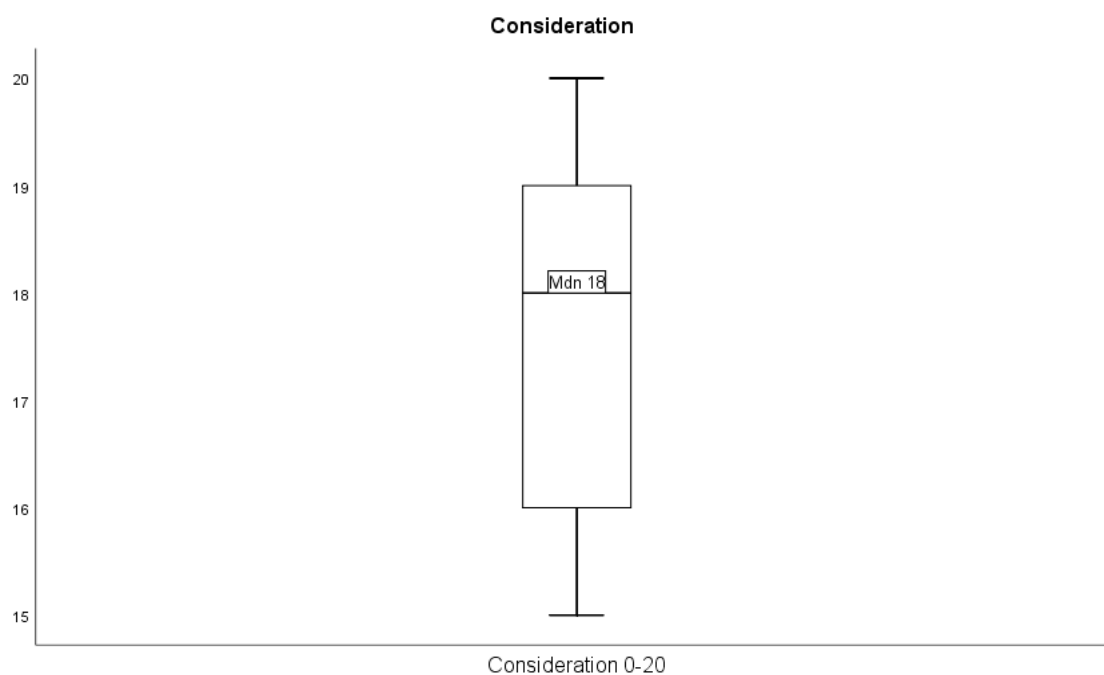


Figure 7. Consideration.

#### Research question four.

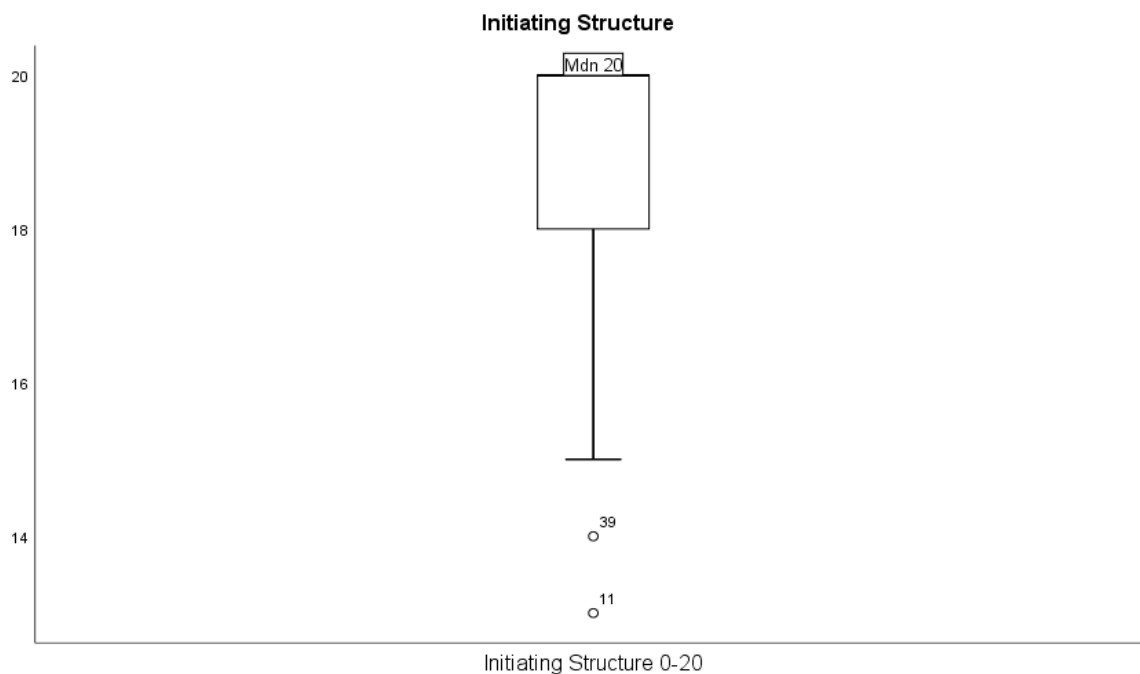
*RQ4. What is the relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating?*

*H<sub>0</sub>*: There is no relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

*H<sub>a</sub>*: There is a relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating.

The correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .474$  which was greater than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between

teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating was rejected indicating the existence of a significant positive relationship. This correlation coefficient of .474 represents a moderate positive correlation, according to Rumsey (2011).



*Figure 8.* Initiating structure.

Data were graphed with scatter plots to illustrate visually the nature of the relationship among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating (see Figure 9).

To provide a visual representation of the distribution of data, data were also presented using a box-and-whisker plot. For teacher preferences of school culture, the minimum = 27,  $Q_1$  = 34,  $Q_2$  or median = 36,  $Q_3$  = 39, maximum = 40, mean = 35.8, and SD = 3.58 (see Figure 3). For factors teacher's find professionally motivating the minimum

= 25,  $Q_1 = 30$ ,  $Q_2$  or median = 33,  $Q_3 = 34$ , maximum = 39, the mean was equal to 33.2, and SD = 2.3 (see Figure 5).

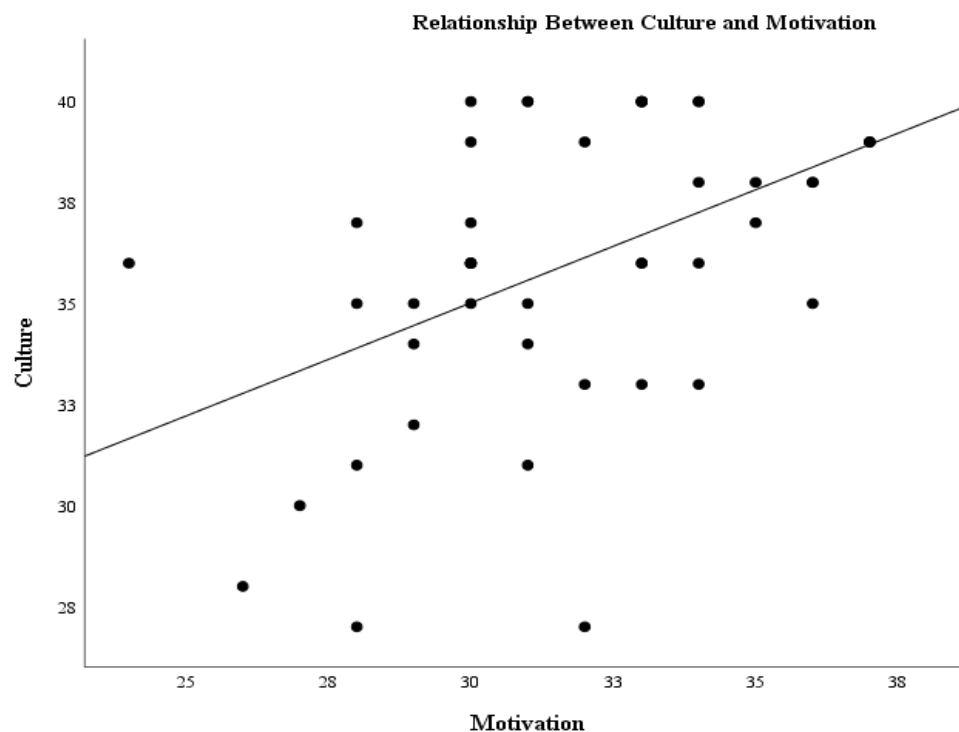


Figure 9. Relationship between culture and motivation.

#### Research question five and six.

Research question five (*What are the differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?*) and question six (*What are the differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?*) in the study could not be answered; therefore, there was no opportunity to accept or reject the null hypothesis. This was due to the participants strongly valuing

both leadership behaviors, initiating structure, and consideration. As a result, all the data points were plotted in the upper right quadrant which is quadrant II.

After plotting each participant's perspective of how he or she values leadership behaviors on the leadership behavior quadrant (see Figure 10) regarding initiating structure and consideration, it was discovered all data points were in the upper right quadrant ( $t > 10$ ,  $r \geq 10$ ) (see Figure 11). In this quadrant, Quadrant II, a leader was defined as someone who displays strong task behaviors and strong relationships (John & Taylor, 1999).

As a result of all the participant's preference for quadrant II leaders, there were no mean scores to compare for each quadrant. With no data, there was no need for  $t$ -tests or ANOVA tests to determine the existence of statistically significant differences among the means of the measured data sets, or if variance among the variables are random matters of chance and not statistically significant (Bluman, 2013). Consequently, research questions five and six could not be answered.

