A STUDY TO INVESTIGATE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND SCHOOL CULTURE AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS IN MARYLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By

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A DISSERTATION

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I give praise and honor to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, who is and will remain the head of my Life and the center of my being. "For I have learned, in whatsoever state I am, therewith to be content. I know both how to be abased, and I know how to abound: everywhere and in all things I am instructed both to be full and to be hungry, both to abound and to suffer need. *I can do all things through Christ Jesus, who strengthens me*" Phillipians 4: 11-13

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May God continue to bless those who have blessed my life tremendously!

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school principals' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and school culture as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers in Maryland Public Schools. This quantitative study consisted of a cross-sectional correlational-research design. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the School Culture Survey (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998) were used to survey teachers online. A systematic random cluster sampling technique was used to select participating teachers. From a sample of 217 qualified teachers, a return-rate of 32.5% yielded 70 teachers who participated in this study. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to answer the three research questions and null hypotheses that guided the study. Multiple linear regression models were conducted to determine the effects of leadership style on school culture. The findings revealed a positive statistically significant relationship between transformational and transactional (contingent reward) leadership styles and school culture as perceived by teachers at the .01 level of significance; and a negative statistically significant relationship existed between transactional (manage by exception-passive) and laissez-faire leadership styles and school culture as perceived by teachers at the .01 level of significance. The findings also revealed that leadership styles predicted teachers' perceptions of school culture.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter I

Introduction

The National Commission on Excellence in Education released the infamous report, *A Nation at Risk* (1983), which alarmed federal, state, and local officials, educators, and the American people that America's educational system was losing its competitive edge in the global economy. The report indicted educators on complacency and mediocre performance and urged for immediate education-reform that would raise expectations and accountability for educators (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). America's educational system is still threatened by many challenges such as improving students' literacy and mathematical competency skills among low performing students, immigrant students and students with special needs. Additional challenges include increasing student-retention and completion efforts in secondary and post-secondary schools, taking the lead in global-technological innovations, and graduating citizens who are globally competitive and capable of making a reputable contribution to society (U. S. Department of Education, 2008; U. S. Department of Education, 2010). Recent reform efforts such as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2002 and Race to the Top, 2010, continue to demand improvement of educational policies, practices and procedures by focusing on revised-standards, aggressive testing and assessment, and rigorous instruction and curriculum (No Child Left Behind Act, 2001; U. S. Department of Education, 2010).

However, a review of literature has shown that school leadership and school culture are key ingredients for successful school-reform and are paramount for student achievement (Bolton, 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). In the context of school leadership, Valentine (2006) stated:

> The principal is probably the most essential element in a highly successful school. The principal is necessary to set change into motion, to establish the culture of change and a learning organization, and to provide the support and energy to maintain the change over time until it becomes a

way of life in the school. Over time, the principal's leadership will shape the school, positively or negatively (p. 3).

The assessments of school principals' competency skills shifted to focus more on instructional leadership so that principals spend less time on managerial responsibilities and more time on supporting and evaluating effective teaching and learning, instruction, curriculum and classroom management. However, Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (as cited in Rutledge, 2010) argued that transformational leadership is more advantageous to school principals in transforming their schools than traditional styles (e.g., instructional and administrative). Experts insist that transformational leaders are change agents, who are directly associated to positive school changes, altering non-effective school practices by transforming the mind-sets, and value and belief systems of others, which are the composites of school culture (Peariso, 2011; Rutledge, 2010). Moreover, a number of empirical studies found positive relationships between transformational leadership and school variables (e.g., teachers' degree of effort and commitment, altered teacher practices, strategic planning, organizational learning, and teacher efficacy), which are also relevant to positive and healthy school cultures, and high quality school performances (Dale, 2009; Hopkin, 2001; Rutledge, 2010).

To further emphasize the importance of leadership and school culture, Leithwood (as cited in Valentine, 2006) asserted that "School leaders, both formal and informal, help shape the nature of school culture and thus the nature of school improvement" (p. 2). Valentine (2006) continued with the assertion that "leadership and school culture go hand in hand, in both the development and sustainability of school reform" (p.2). Therefore, a greater significance on school principal leadership, as it relates to leadership styles that establish and enhance school cultures conducive to collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership (Gruenert & Valentine 1998), should be placed on future school reform efforts.

Background of the Study

Burn's (1978) theory, encouraged by House's (1976) theory on charismatic leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006) distinguished between transactional and transformational leadership. Burn's concept of transactional leadership emphasized the exchange-relationship between the leader and subordinates; it focused on leadership that encouraged subordinates' work-performance through the use of rewards and recognition. The leader worked within the structural-framework of the organization, reinforced the bottom-line, maximized efficiency and guaranteed short-term profits. While it also emphasized a relationship between the leader and subordinates, Burn's transformational leadership concept focused more on developing mutual trust and respect, fostering leadership qualities in others and establishing goals that were geared toward having a long-term impact on the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003; Lee & Chuang, 2009; Northouse, 2010).

Burn's work later inspired the works of Avolio and Bass (1991), which serves as the theoretical framework for this study. The uniqueness found in the concept of transactional and transformational leadership was that, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), these two leadership terms cannot be classified by the dichotomy of people-oriented versus task-oriented leadership as found in other leadership theories. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), both transactional and transformational leaders displayed both directive and participatory leadership behaviors. In support of this argument, Bass and Bass (2008) confirmed:

> Contrary to many misconceptions about transformational and transactional leadership, such leadership can be directive and participative. The intellectually stimulating leader can issue instructions and participatively arouse curiosity. The inspiring directive leader can state that conditions are improving greatly. The inspiring participative leader can ask for all to merge their aspirations and work together for the good of the group. (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 465)

These experts further contend that both forms of leadership were considered to be effective; however, transformational leadership was declared more effective than transactional leadership because it represented a higher degree of leadership. Avolio and Bass (2004, as cited in Sample, 2007, p.7) stated,

> Transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership; it augments transactional leadership in achieving the goals of the leader, associate, group, and organization. Although transformational leaders can be transactional when appropriate, transactional leadership is often a prescription for lower level of performance or non-significant change.

As a result of the unique characteristics found particularly in transformational leadership, further investigation as it relates to transformational and transactional leadership styles in the context of school leadership was needed. By utilizing Avolio and Bass's (1991) leadership model, school principals' leadership styles were investigated to determine implementation of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. This model represented a new paradigm for comprehending "lower and higher order effects of leadership" and has incorporated "earlier leadership paradigms (e.g., autocratic vs. democratic leadership, directive vs. participative leadership and task vs. relationship oriented leadership), which dominated selection, training, development, and research in leadership for the past half century" (Sample, 2007, p. 2).

Theoretical Framework

In Avolio and Bass's (1991) leadership model, transformational leaders have five characteristics: (a) Idealized influence or attributed charisma (e.g., the emotional component of leaders' behavior that causes their followers to move from their own self-interest to the greater interest of the organization); (b) Idealized influence or behavioral charisma (e.g., leaders' sense of purpose which influences the ethics and moral conduct of their followers); (c) Inspirational motivation (e.g., an intangible behavior that instills confidence in others to achieve the unachievable); (d) Intellectual stimulation (e.g., leaders' ability to

challenge the status quo and inspire non-traditional thinking to handle traditional problems); and (e) Individualized consideration (e.g., leaders' behaviors [teaching, coaching and counseling] that encourage self-development of their followers).

Transactional leadership is categorized by three components: (a) contingent reward leaders (e.g., a transaction process between leaders and followers where expected outcomes are contingent to a reward); (b) management by exception (active) (e.g., a relationship where leaders monitor their followers' performance and take action to resolve any problems that deviate from the norm); and (c) management by exception (passive) (e.g., a situation where leaders only respond to problems after they occur) (Bolden et al., 2003; Thomson, 2007). Lastly, laissez-faire leadership is identified as the inactive or uninvolved form of leadership; there is no leader/follower relationship present in this form of leadership (Jones & Rudd, 2008; Thomson, 2007).