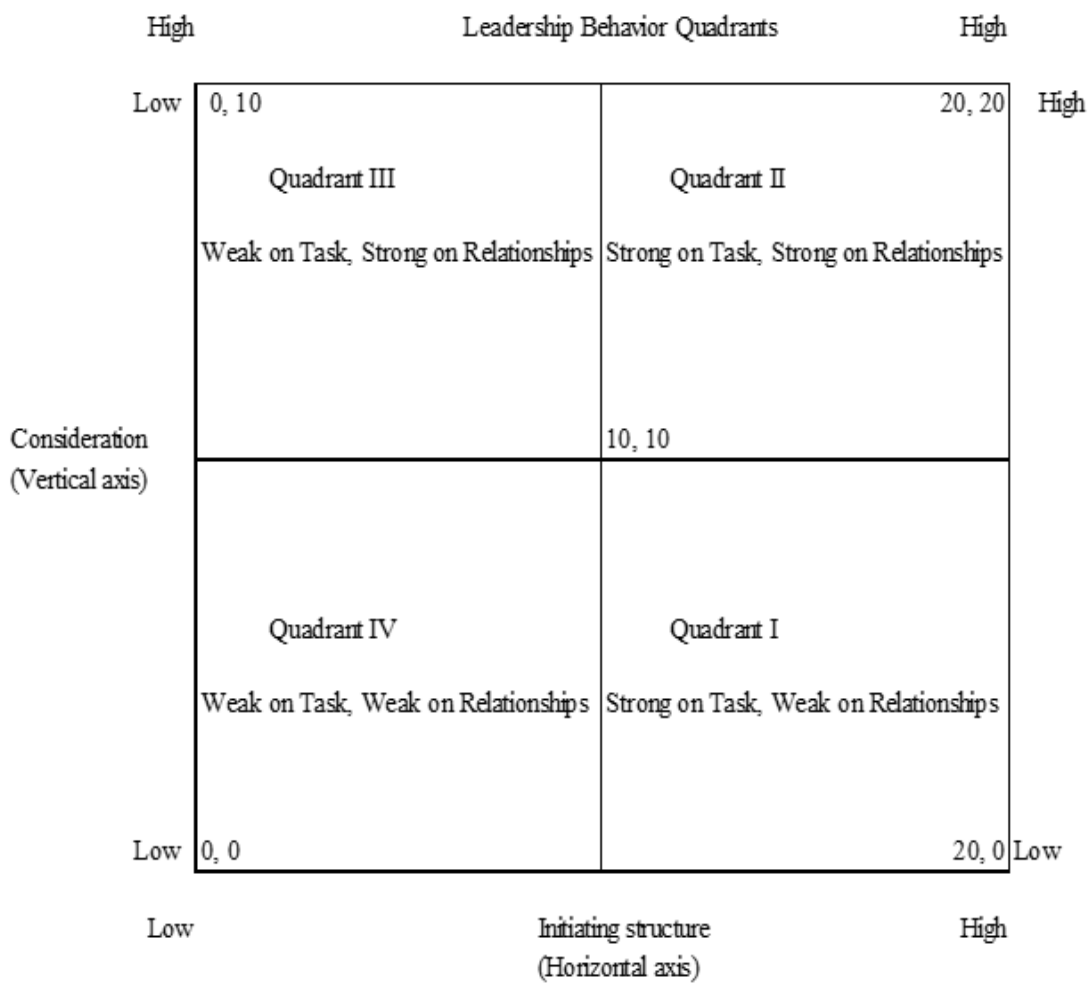


Figure 10. Leadership behavior quadrants.

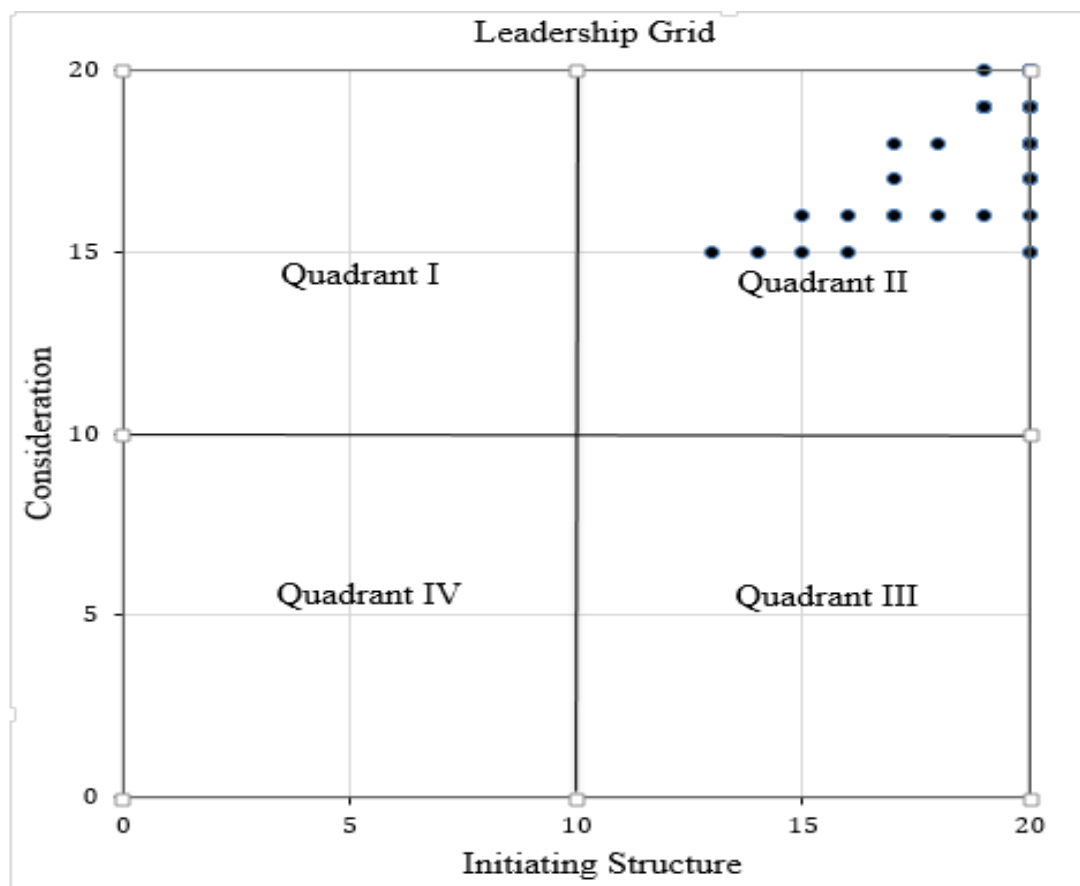


Figure 11. Leadership grid.

### Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the variables of principals' leadership behaviors, school culture, and teacher motivation. This quantitative study was designed to investigate the relationship among teachers' perceptions of what they value in a principal's leadership behaviors (consideration and initiating structure), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. Six research questions guided the study. A total of 45 surveys were completed by certified teachers.

The data referenced for questions in Chapter Four were provided in a concise fashion in two tables. Based on the values represented in the tables the null hypothesis for the following research questions one, three, and four were rejected:

1. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers?

3. What is the relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure?

4. What is the relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating?

Research question two was not rejected.

2. What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating?

Table 1 is shown to report the scoring results for each of the five variables in the study. The mean, median, Q1, Q3, range, and *SD* for each variable are provided. These data from the table were used to create the box-and-whisker plot charts to graphically represent the data for each variable.

Table 1

*Scoring Results for Variables*

| Variables            | <i>N</i> | Mean | Median | Q1 | Q3 | Range | <i>SD</i> |
|----------------------|----------|------|--------|----|----|-------|-----------|
| Initiating Structure | 45       | 18.8 | 20     | 18 | 20 | 7     | 1.87      |
| Consideration        | 45       | 17.8 | 18     | 16 | 19 | 5     | 1.72      |
| Leadership           | 45       | 36.6 | 38     | 35 | 39 | 12    | 3.2       |
| Culture              | 45       | 35.8 | 36     | 34 | 39 | 13    | 3.58      |
| Motivation           | 45       | 33.2 | 33     | 31 | 36 | 14    | 2.3       |

Table 2 shows the correlational coefficients in the study. The data were organized to report the strength of the linear relationship among two different variables.

Table 2

*Correlational Coefficients*

| Variables            | Initiating Structure | Consideration | Culture | Motivation | Total Leadership |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|------------|------------------|
| Initiating Structure | 1.000                |               |         |            |                  |
| Consideration        | 0.631                | 1.000         |         |            |                  |
| Culture              | 0.480                | 0.600         | 1.000   |            |                  |
| Motivation           | 0.046                | 0.078         | 0.474   | 1.000      |                  |
| Total Leadership     | 0.911                | 0.894         | 0.595   | -0.017     | 1.000            |

In Chapter Five, the conclusions of the study and recommendations were provided. Then based on the data, conclusions were explained in detail, and implications from the study were suggested. Next, recommendations for future studies were presented, as well as a discussion section and conclusions. Lastly, in Chapter Five, an overall summary of each chapter in the study is presented.



## **Chapter Five: Findings, Implications, and Recommendations**

The purpose of this study was to examine the components of principals' leadership behaviors, school culture, and teacher motivation. This quantitative study was designed to investigate the relationship among teachers' perceptions of what they value in a principal's leadership behaviors (initiating structure and consideration), what they value in a school's culture, and what they find professionally motivating. Data for measurement were obtained from a 30-statement survey developed based on an assimilation of the reviewed literature and previous studies. The data were collected from five school districts belonging to the Southwest Center for Educational Excellence. A total of 45 surveys were completed by certified teachers.