For this study, the following constructs were used to measure school principals' leadership styles and to investigate if there was a relationship between principals' leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

Statement of the Problem

Many researchers have investigated school principals' leadership styles in the context of school performance (Butz, 2010; Dale, 2009; Le Clear, 2005; London, 2006; Lyes, 2009; May, 2010; Robinson, 2010; Rutledge, 2010). While the results have been inconsistent, few of these studies included school culture as a variable. Additionally, there are limited empirical studies on the relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture (Martin, 2009). An even smaller percentage of these studies focused on school principals' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and the effects of these styles on school culture as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers across a geographical spectrum. According to Valentine (2006), "the school leader is instrumental in shaping the school's culture and leading reform and the presence and sustainability of reform are highly associated with the school's culture" (p. 3).

Therefore, the purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers in Maryland Public Schools.

By utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the School Culture Survey (SCS), Avolio and Bass's (1991) full range of leadership development model was tested by measuring transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles of school principals. The presence of these leadership styles in school principals' behaviors was investigated to determine if these styles correlated with critical-cultural factors, as measurable by the SCS. These cultural factors included collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, collegial support, unity of purpose, and learning partnership. Findings suggest that there is a positive/negative statistically significant relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers in Maryland Public Schools.

Significance of the Study

By examining school principals' leadership styles in correlation to school culture, empirical studies were included to confirm the relationship between specific leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and school culture as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers. The study bridged a gap in knowledge as it contributed to the limited amount of literature on school principals' leadership styles and school culture, and as recommended (Le Clear, 2005; Leech & Fulton, 2002), it provided a broader spectrum of the topic by investigating these variables across school-levels and geographical areas.

Stone (2003) contends that future studies on leadership collaboration will contribute significantly to this area of research. Since this study investigated

leadership styles in correlation to school culture, the results served as a resource for school administrators in identifying effective leadership styles that contribute to collaborative endeavors and foster school cultures that facilitate collaborative mediums for achieving school goals. Moreover, school officials can utilize this information in their planning efforts on how to best assess and evaluate school principals' leadership effectiveness and contribute to their professional development as school leaders. School principals can also utilize this information to better understand the effects of leadership style on school culture as measured by collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, collegial support, unity of purpose, and learning partnership. They can also commit themselves to effective behaviors that will foster a positive and thriving school culture conducive to student learning.

Research Questions

This study was guided by three research questions and null hypotheses. The research questions included:

1. Is there a relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?

2. Is there a relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?

3. Is there a relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?

Research Null Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

2. There is no significant relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

3. There is no significant relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

Definition of Terms

Effective leadership— Leadership that creates a school community of active learners including students, teachers, parents and other stakeholders (Sigford, 2006).

Laissez-faire (i.e., passive/avoidant) leadership— Is the inactive or uninvolved form of leadership. The leader avoids or delays decision-making and takes a hands-off approach in providing feedback, support, directions or guidance to subordinates (Northouse, 2009; Thomson, 2007).

Leadership— An activity process of interpersonal relationships where others' behaviors are influenced to achieve established goals within the organization (Lee & Chuang, 2009.).

School climate— "A relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behavior, and is based on their collective perceptions of behaviors in schools" (Hoy & Miskel, 2008, p. 198).

School community— Is comprised of individuals (e.g., school administrators, teachers, staff, students, parents, community residences and business leaders) who make up the internal and external school-environment, sharing common educational values and goals for its students (Redding & Thomas, 2001).

School culture— The character of a school that has been formed through traditional beliefs, values, rituals, and ceremonies over the course of history (Deal & Peterson, 1990).

School improvement— A process used by schools to ensure student learning and achievement (School Improvement in Maryland, 2010).

School reform— Consists of changes in policies and programs made to improve school operations (Project Appleseed, 2010).

Student achievement— An indication of performance in students' ability as measured by various criteria (e.g., graduation rate; dropout rate; grade level performance; standard achievement performance; national achievement performance, NCLB, 2001).

Transactional leadership— "Is the equitable transaction or exchange between the leader and followers whereby the leader influences the followers by focusing on the self-interest of both" (e.g., satisfactory performance for the leader and valuable rewards for followers) (Rosenbach & Taylor, 2006, p. 3).

Transformational leadership— The leader interacts with followers in such a manner whereas to develop mutual trust and respect, foster leadership qualities in followers, and achieve goals that will have a long-term impact on the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bolden et al., 2003; Lee & Chuang, 2009; Northouse, 2010).

Limitations and Delimitations

The study had several limitations. The data collection was limited to two survey instruments, the MLQ and SCS, along with the demographic questionnaire. Other types of data collection (e.g., interviews, observations, and case studies) may have contributed to more insightful and rich data. Additionally, the results of this study only reflected selected K-12 grade-teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership style and existing school culture, they excluded the perceptions of teachers without the minimum qualifications for participation in this study, non-teaching staff, students, and parents, which was a limitation on the population. Furthermore, the results only reflected selected K-12 grade-teachers' perceptions from selected school districts in the state of Maryland, and excluded other school districts within the state of Maryland or surrounding states, which also was a limitation on the population and thereby on the generalization. "The lack of means to generalize results of a study to other areas or groups limits the application of the study" (Kerlinger, 1986). Therefore, the findings and conclusions of this study were significant to the population studied, and made no attempts to generalize the findings to other areas or infer causation.

This study also had several delimitations. The study was restricted to surveying selected K-12 grade-teachers' perceptions of their school principal's leadership style and school culture in selected urban, suburban and rural school districts in the state of Maryland. Teacher-participants were restricted to a

minimum of 3 years of teaching experience and working experience with their current principal. Principal-participants were restricted to a minimum of 3 years experience as a school principal.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

In this chapter, the introduction to the study; background of the study; theoretical framework; statement of the problem; justification for the study; significance of the study; purpose for the study; research questions; null hypotheses; definition of terms; and the limitations and delimitations of the study were briefly stated. This chapter is followed by several other chapters, commencing with Chapter Two, which includes a review of supporting literature for the study; Chapter Three, which includes a description of the methodology, the research design, participants, instrumentation, and data collection and analyses procedures; Chapter Four, which includes the results from the statistical analyses; and Chapter Five, which includes a summary of the findings, the implications of the study, and suggestions for future studies.

Chapter II

Review of Related Literature

In this chapter, pertinent literature is examined and documented in support of this study. Several topics are discussed in detail. These topics include the evolution of leadership theories, an analysis of leadership theories, the school principal, school leadership, school leadership effectiveness, and the school's learning environment. This chapter concludes with a summary of these topics as they relate to this specific study.

The Evolution of Leadership Theories

Leadership has a significant impact on any organization's productivity, outcome-successes and life-span expectancy. It is the leader who is responsible for establishing the organization's vision, mission, and goals, and who is ultimately responsible for communicating this information to his/her followers and constituents. This impact of leadership is also relevant in the role of the school principal. The school principal has the ultimate responsibility of promoting and fostering student-achievement for all students within his/her school. How the principal communicates this vision ultimately determines how successful his/her school will be in meeting the academic and personal-developmental needs of all students (Dale, 2009; Fullan, 2000).

Several studies on leadership styles have been conducted to examine the characteristics, qualities and skills of organizational leaders. During the early 20th century, these studies increased in their popularity. While traditional theories focused primarily on the traits and behaviors that distinguished leaders from followers, subsequent theories began to consider other variables such as situational factors, the role of followers, and the contextual nature of leadership in general (Bolden et al., 2003). However, during the 1970s, more contemporary theories began to emerge leading into studies that centered on transactional and transformational leadership (Bolden et al., 2003).

Great Man Theory

The Great Man theory was postulated by Thomas Carlyle (1841). Carlyle argued that a leader was born with natural traits and skills (e.g., charisma, persuasiveness, intuition, judgment, courage) of leadership and therefore, leadership could not be acquired through education and training. Carlyle claimed that leadership traits and skills were genetically inherited by natural born leaders and were gifts from a divine source. The fallacy of the theory was seen in the notion that leaders were naturally gifted with greatness aside from their social interactions (Joshi & Joshi, 2002). More modern theorists challenged Carlyle's Great Man theory, which in turn led to the evolution of the trait theories.

Trait Theories

Trait theories focused on specific innate qualities and skills that successful leaders possessed and commonly shared (e.g., height, weight, looks, intelligence, confidence, and aggressiveness). Stogdill's (1948) studies of leadership traits were highly representative of this period (Bolden et al., 2003; Lee & Chuang, 2009). Stogdill's analyses of nearly 124 studies suggested that leaders possessed innate qualities such as intelligence, dependability, responsibility, self-confidence, persistence, insightfulness, and social responsiveness that distinguished them from other members in an organization. However, Stogdill argued that these leadership traits were less representative of a leader than his ability to effectively interact and inspire others (Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2009).

Behavioral Theories

Following the recognition of a leader's ability to effectively work in groups and influence members within the group, researchers began to examine leadership effectiveness based on their behavioral patterns. One of the earliest studies was conducted by Lewin, Lippit, & White (1939), who examined leadership styles based on three classifications: authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire. Authoritarian leadership was exhibited through leadership behavior

that was aloof and directive toward followers. These leaders gave orders and directed followers in accomplishing their tasks. The democratic leader displayed behaviors of guidance, encouragement, and participation in coaching his/her followers, while the laissez-faire leader was inactive and non-participatory, providing minimum leadership to followers (Borkowski, 2009). Lewin, et al. (1939) concluded that democratic leaders promoted group dynamics that encouraged a high level of morale; cohesive and friendly relations among the group and with the group-leader; a productive and cooperative work environment; and a high degree of independence among the group. The authoritarian leader created group dynamics that displayed aggression, a lack of cooperation and participation, and low production and quality of work. While the democratic leader displayed the most effective leadership style, the laissez-faire leadership style demonstrated the most ineffective leadership style. This style created group dynamics that exhibited low group morale, work-satisfaction, and productivity (Borkowski, 2009).

Along with Lewin's et al. (1939) study, there are two major university studies on leadership behaviors. Those studies include the Ohio State University's study of "consideration" and "initiating structure" also known as "task-oriented behavior" of leadership behaviors, and the University of Michigan's study of "an employee orientation" and "a production orientation" of leadership behaviors. In the Ohio State University study, "consideration" identified behaviors of leaders who were more concerned with strengthening interpersonal relationships with their subordinates and were genuinely concerned about their subordinates' personal needs and welfare. This behavioral trait was parallel to that of the University of Michigan's study of the "employee orientation" leadership behavior. Ohio State's "initiating structure" or "task-oriented behavior" was also similar to Michigan's definition of the "production orientation" leadership behavior. These terms represented leadership behaviors that identified leaders as being more focused on the tasks or technical aspects of the job as they related to achieving the goals of the organization. Unlike Michigan, Ohio researchers examined their two leadership constructs as independent behavioral orientations

that occurred simultaneously. When both are highly implemented, leaders exhibited the most effective leadership behavioral combination-style. Michigan's researchers, on the other hand, viewed their two constructs as independent behavioral orientations that occurred independent of each other and at opposite ends of a single-continuum. This concept implied that leaders only exhibited one of the orientations and those who exhibited the employee-centered orientation were most effective (Denhardt et al., 2009; Northouse, 2010). Other notable leadership behavioral theories were McGregor's (1960) theory X and theory Y; Likert's (1961) four systems of management leadership; and Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid.

McGregor (1960) classified two leadership styles based on leaders' assumptions about subordinates. He associated these styles with theory X, which were authoritative/work-centered leaders and theory Y, which were participative/people-centered leaders. Theory X leaders possessed negative views about their subordinates. For example, they believed that most people disliked work and therefore, needed to be supervised and disciplined in the workplace if goals were to be achieved. Theory Y leaders, on the other hand, possessed positive views about subordinates; they believed that work was natural for people; that people wanted to have goals and achieve them; and that under the appropriate mental, social and environmental conditions were able to do so. McGregor concluded that theory Y leaders were most effective in creating workplace conditions that increased employees' work-satisfaction and productivity (Bolden et al., 2003; Laxmikanth, 2009; Miller, 2009).

Likert (1961) identified four types of leadership styles, which are referred to as systems. System One, exploitative/authoritative, described leaders as autocratic. These leaders gave directives and instilled fear in followers by operating from a superior/subordinate relationship. System Two, benevolent/authoritative, described leaders as autocratic but less stern than leaders in system one. System Three, consultative, described leaders as more focused on the human relations side of leadership. These leaders recognized followers' contributions through a rewards system and fostered open

communication, but reserved authority over decision-making on important matters. Lastly, System Four, participative group/democratic, described leaders as more people-oriented. These leaders fostered open communication, collaboration and shared decision-making, and demonstrated high participation within the group. Likert concluded that System Four leaders were most successful in influencing group participation and achievement of organizational goals (Laxmikanth, 2009). Cecil and Rothwell (2007) asserted that Likert focused on leadership within successful organizations that had overcome the complexities within hierarchical organizations through the development of effective interpersonal group dynamics and found that "successful organizations were comprised of cohesive work groups that effectively integrated their activities through common participation in an organizational culture and climate" (p. 180).

Blake and Mouton (1964) identified five basic leadership styles (e.g., impoverished management, task management, middle-of-the-road management, county-club management and team management) which they categorized into two leadership orientations: concern for production and concern for people. These leadership styles were plotted on a grid from 1 to 9. The horizontal axis measured leaders' concern for production and the vertical axis measured their concern for people. The theory implied that there was only one effective leadership style and leaders can utilize the grid as a tool for improving their leadership effectiveness. Blake and Mouton concluded that the most effective leadership style was team management, plotted on the scale as (9, 9). These leaders were able to balance their concern for both people and task, and were able to perform well in these orientations to achieve high productivity and high job-satisfaction (Bolden et al., 2003; Borkowski, 2009).

As the concern for effective leadership continued to develop, modern theorists began to challenge trait and behavioral theories suggesting that these theories excluded other factors of the workplace or within the organization that influence leadership style. These theorists claimed that "effective leaders analyze factors pertaining to the situation, task, followers, and the organization and then choose the appropriate style" (Osland, Kolb & Rubin, 2001, p. 290).

These discrepancies led to the evolution of theories that focused on situational or contingency leadership styles.

Situational or Contingency Theories

During the late 1960s and 1970s, contingency or situational theories of leadership gained prominence. These theories postulated that there was no single effective leadership style; that leadership styles varied based on the situation, and that the leader must adopt the most optimum leadership style based on the demand of the organizational situation. These theories viewed leadership in a multi-dimensional aspect, where a number of factors were considered in the dynamics of a situation (Bolden et al., 2003). Tannenabaum and Schmidt's (1958) continuum of leadership styles; Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness; Reddin's (1970) three dimensional model of leadership effectiveness; House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership; Vroom and Yetton's (1973) decision participation model; and Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational approach to leadership were most recognizable during this period (Bolden et al., 2003; Encyclopedia of Management, 2010; Laxmikanth, 2009; Lee & Chuang, 2009).

Tannenabaum and Schmidt (1958) identified two leadership styles based on how leaders used their authority. These styles were examined across a continuum of managerial behaviors in which the leader either included or excluded employees in the decision-making process. At one end of the continuum, the Boss-centered style was implemented whereas the leader exercised full authority in making decisions. At the other end of the continuum, the subordinate-centered style was implemented whereas the leader solicited the opinion of subordinates in making decisions or relinquished decision-making authority to subordinates with limitations. The utilization of the two styles was contingent upon environmental situations. For example, leaders displayed the Boss-centered style in cases where there was a lack of support and participation from subordinates, and displayed the subordinate-centered style when there was

a high degree of interest from the employees to participate in the decision-making process (Borkowski, 2009; Cecil & Rothwell, 2007; Laxmikanth, 2009).

Fiedler (1967) proposed that leadership effectiveness was contingent upon three situational controls (e.g., the leader-member relations; the task structure; and the position-power) and the level of situational control (high vs. low) that the leader had over these situations. Two basic leadership orientations were identified: task-oriented and human-relations oriented. Using the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale to measure leaders' level of situational control, Fiedler concluded that leaders of low LPC, representing a task-oriented style, were most effective in either extremely favorable or unfavorable leadership conditions. On the other hand, high LPC leaders, representing a human-relations oriented style, were most effective in moderately favorable or moderately unfavorable leadership conditions. Finding suggest that both leadership orientations (e.g., high LPC and low LPC) were effective; however, their effectiveness was contingent upon the level of their situational control (Laxmikanth, 2009; Tosi, Mero, & Rizzo, 2000).