### **Review of Methodology**

There were three sections to the 30-statement survey, and each of these sections had to be calculated to give a score. Section one of survey in this study regarded the leadership behaviors of initiating structure and consideration. There was a total of five statements for each variable randomly arranged in the first 10 statements. The five statements regarding initiating structure were used to determine the value participants have for their leader's efforts and actions to move his or her staff working toward the attainment of the group's formal goals.

The five statements regarding consideration were used to determine the value participants have for their leader's ability to act friendly, have a supportive manner, show concern for subordinates, and look out for teachers' welfare. These two scores were then added together for a total leadership score. In sections two and three, there were 10 statements regarding school culture and teacher motivation. The 10 statements for school

culture and teacher motivation were developed based recent research suggesting leadership behaviors influencing and establishing a positive school culture and what motivates people, specifically teachers. These scores were also added up for a school culture and teacher motivation score.

Once the scores for total leadership (the sum of the initiating structure score and consideration score), the school culture preferences of teachers, and the factors teacher's find professionally motivating were calculated a series of Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations (PPMC) to determine possible relationships among each of the variables. The final steps, a series of *t*-tests to answer research questions five and six could not be conducted. This was due to all the participants' data points being plotted in the same leadership quadrant.

### **Total Leadership and School Culture Data Analysis**

The first research question, which guided the study was, "What is the relationship between leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers?" Survey data obtained listed the independent variable as total leadership, which was calculated by adding together the initiating structure score and consideration score, and the dependent variable as the score from the school culture preferences of teachers.

The resulting correlational coefficient  $r = .595$  was greater than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship among leadership behaviors, initiating structure and consideration, valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers was rejected, indicating the existence of a significant positive relationship and supporting the alternative

hypothesis. Based on these results, data were graphed using a scatter plot, visually presented also using a box-and-whisker plot, and the correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship between the two variables.

### **Implications Regarding Total Leadership and School Culture**

The results from this finding regarding leadership behaviors valued by teachers and the school culture preferences of teachers supports the current body of research and literature (Arbabi & Mehdinezhad, 2015; Aydin et al., 2013; Coffins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Convey, 2014; Mattos, 2018; Day & Sammons, 2016; DuFour et al., 2016; DuFour & Fullan, 2013; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Fullan, 2014; Gilley et al, 2009; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Illies et al., 2006; Leithwood et al., 2004; Lubin & Ge, 2012; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Kelley et al., 2005; Pink, 2009; Whitaker, 2012). Teachers prefer a leader strong in both initiating structure and consideration (Arbabi & Mehdinezhad, 2015; Aydin et al., 2013; Day & Sammons, 2016; DuFour et al., 2016; Gilley et al., 2009; Leithwood et al., 2004; Mattos, 2018; Whitaker, 2012). The results also suggest teachers value the characteristics influencing a positive school culture suggested in the latest research (Day & Sammons, 2016; DuFour et al., 2016; DuFour & Fullan, 2013; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Fullan, 2014; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Kelley et al., 2005; Krasnoff, 2015; Leithwood et al., 2004; Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Wallace Foundation, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to gain insight to behaviors teachers valued and build a framework of best practices for leaders to be more effective when establishing a school culture and motivating teachers. Principals would benefit from

knowing how school leaders can shape the school culture and understand how this makes its members more productive as well as more satisfied (Louis, 2016). This is important, because it has been known for several years, school leaders have both a direct and indirect effect on student learning (Day & Sammons, 2016). School leaders will benefit if they understand how leadership behaviors affect the school culture and the people they lead and then apply this knowledge to how they manage their building and lead their people.

The results of this study suggest educational leaders should consider the leadership style and behaviors they exhibit while fulfilling their duties. From the information obtained from participating teachers, it was determined they value a leader who has the characteristics of a leading learner leader. Leading learner leaders are good managers and understand the value of building relational trust with colleagues (Fullan, 2014). Fullan (2014) coined this leadership style by taking a collective approach and drawing primarily from two models or theories of effective leadership, transformational, and instructional. This style suggests leaders should focus their efforts on being a good manager of duties and tasks as well as understand the value of building relationships and focusing efforts on gaining with colleagues (Fullan, 2014).

Hauserman and Stick (2013) concluded a highly transformational principal is very effective in building a positive school culture. In contrast, teachers who work with a principal who evidences low levels of transformational qualities are frustrated with the behaviors of their respective principals and the accompanying negative implications for the school's culture (Hauserman & Stick, 2013). Similarly, Kopperud, Martinsen, and Humborstad (2014) demonstrated it is the teacher's perception determining the

engagement for a leader, and this plays a role in work engagement. It was further explained from this research employees themselves perceive their best relationship with a transformational leader (Kopperud et al., 2014). By generating work engagement, or motivation, transformational leadership positively affects the climate with positive outcomes for employees and organizations (Kopperud et al., 2014). Consequently, school leaders would benefit from understanding and applying the characteristics of transformational leaders.

There would be advantages for school leaders to understand the characteristics of this leading learner style of leadership and demonstrate congruent behaviors. Literature has suggested effective leadership characteristics, but it has also been noted many leaders fail to apply the knowledge (Fullan, 2014). Fullan (2014) stated:

Despite the consistency of these findings from this sample of leading researchers, the message is not getting across or sticking with those involved in developing school leadership. Success at the school level is a function of the work of principals, themselves acting as lead learner, who ensure that the group focuses on a small number of key elements: specific goals for students; data that enable clear diagnosis of individual learning needs; instructional practices that address those learning needs; teachers learning from each other, monitoring overall progress, and making adjustments accordingly. (p. 63)

Leaders must understand they have an influence on everything around them, including the working environment and staff (Illies et al., 2006).

Consequently, school leaders should work to utilize, according to many researchers, the most influential strategy for improving teaching and learning by creating

a positive working environment and collaborative culture (Buffum, 2012; DuFour & Mattos, 2013). Furthermore, Buffum (2012) explained there is conclusive, compelling research supporting the most powerful and effective processes in school leadership is to bring about systematic change in school culture and to ensure high levels of learning for all students is to become a PLC. Ultimately, it is clear principals would benefit from understanding and applying the knowledgeable research has provided on the topics of school leadership and improving student learning.

The specific best practices identified in current literature and the results of this study support the implementation of consideration leadership behaviors; specifically facilitating relationships, communicating instructional best practices, encouraging and supporting personal goals, providing individualized support to meet individual needs, and demonstrate positive interpersonal skills. Additionally, leaders should also demonstrate initiating structure behaviors such as establishing and managing a school focused on student learning and finding solutions when students are not learning. Other initiating structure behaviors leaders should include identifying and articulating the vision of the school, monitoring the school's performance, providing direction for teachers' efforts, planning and implementation of change, and setting high expectations and sets goals.

The interpretation from these data suggests the importance of establishing a positive school culture as a priority. This is supported in the current literature as experts claim school culture as the most powerful force in a school (Whitaker, 2012). Syed (2015) explained the reason a school leader can have a larger impact on learning than teachers, is because principals can create a schoolwide climate encouraging of learning and achievement. DuFour and Mattos (2013) claimed school reform efforts have failed,

because school leaders have not applied the most powerful strategy to positively affect student learning, which is found in the creation of a collaborative culture (DuFour & Mattos, 2013).

Leithwood et al. (2012) affirmed when principals focus leadership behaviors on instruction and provide supportive working conditions in the school, they positively impact student learning. This means school leaders should work to understand the working environment made up of a group's personality, attitude, values, beliefs, perceptions, assumptions, and unwritten rules which is what makes up the culture and climate of a school (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). School leaders consequently will benefit if they understand their actions and behaviors how they influence the school culture and staff (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

This study supported the current literature, which highlights the factors most important to establishing a positive school culture. The survey statements were created from the review of the literature, and the results demonstrate the factor teachers found most important was the idea teachers should participate in decisions concerning students. The importance of teachers needing to trust and respect the principal was the next most important factor. Other factors teachers highly valued in school culture, according to the survey results, included the following, ranked highest to lowest:

- understanding school improvement,
- embracing changes when the school or students will benefit,
- understanding the mission of the school and its shared organizational purpose,
- planning together and collaborating on best practices,
- learning from one another,

- having opportunities to observe and discuss what other teachers are teaching,
- having a place where teachers strongly agree on educational values, and
- collaborating so teachers can discuss student achievement to critically analyze one another's instructional practices.

These factors suggest teachers want to have a voice in decisions, they are willing to embrace needed changes, and they find it important to learn from each other and work together, but they are not as excited to analyze each other's practices. So, based on this research, trust is identified as a critical factor for leaders hoping to help teachers embrace the idea of analyzing each other's practices for the benefit of students.

### **Total Leadership and Teacher Motivation Data Analysis**

The second research question, which guided the study was, "What is the relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating?" Survey data obtained listed the independent variable as total leadership, which was calculated by adding together the initiating structure score and consideration score, and the dependent variable as the score from the factors they find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = -0.017$  which was lesser than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ .

As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between leadership behaviors valued by teachers and factors they find professionally motivating was not rejected indicating the existence of an insignificant relationship. According to Rumsey (2011), the correlational coefficient of  $-0.017$  represents a weak negative correlation. Based on these results, data were graphed using a scatter plot, visually presented also using a box-and-whisker plot, and the correlational coefficient was



calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship among the two variables.

### **Implications Regarding Total Leadership and Teacher Motivation**

Although there was not a significant relationship with total leadership and teacher's motivation in this study, there is still evidence from other findings supporting a relationship between leadership behaviors and the motivation of teachers. Leadership behaviors might not be viewed as motivating by teachers, but the culture created due to their behaviors might be the link to principals motivating teachers. According to Illies et al. (2006), leaders can do several things to increase teachers' motivation, but there is still a need for further research to better understand the link between leadership and motivation.