Reddin (1970) created an extension of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid by including a third dimension of people-oriented leadership style and task-oriented leadership style, which he referred to as effectiveness/appropriateness. This dimension produced eight management styles (e.g., missionary, deserter, compromiser, autocrat, developer, bureaucrat, benevolent autocrat, and executive) derived from four basic styles: (a) related (represented leaders who were high people-oriented and low task-oriented); (b) separated (represented leaders who were low in both, people-oriented and task-oriented); (c) dedicated (represented leaders who were low people-oriented and high task-oriented); and (d) integrated (represented leaders who were high in both, people-oriented and task-oriented). Based on these four basic styles, Reddin concluded that four management styles were effective when used appropriately in response to situational variables (developer, bureaucrat, benevolent, and executive) and four management styles were less effective (missionary, deserter, autocrat, and compromiser) (Cole, 2005).

House (1971) established their theory based on the expectancy theory. They believed that leadership effectiveness was based on the leaders' ability to motivate followers by adopting his/her leadership style to meet the motivational needs of his/her followers. This leadership effectiveness was contingent on followers' characteristics as well as the characteristics of the task for which followers were to perform. Based on other theories, House (1971) identified four basic leadership behaviors (directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented) and concluded they were effective when applied appropriately (selected to best suit subordinates' needs). In this theory, the role of the leader was to lead subordinates to precise goals by establishing clear expectations and eliminating obstacles so that subordinates were successful and satisfied (Northouse, 2010; Ornstein & Lunenburg, 2008).

Vroom and Yetton (1973) identified three leadership decision-making styles (autocratic, consultative, and group) based on a continuum from highly autocratic to highly participatory. Within these three styles, leaders practiced five alternative styles of decision-making which varied in the degree of subordinates' participation. The effectiveness of these styles was contingent upon how leaders diagnosed the situation/problem based on Vroom and Yetton's seven rules, which sought to improve the quality of the decision as well as the acceptance of the decision by subordinates. The model provided leaders with a tool to effectively adapt their leadership style to the appropriateness of the situation when making decisions (Sheehy, Chapman, & Conroy, 1997; Ward & MacPhail-Wilcox, 1999; Wart, 2005).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) identified four leadership styles (directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating) which they contended were effective based on the subordinate or groups' task-maturity level. These styles were measured across a continuum of task-behavior (for which subordinates were engaged in the task by direct one-way communication from the leader; the leader dictated and supervised the process) and relationship behavior (for which subordinates participated in the decision-making process of the task through open-communication). The role of the leader in determining the appropriate

leadership styles was based on the situation/task and the level of the subordinate's or group's maturity to handle a given task. Once the level of maturity was determined by the leader, the degree (high/low) of the leader's style shifted or diminished entirely once the subordinate or group reached full maturity to encourage self-direction and successfulness of the task (Bolden et al., 2003; Landy & Conte, 2010).

An Analysis of Behavioral, Situational and Contingency Leadership Theories

A comprehensive analysis of these leadership theories revealed both similarities and differences among theorists' approaches in examining leadership effectiveness. As explained in Brown (2003), Lussier and Achua (2010), differences appeared in theorists' titles, as well as the models and concepts used to identify leadership behaviors. The latter were based on people or task orientation; types of behaviors identified and categorized by theorists; the number of leadership styles identified in their models; and the instruments used to determine leaders' individual leadership style or dual leadership style, which was defined by a leader's ability to simultaneous display a degree of both people-centered and task-centered orientations.

Similarities among these leadership theories appeared within the two orientations, people versus task, used by theorists to categorize leadership styles. As illustrated in Table 1, theorists used descriptive terms of leadership behaviors that were interchangeable, identical or synonymous.

Table 1

Analysis of Leadership Styles Based on People Versus Task Orientation

Leadership Studies	People Oriented	Task Oriented
Behavioral Studies		
Kurt Lewin	Democratic	Authoritarian
Ohio State University	Consideration	Initiating Structure
University of Michigan	Employee-orientation	Production-orientation
Douglas McGregor	Theory Y	Theory X
Rensis Likert	Democratic	Authoritarian
Blake and Mouton	Concern for People	Concern for Task
Situational or Contingency Studies		
Tannenabaum and Schmidt	Subordinate-centered	Boss-centered
Fiedler	Human-relations	Task
Reddin	Relationships-orientation	Task-orientation
Evan and House	Supportive	Directive
Vroom and Yetton	Participatory	Autocratic
Hersey and Blanchard	Group	Directive

Terms such as democratic, consideration, employee-centered, and subordinate-centered described leadership behaviors that denoted people-centered orientation. These leaders focused on enhancing the group dynamics within the workplace by practicing open two-way communication, shared decision-making, expressions of appreciation for subordinates' contributions in the workplace, and a genuine concern for employees as human beings. Contrarily, terms such as initiating structure, production-orientation, authoritarian, and boss-centered depicted leadership behaviors that symbolized task-centered orientation. These leaders focused on production and outcomes, daily operations, employees' assignments/tasks, innovations, and problem-solving issues in the workplace (Brown, 2003; Lussier & Achua, 2010).

As seen throughout the evolution of leadership theories, both people-centered and task-centered leadership orientations were determined effective. Leaders who displayed both orientations were perceived by followers as being highly effective leaders (Rosenbach & Taylor, 2006). However, in Lewin et al., (1930), McGregor (1960) and the University of Michigan's study, where leadership style was examined on a continuum that displayed these orientations at opposite ends, the people-oriented leadership style was more effective than

the task-oriented leadership style. Task oriented leadership style was determined to be effective independent of the people-oriented leadership style in cases where situational or contingency factors were considered. As concluded by Tannenabaum and Schmidt (1958), Fiedler (1967), and Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the task oriented leadership style was implemented effectively in cases where there was a low level of task maturity among subordinates. Therefore, the leader directed and supervised subordinates' tasks and performances until a higher level of maturity was achieved. The leader's leadership style then shifted to compliment subordinates' level of task-maturity or in cases where the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale was employed and leaders were shown to have a level of situational control that was either extremely favorable or unfavorable (Brown, 2003; Rubio, 1999).

People-Oriented vs. Task-Oriented Leadership Styles in the Context of School Leadership

Several studies in the context of school leadership support the people oriented and task oriented leadership styles. For instance, Rubio (1999) studied 10 randomly selected elementary schools in the Cathedral Unified School District. In his descriptive quantitative study, 240 teachers were surveyed about their perception of their school principal's leadership style of "Consideration" (people-oriented) or "Structured" (task-oriented). Findings suggest that school principals who received high-ratings for "Consideration" led schools with high-ratings in staff conflict, collegiality, student discipline, facilitative leadership, and teacher behavior. On the other hand, school principals with low-ratings of "Consideration" led schools with low-ratings in these areas. While "Structured" leadership style was also measured, the results revealed no significant correlation or a small negative correlation among the variables examined.

Additionally, Smith's (1999) quantitative study of leadership style based on "Consideration" and "Initiation" in correlation to teacher motivation revealed that teachers who perceived their school principal's leadership as people oriented had a high level of motivation. Motivation was measured with three scales of

motivation: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general. Furthermore, the higher the rating was for "Consideration" the higher the level of teacher motivation. The results also revealed a small to moderate correlation between "Initiation" leadership orientation and teacher motivation. Similar results were reflected in a quantitative study by Sanchez-Perkins (2002), who also examined leadership style and teacher motivation among 311 elementary school teachers from 10 elementary schools in South Texas. Sanchez-Perkins' correlational analyses found a relationship between leadership behavior "Consideration" and the three scales of teacher motivation (intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction), and a weak correlation between leadership behavior "Initiation" and extrinsic motivation and general satisfaction.

<div align="center">The School Principal</div>

The role of the school principal emerged during the 1800s. As schoolhouses grew in their student enrollment, the administrative demands of the school also grew. Head teachers were charged with the responsibility of managing the administrative duties of the school along with their primary responsibility of teaching. Throughout the years, many titles were used to define the school's head person. These titles included head teacher, headmaster, rector, preceptor, provost and later, school principal (Sharp & Walter, 1994). By the mid1800s, the title school principal was more commonly used in relation to the school's head person and this role evolved to include more responsibilities for the school's organization, operations, and management. By the 1900s, the school principal was viewed as the school's manager, charged with various responsibilities such as supervising the school's instructional program, staff development, and school community relations (Pierce, as cited in Sharp & Walter, 1994). According to Sharp and Walter (1994), the demands for more schools increased during the 1950s and 1960s and as new schools were erected, more school principals were needed on a fulltime basis to manage and operate these schools. Professional qualifications and licensing were also required to occupy the position (Rowland, 2008).