Research by Convey (2014) demonstrated a school's academic philosophy and its environment contributed to higher levels of teacher's job satisfaction. Leaders need to understand everything happening in their school reflects their leadership, and if they are allowing the culture to lead their building, they are only managing (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). Potentially, school leadership plays a significant role in the motivation of their teachers (Illies et al., 2006; Hauserman & Stick, 2013; Naile & Selesho, 2014). For example, a leader's vision can help positively influence an existing culture and motivate teachers (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015).

Therefore, a school leader would greatly benefit from understanding what specifically is motivating to his or her staff and consider how this differs among grade levels or individuals. Robbins and Judge (2013) acknowledged this important concept, explaining how the degree and timing of motivation for individuals will vary. This is

where leaders' consideration behavior for building relationships becomes very important in their overall effectiveness in motivating their people.

The survey statement, "I am motivated by the influence I have on the lives of students," scored the highest for motivating teachers. This would suggest leaders would gain valuable energy from teachers by developing a positive school culture and positive environment. Maxwell (2016) explained there is research proving leaders cannot really motivate people, but they can set up environments to motivate people. Consequently, one could say school leaders who applied this information would likely be very effective with creating a culture conducive to motivating teachers.

The next finding was how teachers are highly motivated when they are making a positive impact and they are recognized for their efforts. So, it is important for principals to have methods or practices to recognize teachers for their efforts and impact they are having with students. Furthermore, principals would benefit from applying the knowledge provided by Pink (2009) explaining the most recent and effective methods of motivating people revolved around three themes. These themes of motivation are believed to be mastery, purpose, and autonomy and can be used to create an outline for motivating teachers (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013).

From this study, five of the top six scores from the survey statements on motivation came from autonomy and recognition. For example, number two and number three statements were: (2) *I am motivated when my efforts are having a positive impact, and I am recognized for my efforts.* (3) *I am motivated when I feel safe enough to risk failure in my efforts to try new strategies and innovative instruction.* The high scores on these statements suggest principals should recognize the efforts of their teachers, and this

includes even the outstanding ones. This also suggests principals should provide teachers autonomy, but also support, to feel safe trying new strategies and innovative ideas without fear of failure or consequences from their outside-the-box efforts.

The findings from this research study support the current literature explaining how autonomy is a strong motivator (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Pink, 2009; Whitaker, 2012). For example, when employees have higher levels of autonomy it has been demonstrated LMX relationships have a stronger impact on employee performance and attitudes (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Whitaker supported this notion and claimed educational leaders benefit from practicing a less-is-more approach with their staff. For example, it has been highlighted that fewer rules and more autonomy are most motivating. Whitaker (2012) further explained a lot of rules from educational leaders typically result in negative effects, and the ones the rules are for often will not follow them anyway. Consequently, the good teachers lose autonomy and therefore, motivation (Whitaker, 2012).

In addition to recognizing teachers for their efforts, there is an opportunity to provide positive feedback in the evaluation process of teachers. In this study, number five in the top scores from the survey statements demonstrated teachers are highly motivated from valuable feedback from classroom observations. This is supported in the current literature, as Whitaker (2012) explained teacher evaluations, if used correctly, were extremely valuable.

High achievers thrive on positive recognition and often do not compare themselves to others but strive for perfection all the time; telling these teachers they excel makes them strive to do more, but anything less can be deflating (Whitaker,

2012). Principals, therefore, would benefit from taking the time to give constructive, thoughtful, and meaningful feedback from the evaluation process. They should know their staff well enough to provide what is needed and is motivating, according to the different ability levels of the teachers, from high achievers to those who might need more mentoring or modeling to improve their instruction. Providing positive recognition to the high achievers might come from the principals who set up modeling, mentoring, and leadership opportunities. Recognizing the high achievers not only motivates but provides the opportunity for them to develop and influence more teachers than the principal acting alone.

The two lowest scores from this study under motivation came from the concept of merit pay for teachers and providing leadership opportunities for teachers. Overall these scores were not bad but did not appear to be as motivating in comparison to making a positive impact and autonomy. The second lowest score came from the statement regarding merit pay. There were some elementary teachers who did score merit pay as a motivating factor, but most teachers agreed with the current literature about extrinsic motivators (Deci et al., 2017; Lubin & Ge, 2012, Pink, 2009). Consequently, trying to pay teachers extra with a merit pay system would not be as effective with motivating teachers as would opportunities for professional development to work towards mastery, supporting their efforts to find a purpose, and giving them the flexibility to try new things (Pink, 2009).

Providing leadership opportunities was the lowest scoring statement. Maxwell (2007) explained how the leaders' job is to develop the ones who are going to help build the organization. Moreover, Maxwell (2007) explained leaders must develop leaders to

experience explosive growth. This comes from the idea of growth by multiplication versus growth by addition (Maxwell, 2007). For example, if principals gain the support of followers, there is growth, but principals who develop leaders gain the support of everyone each of those leaders influence and impact. Therefore, this concept is something principals could benefit by applying their efforts to make a bigger difference in their schools and district.

Finally, the things principals must consider is the differences among their staff, and what motivates some, might not be inspiring for another. The current findings did show some differences in what was found most motivating by the different grade levels. So again, depending on the individuals and the grades taught, a principal would benefit building the relationships needed to effectively discover what is most motivating to his or her teachers.

### **Initiating Structure and Consideration Data Analysis**

The third research question, which guided the study was, “What is the relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure?” Survey data obtained yielded one variable as the leadership behavior of consideration and the other variable as the leadership behavior of initiating structure. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .631$  which was greater than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ . As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure was rejected. The rejected null hypothesis implied a statistically significant positive relationship between the leadership behavior of consideration and the leadership behavior of initiating structure. Based on these results, data were graphed

using a scatter plot, visually presented also using a box-and-whisker plot, and the correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship between the two the leadership behavior variables.

### **Implications Regarding Initiating Structure and Consideration**

The findings from this study determined teachers prefer a leader with behaviors strong in consideration and behaviors strong in initiating structure. Implications for this finding regarding the two leadership behaviors, consideration and initiating structure, are supported by the current literature (Day & Sammons, 2016; DuFour et al., 2016; DuFour & Fullan, 2013; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Fullan, 2014; Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015; Kelley et al., 2005; Krasnoff, 2015; Leithwood et al., 2004; Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011; Wallace Foundation, 2013). Fullan (2014) synthesized the key research findings to furnish the framework for the leadership style he calls “Leading Learner.” Fullan (2014) stated principals need to be more hands-on and to focus their energy on leading the learning of collaborative groups versus having a too-focused approach such as instructional leadership or a too-broad approach as found in transformative leadership.

Taking Fullan’s (2014) framework of finding the balance among instructional and transformative leadership would be a wise decision by administrators looking to be more effective, efficient, and/or implementing needed change. Fullan’s approach is supported in the most recent review of research by Day and Sammons. Day and Sammons (2016) explained research acknowledged these two theories used together provides the “best fit” with the collective leadership approach needed in 21<sup>st</sup>-century schools. Furthermore, it was explained, “. . . the combination of transformational with pedagogical/instructional

leadership approaches also signal is the shift, over the last two decades, from a principal as manager to principal as both manager and leader” (p. 18). Therefore, school leaders would benefit from using this knowledge and information by applying this collective approach to their daily management duties and relations with staff.

Leaders should consider focusing their efforts on both managing task and duties while also building trust and positive relationships with staff to be most effective and ultimately and positively impact student learning. It has been noted, to inspire meaningful change, school leaders must understand how their leadership style affects the school culture and teachers’ motivation (Van Roekel, 2008). Consequently, school leaders would benefit from applying the characteristics valued by participants in this study to positively impact the school culture and teachers’ motivation.

### **School Culture and Teacher Motivation Data Analysis**

The fourth research question which guided the study was, “What is the relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating?” Survey data obtained listed one variable as the teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and the other variable as factors they find professionally motivating. The resulting correlational coefficient was  $r = .474$  which was greater than the critical value (0.304) with  $\alpha = 0.05$  and  $df = 45 - 2$ .

As a result, the null hypothesis stating there is no relationship between teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture and factors they find professionally motivating was rejected, indicating the existence of a significant positive relationship. This supported the alternative hypothesis, and according to Rumsey (2011), represents a moderate positive correlation. Based on these results, data were graphed

using a scatter plot, visually presented also using a box-and-whisker plot, and the correlational coefficient was calculated using the PPMC to determine the strength of the linear relationship among the two variables.

### **Implications Regarding School Culture and Teacher Motivation**

This study demonstrated as teachers value specific things in a school culture, there is a positive relationship with the things they find motivating. Implications for this finding should have leaders taking the information from the current literature on building a positive school culture and implementing the knowledge into their buildings. In addition, to using the knowledge to build a positive school culture, school leaders should work to implement the information on what teachers find professionally motivating to inspire their staff.

### **Leadership Behavior Quadrants Data Analysis**

The fifth research question which guided the study was, “What are the differences among teacher perceptions of what they value in a school culture in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?” Then the sixth research question which guided this study was, “What are the differences among teacher perceptions of factors they find motivating as a teacher in each of the four leadership behavior quadrants?” Both questions could not be answered as there were no data to run the *t*-tests or ANOVA tests to investigate the possible differences in the culture and motivation means. These means were to be calculated after plotting each participant’s perspective of how he or she values leadership behaviors on the leadership behavior quadrant regarding initiating structure and consideration. However, it was discovered all data points were in the upper right quadrant ( $t > 10, r \geq 10$ ).