Pierce (1934) contended that several elements contributed to the development of the school principalship. These elements included:

1. An increase in student enrollment due to a rapid growth in the surrounding residential population;

2. The grading of schools;

3. The reorganization of schools and the consolidation of departments under a single department head; and

4. The development of the assistant principal position to free the school principal from teaching responsibilities (Sharp & Walter, 1994, p. 211).

School Leadership

Traditionally, the leadership style of school principals was demonstrative of an autocratic leader. School principals took their directives from the school superintendent or appointee of the superintendent and conveyed these directives to the school faculty, staff, students, and school community (Elmore, 2000; Rowland, 2008; Sharp & Walter, 1994). This leadership style was indicative of the top-down management hierarchical structure of the public educational system for which principals worked. Lin (1999) described this system as a "well-structured bureaucracy, rooted in and influenced by the scientific management theory" (p. 30) while Elmore (2000) referred to it as "centralized school bureaucracy, governed by elected boards" (p.5). Both agreed that in such a system, school principals attended to mostly the administrative aspects of the school while teachers worked in isolation, focusing primarily on the pedagogy of their jobs.

As the complexities of the school operations grew from political, public, and legal concerns relating to issues on student achievement outcomes and school-accountability, the traditional managerial practices of the school were scrutinized as the demand for more local school leadership increased. School principals were being forced through professional development to implement democratic leadership skills in order to encourage collaboration, communication,

and shared-decision making within their local school communities (Elmore, 2000; Lin, 1999). The demand for more effective school leadership continues to exist in the educational arena, which has prompted experts to study school principals' leadership styles in relation to leadership effectiveness.

School Leadership Effectiveness

School principals' leadership styles in relation to leadership effectiveness are documented in recent studies that focus on these variables in the context of school culture, student achievement, program improvement, and school-reform. For example, Le Clear's (2005) quantitative research explored the relationship between perceived effective school culture, principal leadership characteristics, and student performance as measured by the Florida Comprehensive Academic Test (FCAT). Le Clear's results suggested that there was a statistically significant relationship between transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership with school culture. Transactional leadership correlated with a positive school culture and directly affected school culture in the areas of parent/student perceptions, professional learning communities and teacher efficacy. Higher-levels of transactional leadership also correlated with higher-levels of school culture. Similarly, transformational leadership was statistically significant with school culture in two areas, which included professional learning and personal teacher efficacy. Laissez-faire leadership was significantly related to school culture as indicated by professional learning communities. Higher levels of laissez-faire leadership resulted in lower levels of professional learning communities. Furthermore, Le Clear concluded that school culture (specifically, personal teaching efficacy, performance of students with disabilities, and professional learning community) had a significantly positive impact on student achievement.

In Lyles's (2009) nonexperimental, descriptive, quantitative study, the impact of leadership on student achievement was explored. Lyles sought to determine the relationship between leadership style and student achievement in Blue Ribbon Schools (BRS) across the United States.   In analyzing principals'

leadership with the MLQ developers' norm, Lyles suggested that BRS principals tended to demonstrate positive leadership significantly more than the norm and were less likely to exhibit negative leadership characteristics than the norm. Her results also revealed that BRS principals were directly associated with transformational leadership and were most likely to exhibit Inspirational Motivation dimension and Idealized Influence (Behavioral) dimension. According to Lyles, these principals exhibited transformational leadership most of the time and rarely, exhibited transactional leadership. Furthermore, Lyles concluded that BRS principals' transformational leadership style promoted school-wide professional development, communicated shared goals, provided teachers with instructional feedback for improvement, and ensured instructional-practices' alignment with the district's curriculum.

While Lyles (2009) demonstrated a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and student achievement in high performing BRS, Dale (2009) generated different results in his quantitative study. He employed a non-experimental causal research design to examine the influences of instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and the mediating effects of teacher self-efficacy on third through fifth grade students' math achievement on the Maryland School Assessment (MSA). Based on the aggregated MSA data, Dale (2009) indicated that there was a significant and positive direct influence from instructional leadership and teacher self-efficacy on students' math scores. There was also a significantly negative influence of transformational leadership on students' math scores. While the disaggregated data for both instructional and transformational leadership were inconsistent, Dale's rationalization for the negative results for transformational leadership was based on a new shift in communication between administrators and teachers. He argued that instructional leadership provided more direct explanations to teachers regarding content selection and teaching pedagogies, and while transformational leadership inspired the leadership potentials of his/her followers, instructional leadership (in the context of the new culture shift in education) increased teachers' dependency on leaders.

Unlike in Dale's (2009) study, Ibarra (2008) also utilized Bass and Avolio's (1990) MLQ 5x-short to identify the common leadership behaviors and change practices of successful school principals within the context of program improvement (PI). Utilizing a mixed-method research design, Ibarra's study focused on PI school principals and non-PI school principals' leadership behaviors in California Public Schools. Ibarra concluded that regardless of principals' PI-status, California Title I public school principals tended to engage in transformational behaviors as well as the transactional behavior of contingent reward more than principals in other states. Findings also suggested significant differences among principals in varying years of experience. For instance, PI principals in year two and year five engaged in similar numbers of transactional and transformational behaviors, while principals with more years of experience, tended to utilize the transactional behavior of contingent reward and were more content with their leadership style in comparison to principals with only 2 years of experience.

Ibarra (2008) further concluded that PI principals focused on extrinsic-initiatives (e.g., curriculum, assessment, interventions and resources) while exited non-PI principals focused on intrinsic initiatives (e.g., changing individuals' ideals and beliefs, monitoring and evaluating, and providing individual consideration), which ultimately resulted in second-order change (e.g., transforming the basic underlying assumption of their teaching staff). According to Ibarra, findings supported the original premise of the study, which suggested that "transforming school culture is equivalent to changing the basic underlying assumptions" (p. 82).

In analyzing these studies, it was apparent that school principals' leadership styles significantly impacted the variables investigated. However, the results were inconsistent regarding the impact of transformational leadership style on student achievement. While Le Clear (2005) and Lyles (2009) documented transformational leadership as having a significantly positive influence on school culture, student achievement and program improvement, Dale (2009) reported opposite results for transformational leadership style's

influence on student achievement. As previously mentioned, his results indicted a significantly negative impact. Due to these inconsistencies regarding the influence of transformational leadership and the limited evidence of this leadership styles' influence on school culture, this study further established the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and school culture. Furthermore, it contributed to the clarification of these leadership styles' influences, particularly in context of school culture.

<div align="center">The School's Learning Environment</div>
<div align="center">School Culture</div>

A school culture can be either positive or negative; however, every school has a culture that has been established by the school's community over an extended period of time (Dufour & Burnette, 2002; Peterson, 2002). Peterson (2002) and other experts assert that a school culture is defined by "unwritten rules" that have been collectively created by shared values, norms, beliefs, traditions, symbols, and stories, which give the school its identity (Barth, 2002; Deal, as cited in Valentine, 2006). The school culture dictates the actions, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals within the context of the organization and determines the magnitude of interpersonal relationships and interactions (Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Robbins & Harvey, 2004).

These experts further asserted that a positive school culture is one in which both students and teachers thrive in achievement; where continuous learning occurs among students and staff, and where staff takes ownership in students' learning and academic achievement. It is a culture, where collegial relationships flourish through shared ideas, story-telling, team-planning and collective decision-making and where professional development is supported, valued, and reinforced by the school (Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Mowday et al., 1982; Peterson, 2002; Robbins & Harvey 2004). On the other hand, Peterson (2002) expounded that a negative school culture portrays opposite characteristics of a positive culture: He asserted that "it is a toxic environment, infested with pessimistic attitudes about learning, student achievement and professional

development; lacks a clear sense of purpose; has norms that reinforce inertia; blames students for their lack of progress; discourages collaboration among staff; and cultivates hostile relations and interactions among staff" (p. 11). Therefore, when schools foster a positive and strong school culture, their impact on student achievement is reflective of their school's culture. This reflection is also seen in student achievement outcomes of schools whose cultures are negative (N. Sellers, personal communication, December, 2001).