All participants' perspective of how they view leadership behaviors placed the data points on the leadership grid in the same quadrant, so there was nothing further to be done with the results. This was quadrant II, where leaders display strong task behaviors or initiating structure and strong relationships or consideration (John & Taylor, 1999). Based on these results, there were no data to determine if the variance among the mean culture scores is influenced by the participant's value of leadership behaviors to answer research question five. This also meant there was no way to determine if there was variance among the mean motivation scores was influenced by the leadership behaviors to answer research question six.

### **Implications Regarding Leadership Behavior Quadrants**

This implications for this finding suggest the most effective method of leading is to incorporate a leadership style which includes strong leadership behaviors in both consideration and initiating structure. The style a leader brings to his or her duties and staff can have a huge impact on the school culture and teacher motivation. Smith (2016) stated the leadership style used has a great effect on both teacher satisfaction and student learning. So, leaders need to work on aligning their behaviors, systems, and actions to what this study and the current research suggest about being the most efficient and effective leader.

Research has shown the most effective leader is one who is a good manager and helps to build relational trust with colleagues (Fullan, 2014). This style of taking a collective leadership approach from the transformational and instructional leadership styles into account is referred to the leading learner, according to Fullan (2014). The characteristics of leading learner leadership gained from this study should be placed into

practice. These characteristics include but are not limited to a leader who focuses on the consideration behaviors of facilitating relationships, communicating instructional best practices, encouraging and supporting personal goals of teachers, providing individualized support to meet individual needs, and possessing positive interpersonal skills (Aydin et al., 2013; Feser et al., 2015; Gilley et al., 2009; Robbins & Judge, 2013, Yukl, 2013). In addition, a leader should not only focus on consideration behaviors but also the initiating structure behaviors, which include establishing and managing a school where students are learning and seeking solutions, identifying and articulating the vision of the school, monitoring the school's performance, providing direction for teachers' efforts, actively and visibly involved in the planning and implementation of change, and having high expectations with goal setting for meeting challenges (Day & Sammons, 2016; Robbins & Judge, 2013; Yukl, 2013).

### **Recommendations for Further Study**

There has been a great deal of quality research on leadership, and in education it has been demonstrated school leadership has a major influence on the culture and staff, but despite these efforts and evidence there is still more to be done (Illies et al., 2006). Contrary to this, Fullan (2014) believed a lot of promising work has done, but it is not getting communicated well or applied by ones involved in developing school leaders. The purpose of this study was to help those involved in training school leaders and/or school leaders discover behaviors and characteristics to create a framework for effectively developing a positive school culture, motivating teachers, and ultimately having a positive impact on student achievement.

This study has demonstrated teachers value a strong leader, and there is a significant positive relationship between what teachers value in a school culture and what they value in leadership behaviors. There was no significant relationship found between what teacher value in school leadership and what they find motivating. Although some characteristics and specific behaviors can be taken from this research, there is still work to be done to help school leaders utilize and apply the evidence provided by the research.

The literature and current study demonstrate it is clear principals would benefit from understanding and applying the knowledgeable research has provided on the topics of school leadership and improving student learning. However, according to Fullan (2014), there needs to be something done to get this knowledge transferred into practice:

Despite the consistency of these findings from this sample of leading researchers, the message is not getting across or sticking with those involved in developing school leadership. Success at the school level is a function of the work of principals, themselves acting as lead learner, who ensure that the group focuses on a small number of key elements: specific goals for students; data that enable clear diagnosis of individual learning needs; instructional practices that address those learning needs; teachers learning from each other, monitoring overall progress, and making adjustments accordingly. (p. 63)

Future studies could be conducted to examine school districts to see what they are doing to properly educate or provide training and support for the administration team and if there is a relationship among the professional development provided and the school culture, teacher motivation, and or even standardized test scores.

Turan and Bekatas (2013) suggested future studies consider a qualitative investigation of the relationship between exemplary school cultures and leadership practices. Specifically looking more directly at a sample of only school leaders in exemplary schools or those schools determined to have a positive school culture was suggested (Turan & Bekatas, 2013). In Missouri, the top 10% of schools are identified according to the state assessment scores. Of importance to study from these test scores could be the following: What are teachers' perceptions of leadership in those schools? What about teachers' perceptions of leadership in large school districts in urban areas? Selecting a population based on a school's standardized testing scores and then examining the relationships among the leadership behaviors, the school culture, and teacher motivation could help determine what specific leadership behaviors indirectly influence student achievement (Day & Sammons, 2016; Leithwood et al., 2012). Evidence in the literature suggests the influence of leadership behaviors on student outcomes indirectly impacts student achievement, but more research is needed to explore what highly effective school leaders are doing to obtain a positive school culture, attain exemplary test scores, and motivate their teachers. This could build upon research by Hull (2012) and other researchers who have provided some valuable characteristics of effective principals and characteristics of their schools as a result of effective school leadership.

The next recommendation for future study is based on adjusting the survey instrument and how the statements of the study were presented. The recommendation would be to have a survey instrument developed to rate statements specifically regarding the participants' leaders and his or her leadership behaviors and the participants' current

school culture. Finding the leadership behaviors practiced by the participants' principals rather than rating the leadership behaviors they value might be more beneficial. A survey gaining information on the participants' current school culture and not what they value in a school culture would be beneficial. A survey instrument developed in this fashion would provide data on the current leadership behaviors practiced and how the behaviors relate to the existing school culture. Future research could determine if it was the leaders' specific behaviors which were impacting the school culture and/or the teachers' motivation.

In conclusion, the best strategy for schools to improve and/or change would be to utilize the conclusive, compelling research proven to be most powerful and effective in school leadership for improving both teaching and learning. Research on qualities of effective school leadership has demonstrated leadership improves the motivation of teachers and the working environment (Krasnoff, 2015). Studying what exemplary school districts and school leaders are doing to be highly effective might provide insight into the missing piece for transferring knowledge to what is being done to be effective to application. If school leaders would use the knowledge on the effective leadership behaviors, they could more effectively influence, develop, and or change their school culture and motivate their teachers to ultimately maximize their impact on student learning (Hull, 2012; Wallace Foundation, 2013).

## **Discussion**

Educational leadership has evolved over the years and today includes a role of multiple responsibilities (Bayar, 2016). Schools today need effective leaders to effectively manage and motivate while embracing challenges, to adequately prepare

students for the 21st century (Bayer, 2016; Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013). Krasnoff (2015) provided a review of research explaining the power behind effective leadership, as it influences the school culture and staff, which in turn strengthens classroom instruction.

According to Gruenert and Whitaker (2015), it is school leadership making the real impact within a school. School leadership is critical to a building's culture and the motivation of teachers (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013; Seashore Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011). Seashore Louis and Wahlstrom (2011), supported this explaining how school culture plays an important part in effective leadership. Further supporting this idea, Louis (2016) claimed: "School leaders shape the school culture in ways that makes its members more productive as well as more satisfied" (p. 14).

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher's perception of what they value in leadership behaviors (initiating structure and consideration) and to determine if those behaviors have a relationship to the teachers' perceptions of what they value in a school culture and their professional motivation. There was a total of five statements for both consideration and initiating structure randomly mixed in the first 10 statements. The five statements for initiating structure were used to determine what participants value in school leadership with initiating structure behaviors or actions to get his or her staff working toward obtaining the group's formal goals. The five statements for consideration were used to determine the what the participants value in a leader's ability to act friendly, have a supportive manner, show concern for subordinates, and look out for teachers' welfare. These two scores were added together for a total leadership score. In sections two and three, there were 10 statements for school culture and teacher motivation. The 10 statements for school culture and teacher motivation were developed

based on what the most recent research suggest leaders can do to influence and establish a positive school culture and what motivates people, specifically teachers.

Researchers have tried to pinpoint exactly what the secret ingredient is for being an effective educational leader. Some researchers have claimed further studies need to be conducted, while others claimed leadership practices grounded in research and proven effective are often ignored (Devine & Alger, 2011; DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Van Roekel, 2008). Dhuey and Smith (2014) claimed there is more work needed to uncover what leadership styles or behaviors make a principal effective. According to Whitaker (2012), the actions of principals, not what principals know about leadership guidelines, standards, principles, and theories, make them more effective than their colleagues.

School leaders and those training them need to understand times have changed, education has not kept up, and what made sense in the Industrial Age no longer does in the Informational Age (Schwahn & McGarvey, 2012). School leaders must be able to understand the skills needed in the 21st century and must be willing to inspire meaningful change (Fox & McDermott, 2015). To inspire change, leaders must adequately understand leadership styles and the effects leadership behaviors have on people and the culture (Van Roekel, 2008).

According to Whitaker (2012), it is the actions of principals, what they do, not what they know making the biggest impact. However, what the school leaders do and how they do it does matter. Walters et al. (2003) explained quality leadership means more than understanding what to do; rather, leaders must know when, how, and why to do it. It is the people, not programs, who determine the quality of a school (Whitaker,

2012). School leaders must work to apply the knowledge based in solid research (Fullan, 2014).

### **Conclusion**

There has been much research on the topics of school leadership, school culture, and teacher motivation. This research study's purpose was to help determine if there was a relationship with what teachers valued in leadership behaviors and what they valued in a school culture and their own personal motivation. The findings of this study supported the significant amount of research and the current literature indicating the most effective leadership styles, what makes a positive school culture, and a little insight to what the most motivating factors are for teachers.