Few studies have investigated the importance of school culture and the impact that leadership has on the school's culture. Lucas and Valentine (2002) conducted a mixed-method study to develop an understanding of the relationship among principals' transformational leadership and school culture. They concluded that the principal was the major source for identifying and articulating a vision and providing an appropriate model. The principal was also more influential in promoting teacher collaboration and a unity of purpose within the school culture. Along with Le Clear (2005) and Ibarra's (2008) studies, Lucas and Valentine's (2002) mixed-method study also suggested there is a direct relationship between school principals' leadership and school culture. Based on their review of literature, they further suggested that school principals who exhibited transformational leadership possessed the ability to engage in successful school reform by empowering teachers and promoting a positive school culture that fostered a learning-environment of experimentation and open-communication (Lucas & Valentine, 2002). They contended that these school principals possessed the ability to lead by facilitating rather than directing their staff and possessed the ability to exercise their influence through the shared ideas, values, beliefs, purposes, goals, and structures that were embedded in the school's culture (Hallinger & Heck; Lucas & Valentine, 2002). Furthermore, they claimed that school principals who exhibited transformational leadership understood the significance of school culture and therefore, asserted that when school leaders and aspiring school leaders practiced transformational leadership behaviors, they increased their opportunity to create school cultures that

generate purpose, commitment, and creativity (Bolman & Deal, as cited in Lucas & Valentine, 2000).

School Climate

Experts contended that the school's climate is equally as relevant to the school's daily operations and ultimate success in creating and maintaining standards that promote, foster, and enhance student achievement (Freiberg, 1998; Heck, 2000; Kelly, Thornton & Daugherty, 2005). While some experts refer to the school's climate as the school's personality that makes it uniquely different from any other school (Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Wilmore & Thomas, 2001), other experts argue that the school's climate is the attitude that is reflective of the school's culture, which represents the collective personality of the school (Gruenert, 2008). Clearly, this debate indicates an interrelated link between the two concepts. So, while the school's culture reflects the collective moral system of the school community, it dictates the degree of relations and type of behavior within the school community; thereby, creating the school's unique climate (Gruenert, 2008).

Since the school's climate has been established as an important element in overall function of the organization, some experts sought to develop a greater understanding on this concept of "school climate" by exploring the relationship between the principal's leadership behavior and the school climate. Mendel, Watson, and MacGregor (2002) investigated the relationship between leadership style and school climate by surveying 169 (K-5 grade-level) teachers from 39 randomly selected elementary schools in a Southwest Missouri school district. Their study showed that there was a significant relationship between leadership styles and school climate. Chirichello's (1999) mixed-method study also revealed a relationship between leadership style and school climate. His study examined the characteristics of the preferred leadership styles of principals in New Jersey's elementary Star Schools during the 1993-94 through 1995-96 school years. The study served several purposes: (a) it analyzed and identified characteristics of the preferred leadership styles of principals in selected Star

Schools; (b) described the schools' organizational climates; and (c) examined the relationship between the preferred leadership styles and characteristics of the transformational leadership style, and the relationship between the preferred leadership styles and teachers' perceptions of the organizational climates in their schools.

Furthermore, by utilizing the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Revised Elementary (OCDQ-RE) survey, Chirichello (1999) measured teachers' perceptions of their school climate based on four categories— describing the term, school climate as open, engaged, disengaged, and closed. An *open school climate* was identified as exhibiting cooperation, respect, genuineness, and openness among the faculty and between the faculty and administration; the role of the school principal was supportive and exhibited low directive and restrictive behavior. The *engaged school climate* was identified as exhibiting a high level of interaction among faculty members, demonstrating effectiveness in spite of the principal's ineffective leadership behavior (e.g., non-supportive; non-engaging; highly directive and restrictive). The *disengaged school climate* was the opposite of the engaged climate. Here, the faculty was highly uncommitted (e.g., unproductive, non-supportive, and uncooperative) whereas, the principal was highly committed (e.g., supportive, encouraging, flexible, non-controlling). Lastly, the *closed school climate* was characterized as exhibiting ineffective behavior from both the faculty and administration (e.g., the principal exhibited highly controlling and inflexible behavior; and the faculty exhibited non-cohesive and uncommitted behavior).

The results revealed a relationship between the preferred leadership styles of the six principals and characteristics relating to the transformational leadership style; the preferred leadership styles also exhibited some characteristics relating to transactional and cultural leadership styles. Regarding the outcomes relating to the preferred leadership style of each principal and teachers' perceptions of their schools' climates, Chirichello (1999) revealed that there was some degree of a relationship between the two variables; there was no

evidence of the schools' climates being disengaged or closed. Teachers perceived themselves as more engaged than disengaged.

Chirichello (1999) asserted that the transformational leadership style was highly beneficial in implementing school reforms that work. He contended that transformational leaders have the capacity to foster change by initiating and sustaining paradigm shifts in school governance through means of encouraging instructional leadership; enhancing professional development; fostering faculty cohesiveness; and promoting school community collaboration. Chirichello urged school-district administrators and policy makers to focus on leadership programs and opportunities that will encourage and sustain long term changes in school reforms and create opportunities for teachers and principals to work together. He suggested that colleges and universities structure their educational programs to focus more on collaborative opportunities for teachers and principals. He also suggested that they modify their content materials to increase administrators' knowledge in the areas of the dynamics of leadership, organizational theory and the change process. Such improvements will provide teachers and principals with a better understanding of the role that each person has in the teaching and learning process (Chirichello, 1999).

It is important for school administrators to take proactive measures of improving, enhancing, and sustaining school learning environments that are both positive and nurturing for successful student achievement outcomes. The emphasis that experts placed on the importance of a positive school culture and climate is far too important for school principals to just ignore. When the school learning environment exhibits attributes that are positive, the likelihood of successful school reforms and high student achievement outcomes occurring are far greater than in school learning environments where these attributes are absent. A positive school learning environment not only impacts the school's academic performance but, also improves the overall quality of the school by creating a school environment where teachers want to work and stay for the long haul. In other words, a positive school culture and climate increase teacher morale, performance, and retention, creating a more stable and healthy

environment for effective learning to occur (Freiberg, 1998; Heck, 2000; Kelly, Thornton & Daugherty, 2005).

Summary of Literature Review

This review of related literature included a thorough examination of leadership theories which outlined the organizational leaders' role and illustrated various styles that leaders display in leading subordinates and achieving organizational goals. This researcher reviewed several studies that supported the importance of leadership style in relation to leadership effectiveness within the context of the school. Several studies were highlighted in support of this dissertation as they pertained to the correlation between leadership style and the school learning environment, particularly the school culture. Researchers found a direct association between the school principal's leadership style and the school learning environment as perceived by teachers. Certain leadership styles, as perceived by teachers, had a statistically significant and positive impact on the school's climate and culture. Such a positive impact resulted in a school community of cohesiveness, shared learning, and student achievement. As implied by these studies, this researcher's purpose was to determine if a relationship existed between leadership style and school culture in the specific population of interest.

Chapter III

Methodology

In this chapter, five sections are outlined in detail. These sections include the research design, participants, instrumentation, data collection, and the data analysis procedures.

Research Design

This quantitative study utilized a cross-sectional correlational-research design to investigate the relationship between school principals' leadership styles (independent variables) and school culture (dependent variable) as perceived by teachers. Creswell (2009) compared a cross-sectional design to a snapshot in time because data-collection occurs at one point in time and during a relatively short period (Robinson, 2010, p. 40). A correlational design was employed to determine a possible relationship between variables (Robinson, 2010; Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 2000; Slavin, 2007). To implement this research design, two survey instruments were used to gather teachers' perceptions of their school principal's leadership style and their school's culture. These instruments included the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5x short (Bass & Avolio, 1990), which was used to measure teachers' perceptions of their school principal's leadership style, and the School Culture Survey (SCS) (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998), which was employed to measure teachers' perceptions of their existing school culture. This research approach helped to provide answers to the research questions and to establish the null hypotheses of the study (Mertler, 2009).

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?
2. Is there a relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?

3. Is there a relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers?

Research Null Hypotheses

1. There is no significant relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

2. There is no significant relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

3. There is no significant relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers.

Sample Population

This study was approved by the Institution Review Board (see Appendix M). It was conducted under the auspices of each participating Maryland school district (see Appendices I, J & K) and permission was obtained from each participating school principal.