Participants value a leader with leadership behaviors strong in consideration and initiating structure. Current research and literature suggest the most effective educational leaders are those who are leading learner leaders, as they are good managers and understand the value of building relational trust with colleagues (Fullan, 2014). This type of leadership takes a collective leadership approach drawing from primarily two models or theories of effective leadership, transformational and instructional (Fullan, 2014). Day and Sammons (2016) supported this and reported evidence demonstrating the collective leadership approach is most effective. Furthermore, Day and Sammons (2016) explained the importance of instructional and transformational leadership for promoting better academic outcomes for students, as well as a combination of strategies, which are more beneficial in ensuring school success. The collective approach to leadership illustrates the evolution of the school leadership role from manager to both manager and leader (Day & Sammons, 2016).



Consideration includes the leadership behaviors of friendliness, support, and concern for followers (Yukl, 2013). Research has demonstrated this type of leadership as highly effective and is often referred to as transformational leadership. A transformational leader is passionate and constantly looks to inspire followers (Aydin et al., 2013). This type of leadership often associated with “motivating and inspiring, clarifying roles and objectives, and planning and organizing” (Day & Sammons, 2016, p. 18). This leader takes into consideration the desires and needs of followers to help all be successful and thrive (Aydin et al., 2013). Therefore, this suggests principals should develop a leadership style mindful of consideration. This should include but not limited to a focus on facilitating relationships, supporting teachers by communicating instructional best practices, encouraging teachers’ pursuit of personal goals, providing direction for teachers’ efforts, and developing positive interpersonal skills.

Next, participants in this study were determined to value a leader with behaviors strong in initiating structure. Initiating structure, sometimes referred to as task-oriented behavior, includes the degree to which a leader guides his or her efforts and the efforts of others toward the attainment of the organizational goals (Yukl, 2013). This leadership style is often referred to instructional leadership, but individuals using this approach have also been called pedagogical leaders. These leaders emphasize the importance of establishing clear goals, planning curriculum, and evaluating teachers (Day & Sammons, 2016). This approach sees the leader’s prime focus as responsible for promoting better outcomes for students, emphasizing the importance of teaching and learning, and enhancing their quality (Day & Sammons, 2016). As a result of this and prior research, principals need to develop a leadership style mindful of initiating structure. This should

include but not be limited to a focus on establishing and managing the school to ensure continuous learning and improvement, articulating the vision of the school, monitoring the school's performance, and from this, providing direction for teachers' efforts. The principal must be actively involved in the implementation of change and have high expectations and set goals for the school.

This study also supports previous research suggesting teachers value a collaborative school culture where changes are embraced, and challenges are met with a team approach. School leaders have the potential to establish a culture where individuals feel more satisfied and are even more productive (Louis, 2016). As it was explained by Gruenert and Whitaker (2015), school leaders' actions and behaviors make a difference in the school culture and climate, and effective principals use this knowledge to have a positive impact on student learning. This impact is even more powerful than teachers because principals create a schoolwide climate for learning and achievement (Syed, 2015).

In addition, this study provided evidence teachers are motivated by a variety of factors, stemming from the leadership behaviors and the culture established in the school. They are motivated, as suggested by Pink (2009), with the concepts and practices built around mastery, purpose, and autonomy. This is important if not critical for school leaders to understand because these themes can provide a framework useful for motivating teachers for the long term (Coggins & Diffenbaugh, 2013). Lubin and Ge (2012) also provided valuable information explaining external rewards presented to an individual for performing a task make them feel as if he or she is working simply to obtain a reward, and thus lowering intrinsic motivation. These themes and knowledge

might help retain teachers and motivate teachers be more effective and impactful. Consequently, building a positive school culture and effectively motivating teachers will help retain teachers, and this will be a critical factor influencing student achievement and the overall effectiveness of a school (DuFour et al., 2012).

Despite this research study and the large amounts of research on leadership, there remains considerable work to completely understand how leadership and motivation are connected. As times continue to change, it is likely the style of leading will continue evolve to meet challenges and the demands of teachers and students. Principals should consider this and survey their staff to determine which leadership behaviors specifically matter the most. If principals took the time to know their staff's specific needs and wants, the culture in the building would improve and consequently so would teacher buy-in, retention, motivation, and most importantly student achievement.

### **Summary**

In Chapter One, school leadership was examined, including the background of leadership research and the conceptual framework. The statement of the problem and purpose of the study were detailed. Six research questions and hypotheses were stated. A rationale supporting the significance of the study was presented. Key terms important to this study were defined and the delimitations, limitations, and assumptions were explained.

Chapter Two was a review of literature of the main topics important to this study. The following were the main topics examined: history of school reform, leadership, school culture, and teacher motivation. How these main topics related and

affected one another was examined, and then significant information found from research on the topics was provided.

In Chapter Three, the research questions guiding the study were revisited. Next in this chapter the methodology of the study and an overview of the purpose and research design were provided. The population and sample were explained. In addition, the development of the instrument and the processes for data collection and data analysis were discussed. The last main section of the chapter included ethical considerations.

Chapter Four was completed after data collection and analyses were performed. Figures and tables were provided to visually illustrate the data from the survey results. In addition to the detailed findings, Chapter Four includes a detailed analysis of how the study was conducted.

In Chapter Five, an overview of the study was presented. Based on the data, findings and implications were shared. Finally, recommendations for future studies, a discussion section, and conclusions from this study were presented.

## References

- Arbabi, A., & Mehdinezhad, V. (2015). The relationship among the school principals' collaborative leadership style and teachers' self-efficacy. *Palestrica of the Third Millennium Civilization & Sport, 16*(2), 125-131.
- Aydin, A., Sarier, Y., & Uysal, S. (2013). The effect of school principals' leadership styles on teachers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice, 13*(2), 806-811.
- Ayman, R., Chemers, M. M., & Fiedler, F. (1995). The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: Its levels of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 147-167.
- Bartoletti, J., & Connelly, G. (2013). *Leadership matters: What the leadership says about the importance of principal leadership*. Alexandria, VA: National Association of School Principals and National Association of Elementary School Principals.
- Bayar, A. (2016). Challenges facing principals in the first year at their schools. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 4*(1), 192-199.
- Balyer, A. (2012). Transformational leadership behaviors of school principals: A qualitative research based on teachers' perceptions. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 4*(3), 581-591.
- Bluman, A. G. (2013). *Elementary statistics: A brief version*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Buffum, A. G. (2012). *The collaborative administrator: Working together as a professional learning community*. United States: Solution Tree Press.

- Cezmi Savas, A., & Toprak, M. (2014). Mediation effect of schools' psychological climate on the relationship among principals' leadership style and organizational commitment. *Anthropologist, 17*(1), 173-182.
- Coggins, C., & Diffenbaugh, P. K. (2013). Teachers with drive. *Educational Leadership, 71*(2), 42-45.
- Colbert, A. E., & Witt, L. A. (2009). The role of goal-focused leadership in enabling the expression of conscientiousness. *Journal of Allied Psychology, 94*(3), 790-796.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). *Charismatic leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Convey, J. J. (2014). Motivation and job satisfaction of catholic school teachers. *Journal of Catholic Education, 18*(1). Retrieved from [files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1042178.pdf](https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1042178.pdf)
- Davis, S. (2017). Framing the path goal leadership theory with the relationship of academic validation of student experiences in online courses. *Journal of Global Leadership, 5*(12), 83-90.
- Day, C., & Sammons, P. (2016). Successful school leadership. *Education Development Trust, 2*, 1-68. Retrieved from [https://www.educationdevelopmenttrust.com/~/\\_media/EDT/Reports/Research/2015/r-successful-school-leadership.pdf](https://www.educationdevelopmenttrust.com/~/_media/EDT/Reports/Research/2015/r-successful-school-leadership.pdf)
- Day, D., & Antonakis, J. (2018). *The nature of the leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Deci, E. L., Olafsen, A. H., & Ryan, R. M. (2017). Self-determination theory in work organizations: The state of a science. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 2017(4), 19-43.
- Devine, J., & Alger, G. (2011). Teachers' perceptions of the leadership styles of middle school principals and instructional leaders. *Academic Leadership*, 9(4), 1-22.
- Dhuey, E., & Smith, J. (2014). *How school principals influence student learning*. Bonn, Germany: IZA.
- DuFour, B., DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (2012). *Revisiting professional learning communities at work: New insights for improving schools*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., DuFour, B., Eaker, R., Many, T. W., & Mattos, M. (2016). *Learning by doing: A handbook for professional learning communities at work* (3rd edition). Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., & Fullan, M. (2013). *Cultures built to last: Systemic PLCs at work*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., & Mattos, M. (2013). How do principals really improve schools? *Educational Leadership*, 70(7), 34-40.
- Dulebohn, J., Bommer, W., Linden, R., Brouer, R., & Ferris, G. (2012). A meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38(6), 1715-1759.
- Eisenbeib, S. A., & Boerner, S. (2013). A double-edged sword: Transformational leadership and individual creativity. *British Journal of Management*, 24(1), 54-68.

- Feser, C., Mayol, F., & Srinivasan, R. (2015). Decoding leadership: What really matters. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 2015(1), 1-5.
- Fisher, D., Pumpian, I., & Frey, N. (2012). *How to create a culture of achievement in your school and classroom*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Fox, S. B., & McDermott, C. L. (2015). The role of 21st century skills in two rural regional areas of public education. *Journal for Leadership and Instruction*, 14(2), 26-30.
- Fullan, M. (2014). *The principal: Three keys to maximizing impact*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Garmston, R. J., & Wellman, B. M. (2016). *The adaptive school: A sourcebook for developing collaborative groups*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Gilley, A., Gilley, J. W., & McMillan, H. S. (2009). Organizational change: Motivation, communication, and leadership effectiveness. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 21(4), 75-94.
- Gruenert, S., & Whitaker, T. (2015). *School culture rewired: How to define, assess, and transform it*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Hauserman, C. P., & Stick, S. L. (2013). The leadership teachers want from principals: Transformational. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 36(3), 184-203.
- Herman, R., Gates, S. M., Chavez-Herreias, E. R., & Harris, M. (2016). *School leadership interventions under the Every Student Succeeds Act: Evidence review*. Santa Monica, CA: The RAND Corporation.
- House, R. J. (1996). Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1996 (Fall), 323-352.



House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409-473.

House, R. J., & Howell, J. M. (1992). Personality and charismatic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 3(2), 81-108.

Hull, J. (2012). The principal perspective: Full report. Retrieved from Center for Public Education website: <http://www.centerforpubliceducation.org/principal-perspective>.

Illies, R., Judge, T., & Wagner, D. (2006). Making sense of motivational leadership: The trail from transformational leaders to motivated followers. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 13(1), 1-22.

Judge, T., Bono, J. E., Illies, R., Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 765-780.

John, M. C., & Taylor, J. W. (1999). Leadership style, school climate, and the institutional commitment of teachers. *International Forum*, 2(1), 25-57.

Khan, Z. A., Nawaz, A., Khan, I., Department of Public Administration, Gomal University, & Khan, D. I. (2016). Leadership theories and styles: A literature review. *Journal of Resources Development and Management*, 16(1), 1-7.

Kelley, R. C., Thornton, B., & Daugherty, R. (2005). Relationships among measures of leadership and school climate. *Education*, 126(1), 17. doi:10.7813/2075-4124.2014/6-3/B.27

Kirtman, L., & Fullan, M. (2016). *Leadership: Key competencies for whole-system change*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.

- Kopperud, K. H., Martinsen, O., & Humborstad, S. I. W. (2014). Engaging leaders in the eyes of the beholder: On the relationship among transformational leadership, work engagement, service climate, and self-other agreement. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 21*(1), 29-42.
- Kramer, S. V. (2015). *How to leverage PLCs for school improvement*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.
- Krasnoff, B. (2015). *Leadership qualities of effective principals*. Portland, OR: Northwest Comprehensive Center at Education Northwest.
- Leithwood, K., & Poplin, M. (1992). The move toward transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership, 49*(5), 8-12.
- Leithwood, K., Seashore Louis, K., & Anderson, S. E. (2012). *Linking leadership to student learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Leithwood, K., Seashore Louis, K., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning*. New York, NY: Wallace Foundation.
- Louis, K. S. (2016). Linking leadership to learning: State, district, and local effects. *Nordic Journal of Studies in Educational Policy, 2015*(3), 30321.
- Lubin, I., & Ge, X. (2012). Investigating the influences of a LEAPS model on preservice teachers' problem solving, metacognition, and motivation in an educational technology course. *Education Technology Research Development, 60*(2), 239-270.
- Manna, P. (2015). *Developing excellent school principals to advance teaching and learning: Considerations for state policy*. New York, NY: Wallace Foundation.

- Mattos, M. (2018). *Educational mythology: Proven practices and brutal facts in creating great schools*. Professional Learning Communities at Work Institute. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.
- Maxwell, J. (2007). *The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership*. Nashville, TN: Thomas Nelson.
- Maxwell, J. (2016). Today's word is: Motivation. Retrieved from <http://johnmaxwellteam.com/2016-motivation>
- McCaughtry, N., Martin, J., Garn, A., Kulik, N., & Fahlman, M. (2015) The relationship between teacher burnout and student motivation. *The British Journal of Health Psychology*, 85(4), p. 519-532.
- McPartland, J. M. (2011). Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago. *Contemporary Sociology*, 40(1), 16-17.
- Menon, M. W. (2014). The relationship among transformational leadership, perceived leader effectiveness, and teachers' job satisfaction. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 52(4), 509-528.
- Mitgang, L. (2012). *The making of the principal: Five lessons in leadership training*. New York, NY: Wallace Foundation.
- Miner, J. B. (2015): *Organizational behavior 4: From theory to practice*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mohammed, U. D., Yusuf, M. O., Sanni, I. M., Ifeyinwa, T. N., Bature, N. U., & Kazeem, A. O. (2014). The relationship between leadership styles and employees' performance in organizations (a study of selected business organizations in

- federal capital territory, Abuja Nigeria). *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(22), 1-11.
- Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Strauss, J. P. (1994). Validity of observer ratings of the big five personality factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(2), 272-280.
- Nahrgang, J. D., Morgeson, F., & Illies, R. (2009). The development of leader–member exchanges: Exploring how personality and performance influence leader and member relationships over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108(2), 256-266.
- Naile, I., & Selesho, J. M. (2014). The role of leadership in employee motivation. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(3), 175-182.
- National Education Association of the United States. (1894). *Report of the committee of ten on secondary school studies*. New York, NY: American Book Company.
- National Association of Secondary School Principals & National Association of Elementary School Principals (2013). *Leadership matters: What the research says about the importance of principal leadership*. Alexandria, VA: National Association of Elementary Schools Principals.
- Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Introduction to leadership: Concepts and practice*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Northouse, P. G. (2019). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Odumeru, J. A., & Ifeanyi, G. O. (2013). Transformational vs. transactional leadership theories: Evidence in literature. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 2(2), 355-361.

- Olafsen, A. H., Halvari, H., Forest, J., & Deci, E. L. (2015). Show them the money? The role of pay, managerial need support, and justice in a self-determination theory model of intrinsic work motivation. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 56(4), 447-457.
- Parsons, J., & Beauchamp, L. (2012). Leadership in effective elementary schools: A synthesis of five case studies. *US-China Education Review B* 8(2012), 697-711.
- Perry, S. J., Witt, L. A., Penney, L. M., & Atwater, L. (2010). The downside of goal-focused leadership: The role of personality in subordinate exhaustion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(6), 1145-1153.
- Pink, D. H. (2009). *Drive: The surprising truth about what motivates us*. New York, NY: Riverhead Books.
- Ravitch, D. (2014). *Reign of error: The hoax of the privatization movement and the danger to America's public schools*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.
- Rice, R. W. (1978). Psychometric properties of the esteem for the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale. *Academy of Management Review*, 1978(3), 106-118.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2013). *Organizational behaviors*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Robinson, V. (2011). *Student-centered leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rumsey, D. (2011). *Statistics for dummies* (2nd ed.). Indianapolis, ID: Wiley Publishing, Inc.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: Self-concept theory. *Organizational Science*, 4(4), 577-594.

- Schwahn, C., & McGarvey, B. (2012). *Inevitable: Mass customized learning, learning in the age of empowerment*. San Bernardino, CA: Chuck Schwahn & Bea McGarvey.
- Seashore Louis, K., & Wahlstrom, K. (2011). Principals as cultural leaders: Principals shape the culture in positive ways when they share leadership and take responsibility for shaping classroom improvements. *Phi Kappan Magazine*, 92(5), 52-56.
- Smith, B. (2016). The role of leadership style in creating a great school. *Saskatchewan Educational Leadership Unit Research Review Journal*, 1(1), 65-78.
- Smith, P., & Bell, L. (2011). Transactional and transformational leadership in schools in challenging circumstances: A policy paradox. *Management in Education*, 25(2), 58-61.
- Surucu, L., & Yesilada, T. (2017). The impact of leadership styles on organizational culture. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(8), 31-39.
- Syed, S. (2015). *Building principal pipelines: A strategy to strengthen educational leadership*. New York, NY: Wallace Foundation.
- Tobin, J. (2014). Management and leadership issues for school building leaders. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 9(1). Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1024110.pdf>
- Trépanier, S. G., Forest, J., Fernet, C., & Austin, S. (2015). On the psychological and motivational processes linking job characteristics to employee functioning: Insights from self-determination theory. *Work and Stress*, 29(3), 286-305.

- Turan, S., & Bekatas, F. (2013). The relationship among school culture and leadership practices. *Egitim Arastirmalari-Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, (52), 155-168. EJ1060393
- Urlick, A. M., & Bowers, A. J. (2014). What are the different types of principals across the United States? A latent class analysis of principal perception of leadership. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 50(1), 96-134.
- U.S. Army. (2015). *Army Leadership. Be, know, do. Field manual 6-22*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2016). Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). Retrieved from <http://www.ed.gov/essa>
- Van Roekel, D. (2008). *Changing role of school leadership* [Policy brief]. Washington, DC: NEA Education Policy and Practice Department.
- Villa, J. R., Howell, J. P., & Dorfman, P. W. (2003). Problems with detecting moderators in leadership research using moderated multiple regression. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(1), 3-23.
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (2007). The role of the situation in leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 17-24.
- Wallace Foundation. (2013). *The school principal as leader: Guiding schools to better teaching and learning*. Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/effective-principal-leadership/Documents/The-School-Principal-as-Leader-Guiding-Schools-to-Better-Teaching-and-Learning.pdf>

- Walters, T., Marzano, R., & McNulty, B. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.
- Whitaker, T. (2012). *What great principals do differently: Eighteen things that matter most*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Workman, T., & Cleveland-Innes, M. (2012). Leadership, personal transformation, and management. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 13(4), 313-323.
- Yukl, G. A. (2013). *Leadership in organizations*. Boston, MA: Pearson.



**Appendix A**  
**IRB Approval**

**LINDENWOOD**  
LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY ST. CHARLES, MISSOURI

DATE: August 29, 2017  
TO: Jeremy Phillips  
FROM: Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board  
STUDY TITLE: [1088894-1] A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation  
IRB REFERENCE #:   
SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project  
ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS  
DECISION DATE: August 29, 2017  
REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # 1

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this research study. Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal regulations.

We will put a copy of this correspondence on file in our office.

If you have any questions, please send them to [IRB@lindenwood.edu](mailto:IRB@lindenwood.edu). Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board's records.