Sampling Method/Procedures

In order to select teacher-participants for this study, this researcher applied a systematic random cluster sampling technique, consisting of a three-stage process. This sampling technique was selected because the total population of the study was too large to conduct a simple random sampling technique, which would have been too costly. Therefore, it was necessary to divide the total population into smaller areas so that a representative sample of the total population could be drawn (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003; Castillo, 2009; Khan, 1998).

The first stage of the technique consisted of arranging Maryland's 24 School Districts into units according to geographical locations (e.g., urban, suburban, and rural). This composition was the most effective way to list all school districts comprising the total population and randomly select a sample-

size for the study, which included three school districts (one school district per geographical area). As school districts declined to participate, the process was repeated. This process extended from September 2010 until February 2011 and was extremely time-consuming. After several extended months, three selected school districts agreed to participate. The school districts were labeled in the following manner to protect their identities: SD1u, SD2r, and SD3s.

The second stage of the process consisted of randomly selecting three schools per school district, consisting of a school per grade-level (e.g., elementary, middle and high school). Schools were arranged alphabetically and identified numerically for each grade-level. Each school assigned the number five was selected for this study. Regrettably, seven principals declined to participate because teachers were being required to complete the state's school climate survey and asking them to participant in an additional survey would cause teachers discomfort. The random-selection process for schools' participation was repeated and permission for the school's participation had to be granted by the appropriate selected school district. Moreover, nine school principals officially agreed to participate from three elementary schools, three middle schools, and three high schools. To protect the identity of these schools, they were labeled in the following manner for this study: ElemS1u, ElemS2r, ElemS3s, MS1u, MS2r, MS3s, and HS1u, HS2r, and HS3s. However, despite many efforts and the principal's definitive confirmation of participation, there was no representation of teacher-participation from the school labeled as MS3s upon the deactivation of the online survey and collection of data. Time constraints prohibited the replacement of this school.

In the last stage of the selection process, teachers meeting the criteria of 3 years of teaching experience and working experience with their current principal were selected to complete the online-surveys for this study. Avolio (as cited in Robinson, 2010) asserted, "Building trust takes time… Depending on the culture and size of the organization, one can expect the changeover process to take from 3-5 years" (p. 42). In the demographic section of the online-survey, teachers were asked to reveal their years of teaching-experience and working-

experience with their current principal.   Responses that did not meet the specified requirements for participation were excluded from the collected data. As such, 217 teachers were surveyed for this study. However, the overall return rate from teacher-participation was 37% ($N = 81$). However, only 32% ($N = 70$) of the teachers sampled met the qualifications for participation in this study, which included at least 3 years of teaching experience and working experience with their school principal.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Two instruments were used to conduct this study. These instruments included the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5x short (see Appendix G) as constructed by Bass and Avolio (2004) and the School Culture Survey (SCS) as constructed by Gruenert and Valentine (1998). The MLQ (5x short), which is the most commonly employed measure of leadership among diverse populations (Bass & Avolio, 2004), consists of a 45 item questionnaire on a five point Likert scale from zero (not at all) to four (frequently, if not always). The instrument evaluates leadership styles from laissez-faire leaders to transactional/transformational leaders based on 12 constructs. Transactional leadership is operationalized by contingent reward, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive). Transformational leadership is operationalized by idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The Outcomes of leadership are operationalized by extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. The Cronbach's alpha for the instrument ranges from .74 to .94 (Bass & Avolio, as cited in Roth, 2003; Northouse, 2010). Permission to use and administer the MLQ was obtained from Mind Garden, Incorporated.

The SCS, which is a commonly used measure of school culture (Gawerecki, 2003; Gruenert, 1998; Lucas, 2001; Maher, 2000; Miles, 2002), consists of 35 questions on a five point Likert scale, from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). The instrument measures six constructs of school culture. These constructs consist of: *collaborative leadership−* the degree to

which the school leader fosters a collaborative relationship with teachers; *teacher collaboration*− the degree to which teachers participate in constructive dialogue to enhance the vision of the school; *professional development* −the degree to which teachers value professional development opportunities; *unity of purpose*− the degree to which teachers work toward the school's mission; *collegial support* −the degree to which teachers work cooperatively and effectively together; and *learning partnership*− the degree to which teachers, parents, and students work together for the overall good of the student . Collectively, the Cronbach's alpha for the six constructs range from .66 to .91(Valentine, 2010). Permission to use and administer the SCS was obtained from The Middle Level Leadership Center.

Data Collection/Procedures

Upon the approval of each school district's participation (see Appendices I, J, & K) and the Institutional Review Board (see Appendix M), the following steps were taken to collect data for this study and to acquire the desired response-rate of at least 50% from teacher-participants.

A face-to-face meeting was held with each school principal prior to conducting the study. This initial meeting with each school principal provided the opportunity to share the research study and procedures for administering the online survey; to obtain each principal's support and consent to participate; and to establish the role that this researcher had in collaborating with each school principal via telephone or email follow-ups, which were conducted to obtain the desired response-rate of at least 50% participation.

Following the initial meeting with each school principal, teacher-participants completed the leadership and school culture assessment surveys online through the utilization of surveymonkey.com. An introduction of the research study; contact information for inquires; and the consent form to participate were provided to teachers. This information was read and signed by teachers prior to accessing the actual surveys. Surveys were made available to participants from Monday, June 6, 2011 until Monday, June 20, 2011. Approximately 2 weeks were allotted for teachers to complete the online surveys.

To encourage teachers' participation and support, several email-notification reminders emphasizing the purpose of the research and the need for teachers' participation were sent to school principals.

Despite this researcher's follow-up with principals via email and telephone, which have been determined to increase the response-rate by 25% (Sheehan & Hoy, as cited in Sheehan, 2001), the overall return rate for this study was 37% ($N = 81$). However, only 32% ($N = 70$) of participants met the qualifications for participation in this study, which included at least 3 years of teaching experience and working experience with their school principal. The remaining 5% ($N = 11$) of the responses were not used in the analysis. The usable 32% return rate was less than the 50% return-rate anticipated. However, this outcome was partially due to the non-representation of school MS3s. Additionally, due to time constraints, the data collection for this study was scheduled only weeks prior to the end of the school year and shortly after teachers were required to complete the state's survey on school climate. According to Groves, Cialdini, and Couper (1992), "the US population is being over-surveyed: the growth in the amount of survey research being undertaken has resulted in an increase in the number of requests to individuals to complete surveys. This may lower response-rates…" (as cited in Sheehan, 2001, p. 3). On average, response rates to email surveys range from 31% to 46% (Sheehan, 2001). Therefore, the 32% response rate from this study fell within the average-range for an email survey. Collectively, an adequate number of participants per geographical area and school level was achieved to investigate principals' leadership styles based on the MLQ 5x-short. According to Bass and Avolio (2004), "except for a minimum of three raters, no specific optimal size for the rater group can be suggested for evaluating a single leader" (p. 12).

After the online surveys' expiration date, this researcher submitted a thank you letter to each participating school principal and requested that principals share this expression of gratitude with their teachers. Afterward, the collected data were organized for the data analysis process.

Data Analysis

The data from this quantitative study were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 for Windows and examined for skewness and kurtosis. Outliers were removed prior to the data analysis process. Descriptive statistics were conducted on demographic data and frequencies and percentages were calculated on continuous (interval/ratio) data.

The research questions were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to determine the relationship between the independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) and the dependent variable (school culture). A multiple linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the effects that the independent variables had on the dependent variable (Calmorin, 1997; Slavin, 2007).

For research question 1, a Pearson correlation was used to determine if there was a relationship between the independent variable, transformational leadership [as measured by the Idealized Influence (Attributed), Idealized Influence (Behavior), Inspirational motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration subscales) and the dependent variable, school culture (as measured by the Collaborative Leadership, Teacher Collaboration, Professional Development, Unity of Purpose, Collegial Support, and Learning Partnership subscales] as perceived by teachers. A multiple linear regression model was employed to evaluate the effects of transformational leadership on school culture. Separate multiple linear regression models were examined for each school culture factor.

For research question 2, a Pearson correlation was used to determine if there was a relationship between the independent variable, transactional leadership [as measured by the Contingent Reward, manage-by-exception (active), and manage-by-exception (passive) subscales] and the dependent variable, school culture (see Table 3 for subscales) as perceived by teachers. A multiple linear regression model was employed to evaluate the effects of

transactional leadership on school culture. Separate multiple linear regression models were also ran for each school culture factor.