## Appendix B

### Research Site Approval Permission Letter

I, <Name of Superintendent>, grant permission for Jeremy R. Phillips to survey our certified teachers in schools within our district with only one administrator as part of research project entitled, *A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation*. By signing this permission form, I understand the following safeguards are in place to protect the participants:

1. I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty.
2. The identity of the participants, as well as the identity of the school district, will remain confidential and anonymous in the dissertation or any future publications of this study.

I have read the information above, and any questions I posed have been answered to my satisfaction. Permission, as explained, is granted.

---

Superintendent's Signature

---

Date

## Appendix C

### Research Site Approval Permission Letter

#### Permission Letter for Superintendent

Date:

Dear Superintendent \_\_\_\_\_,

I am conducting a research project entitled, *Teacher Perceptions of Effective School Leadership Its Effects on School Culture and Teacher Motivation*, in partial fulfillment of the requirement for a doctoral degree in educational administration at Lindenwood University.

The research gathered should assist in providing insights and a possible framework for educational leaders to establish a positive school culture and to motivate teachers.

I am seeking your permission as the superintendent of <Name Here> School District to survey certified teachers in the schools within your district with only one administrator as part of the data collection and analysis process.

Consent is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. The identity of participants, as well as the school district, will remain confidential and anonymous in the dissertation or any future publications of this study.

Please do not hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns about participation (phone: xxx or electronic mail: jrp878@lionmail.lindenwood.edu). You may also contact the dissertation advisor for this research study, Dr. Trey Moller (phone: xxx-xxx-xxxx or electronic mail: tmoeller@lindenwood.edu). A copy of this letter and your written consent should be retained by you for future reference.

Respectfully,

Jeremy R. Phillips  
Doctoral Candidate  
Lindenwood University

## Appendix D

### Teacher Survey

A Teacher's Perspective: Valued Leadership Behaviors as Related to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation

Please verify you are a teacher by selecting the appropriate grade level.

- Elementary Teacher (K-4th)
- Middle School / Junior High (5th-8th)
- High School (9th-12th)
- I am not a certified teacher

Please check the years of experience

- 1-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 11-20 years
- 20+ years

#### Section 1: Leadership

Questions 1-10 address leadership styles or behaviors perceived to be of value or important to teachers.

0=Strongly Disagree 1=Disagree 2=Neutral 3=Agree 4=Strongly Agree

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to focus on facilitating relationships.
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to establish and manage the school to ensure students are learning and seek solutions if they are not learning.
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to identify and articulate the vision of the school.

- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to support teachers by communicating instructional best practices.
- 5) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to encourage and support teachers' pursuit of personal goals.
- 6) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to monitor the school's performance, and from this, provide direction for teachers' efforts.
- 7) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to provide individualized support to meet the needs of teachers.
- 8) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to be actively and visibly involved in the planning and implementation of change.
- 9) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to have positive interpersonal skills.
- 10) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for a principal to have high expectations and set goals and directions for meeting those challenges.

### Section 2: Culture

Questions 11-20 address what teachers perceived as important or of value regarding a school's culture.

0=Strongly Disagree 1=Disagree 2=Neutral 3=Agree 4=Strongly Agree

- 11) \_\_\_\_\_ I prefer to work in a school culture where teachers strongly agree on educational values.
- 12) \_\_\_\_\_ It is important for teachers to trust and respect the principal.
- 13) \_\_\_\_\_ I prefer a school culture where the staff values planning together and collaborating on best practices.
- 14) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important for teachers to learn from one another.

- 15) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important for teachers to understand the mission of the school and feel a shared organizational purpose.
- 16) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important to embrace changes when the school and/or students will benefit.
- 17) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important for teachers to discuss student achievement in order to critically analyze one another's instructional practices.
- 18) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important for teachers to seek out opportunities to observe and discuss what other teachers are teaching.
- 19) \_\_\_\_\_ I believe it is important for teachers to participate in decisions concerning students.
- 20) \_\_\_\_\_ I prefer a school culture where everyone understands school improvement is a continuous issue.

### Section 3: Motivation

Questions 21-30 address what teachers perceived as important or of value regarding professional motivation.

0=Strongly Disagree 1=Disagree 2=Neutral 3=Agree 4=Strongly Agree

- 21) \_\_\_\_\_ I am motivated by opportunities to provide leadership.
- 22) \_\_\_\_\_ I am more motivated in a collaborative school culture.
- 23) \_\_\_\_\_ It is motivating to have opportunities to utilize professional networks to obtain information and resources for classroom instruction.
- 24) \_\_\_\_\_ I am motivated with opportunities for professional development to improve teaching skills and knowledge.
- 25) \_\_\_\_\_ I am motivated when I feel safe enough to risk failure in my effort to try new strategies and innovative instruction.

- 26) \_\_\_\_\_ I am more motivated with a leadership style focused on serving the needs of others and inspiring and empowering followers to achieve success.
- 27) \_\_\_\_\_ It is motivating to receive valuable feedback from classroom observations.
- 28) \_\_\_\_\_ I am motivated by the influence I have on the lives of students.
- 29) \_\_\_\_\_ A system of performance-related pay or merit pay is motivating.
- 30) \_\_\_\_\_ I am motivated when my efforts are having a positive impact and I am recognized for my efforts.

## Appendix E

### Cover Letter for Participation

Dear Educators,

I am writing to request your participation in my doctoral dissertation research project at Lindenwood University. I believe the information gathered through this study will positively contribute to the body of knowledge and add to the sparse amount of existing literature about specific and effective leadership behaviors and their effects on school culture and teacher motivation.

This quantitative study is designed to investigate the relationship among teachers' perspectives on what they value in leadership behaviors, school culture, and professional motivation.

If you have questions, you can reach me at xxx or by electronic mail at jrp878@lionmail.lindenwood.edu. You may also contact the dissertation advisor for this research study, Dr. Trey Moeller, at xxx-xxx-xxxx or via electronic mail at tmoeller@lindenwood.edu.

In lieu of signing and returning a Letter of Consent below, if you agree to participate in this research, you will simply click on the survey link below and begin the survey. Your consent is implied through entering the survey.

<link to survey>

Thank you so much for your time.

Respectfully,

Jeremy R. Phillips  
Doctoral Candidate  
Lindenwood University



## Appendix F

### Informed Consent Form

# LINDENWOOD

## INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

From a Teacher's Perspective: Leadership Behaviors Viewed as Valuable and How  
They Relate to Preferences in School Culture and Professional Motivation

Principal Investigator Jeremy R. Phillips

Telephone: xxx-xxx-xxxx E-mail: jrp878@lionmail.lindenwood.edu

Participant \_\_\_\_\_ Contact Information \_\_\_\_\_

1. You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Jeremy R. Phillips under the guidance of Dr. Trey Moeller. The purpose of this study will be to research the perspectives of teachers to find the relationship among what they find value in with leadership behaviors and with school culture and their professional motivation. This study will focus on trying to provide a framework of best practices for school leaders working to establish a positive school culture and to motivate teachers.
2. a) Your participation will involve the following: completing a 30-question online survey. It will include three sections. Section one on leadership will contain ten questions, section two will contain ten questions on culture, and section three will contain ten questions on motivation.  
b) The amount of time involved in your participation will be approximately 10 minutes. Five school districts will be randomly selected and invited for participation from approximately 40 school districts.
3. There are no anticipated risks associated with this research.
4. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the knowledge about what teachers value in leadership behaviors, school culture, and find motivating.
5. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate in this research study or to withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions you do not want to answer. You will NOT be penalized in any way should you choose not to participate or to withdraw.

6. We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. As part of this effort, your identity will not be revealed in any publication or presentation which may result from this study and the information collected will remain in the possession of the investigator in a safe location.

7. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, or if any problems arise, you may call the Investigator, Jeremy R. Phillip, at xxx-xxx-xxxx or the Supervising Faculty, Dr. Trey Moller, at xxx. You may also ask questions of or state concerns regarding your participation to the Lindenwood Institutional Review Board (IRB) through contacting Dr. Marilyn Abbott, Provost, at mabbott@lindenwood.edu or 636-949-4912.

- **I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions.**
- **I may retain a copy of this consent form for my records.**
- **I consent to my participation in the research described above by completing the survey.**

In lieu of signing and returning a Letter of Consent, if you agree to participate in this research, you will simply click on the survey link and begin the survey. Your consent is implied through entering the survey.

<link to survey>

Thank you,

Jeremy R. Phillips  
Doctoral Candidate  
Lindenwood University

## Vita

Jeremy R. Phillips was a graduate of Neosho High School in 1995, and then earned a Bachelor of Science degree in physical education and minor in athletic training from Missouri Southern State University in 2000. He worked as a youth and junior high wrestling coach and high school football coach in the Neosho school district while in college and then upon graduation was hired by Neosho to teach elementary physical education. After four years of teaching elementary school, Jeremy transferred to the high school to teach the strength and conditioning classes. It was during this time he obtained a master's and a specialist degree in educational administration. After eight years at the high school, he was then hired as an assistant principal at the elementary level for Neosho.

In 2005, Jeremy was hired as the high school wrestling coach. After three years of coaching the wrestling program brought home hardware from the state tournament for the first time, with a fourth-place finish. The following year was followed up with a runner-up finish, and then in 2010 and 2011 the program and school won its first-ever boys state championships. In 2012, the program took fourth place and then got back on top with five consecutive state championships. Another runner-up finish in 2018 was followed up with the eighth state championship in 2019. Lastly, Jeremy was named district coach of the year nine times, state coach of the year seven times, and two times he has been named regional coach of the year.