Lastly, for research question 3, a Pearson correlation was used to determine if there is a relationship between the independent variable, laissez-faire leadership (as measured by the Laissez-faire Leadership subscale) and the dependent variable, school culture (see Table 3 for subscales) as perceived by teachers. A multiple linear regression model was employed to evaluate the effects of laissez-faire leadership on school culture. Similarly, separate multiple linear regression models were ran for each school culture factor (Calmorin, 1997; Slavin, 2007).

Table 2

Subscales in the MLQ

Factor	Measured by item	
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	10, 18, 21, 25	Transformational
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	6, 14, 23, 34	Transformational
Inspirational Motivation	9, 13, 26, 36	Transformational
Intellectual Stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32	Transformational
Individual Consideration	15, 19, 29, 31	Transformational
Contingent Reward	1, 11, 16, 35	Transactional
Manage-by-Exception (Active)	4, 22, 24, 27	Transactional
Manage-by-Exception (Passive)	3, 12, 17, 20	Transactional
Laissez-faire Leadership	5, 7, 28, 33	Laissez-faire
Extra Effort	39, 42, 44	Leadership Outcomes
Effectiveness	37, 40, 43, 45	Leadership Outcomes
Satisfaction	38, 41	Leadership Outcomes

Table 3

Subscales in the SCS

Factor	Measured by item
Collaborative Leadership	2, 7, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 26, 28, 32, 34
Teacher collaboration	3, 8, 15, 23, 29, 33
Professional development	1, 9, 16, 24, 30
Unity of Purpose	5, 12, 19, 27, 31
Collegial support	4, 10, 17, 25
Learning partnership	6, 13, 21, 35

Summary of Methodology

This chapter presented the methods that were used in this study. The researcher described the type of research and research design used for the study and provided an explanation for the selected design in the context of the study. A detailed description of the survey instruments was provided along with their Cronbach's Alpha range. This section also included a description of the participants and delineated the data collection and analysis processes. The next chapter presents the research findings.

Chapter IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school principals' leadership styles (e.g., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership) and school culture (e.g., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, collegial support, unity of purpose, and learning partnership) as perceived by K-12 grade-teachers in Maryland Public Schools. In this chapter, the findings from the study are presented. The chapter includes a descriptive report on the population, response rate, participants' gender, participants' years of teaching experience and working experience with their school principal, and participants' ratings of their school principal's leadership style and school culture. It also includes the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analyses of researcher questions 1-3 and a summary of the chapter.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4 includes the frequency and percentages of the results based on the response rate of participants per school district. The results indicated that out of the total number of participants ($N = 70$), 44.3% of the teacher-participants represented school district SD1u. This percentage reflected the highest percentage of teacher-participation. The second highest percentage of teacher-participation was represented by school district SD3s, which portrayed a response-rate of 42.9%. School District, SD2r had the lowest response-rate of teacher-participation as indicated by 12.9%.

Table 4

Response Rate of Participants per School District

School District	Frequency	Percentage
SD1u	31	44.3
SD2r	9	12.9
SD3s	30	42.9
Total	70	100

In Table 5, the frequency and percentage of the results based on the response-rate of participants per school are shown. The results indicated that out of the total number of participants $N = 70$, school, ElemS3s had the highest response-rate of participants as indicated by 34.3%. The second highest response-rate of participants was shown by school HS1u as indicated by 21.4%.

Table 5

Response Rate of Participants per School

School	Frequency	Percentage
ElemS1u	6	8.6
ElemS2r	1	1.4
ElemS3s	24	34.3
MS1u	10	14.3
MS2r	7	10.0
HS1u	15	21.4
HS2r	1	1.4
HS3s	6	8.6
Total	70	100

A descriptive analysis was conducted to show the frequency and percentage of the results based on the collective response-rate of participants per school level (see Table 6). The results indicated that out of the total number of participants ($N = 70$), 44.3% of the response-rate of participants was from the elementary school level, reflecting the highest percentage in the response-rate among the school levels.

Table 6

Collective Response Rate of Participants per School Level

School Level	Frequency	Percentage
Elementary School Level	31	44.3
Middle School Level	17	24.3
High School Level	22	31.4
Total	70	100

Participants' Gender

Table 7 shows the frequency and percentage of the results based on the participants' gender. The results indicated that out of the total number of participants $N = 70$, 81.4% represented female teachers, totaling $N = 57$. The other 18.6% represented male teachers, totaling $N = 13$.

Table 7

Gender of Participants

Participants	Frequency	Percent
Female	57	81.4
Male	13	18.6
Total	70	100

Participants' Years of Teaching Experience and Working Experience with Their School Principal

Table 8 also shows the descriptive analysis describing participants' years of teaching experience and working experience with their school principal. These variables were examined by identifying the number (*N*), range, mean (*M*), and standard deviation (*SD*). The range in participants' years of teaching experience was 31 and the range for participants' working experience with their school principal was 16. The mean score for participants' years of teaching experience was 11.04. The standard deviation was 6.38. Additionally, the mean score for participants' years of working experience with their school principal was 6.03. The standard deviation was 3.19. The distribution of both variables was positively skewed. Calmorin (1997) defined skewness as "the asymmetrical

distribution of a set of data in a scale with respect to its arithmetic mean" (p. 106). Gall, Borg, and Gall (as cited in Dale, 2009) described skewness as "a set of scores that form a nonsymmetrical curve when plotted on a frequency graph" (p. 81). The kurtosis of the distribution was normal, creating a mesokurtosis, which refers to the distribution as neither very peaked (leptokurtic) nor very flat-topped (platykurtic) (Asaad & Hailaya, 2001). Calmorin asserted, "For a normal distribution, the value of the kurtosis is 3; for a flat-topped curve, the value is less than 3; and for a pointed curve, the value is greater than 3" (p. 115).

Table 8

Participants' Years of Teaching Experience & Working Experience with School Principal

Variables	N	Range	M	SD	Skew	Kurtosis
Years of Teaching Experience	70	3.00 to 34.00	11.04	6.38	1.43	2.96
Years of Working Experience with Principal	70	3.00 to 19.00	6.03	3.19	1.57	3.06

Teachers' Ratings of Their School Principal's Leadership Style and School Culture

Descriptive analyses were conducted to detail how teachers rated their school principal's leadership style and school culture. To investigate teachers' perception of their school principal's leadership style, the MLQ-5x short (Bass & Avolio, 2004) was utilized to enable teachers to rate their school principal's leadership style as exhibiting a transformational, transactional or laissez-faire leadership style. A reliability analysis of this 45-item instrument determined that its Cronbach's alpha was .94. The Cronbach's alpha for each individual factor of leadership is listed in Table 9. The alphas for these measures ranged from .63 to .94

Based on a five point Likert scale, consisting of 45 items, teachers rated their school principal's leadership style in the following manner: 0 = *Not at all*, 1 = *Once in a while*, 2 = *Sometimes*, 3 = *Fairly often*, and 4 = *Frequently, if not always* (see Appendix G). The results from this descriptive analysis, which

entailed computing the mean and standard deviation for each factor (see Table 6), revealed that collectively, the mean scores were between 2.75 (highest) and 0.82 (lowest) and the standard deviation scores were between 1.47 (highest) and 1.17 (lowest). Among the factors, inspirational motivation (transformational leadership) had the highest mean score of 2.75 and laissez-faire leadership had the lowest mean score of 0.82. Laissez-faire leadership also had the lowest standard deviation score of 1.17, indicating the smallest variation among responses.

For transformational leadership, the factor of inspirational motivation had the highest mean score of 1.47 and a standard deviation of 1.30. This mean score indicated that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* articulating shared goals and motivating them to achieve those goals. The factor of idealized influence behavior had the second highest mean score of 2.69 and a standard deviation of 1.30 as well. Likewise, this mean score suggested that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* exhibiting integrity. Teachers felt that their school principal considered the moral and ethical consequences of his/her actions when making decisions, and he/she focused on establishing a shared vision and mission among followers. The factor of Idealized influence attributed had a mean score of 2.56 and a standard deviation of 1.33. This mean score also indicated that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* building trust in followers, empowering them and oftentimes, placing the group's interest beyond his/her own individual interest. The factor of intellectual stimulation had a mean score of 2.38 and a standard deviation of 1.26. This mean score showed that teachers perceived their school principal as *sometimes* encouraging innovative thinking by motivating teachers to question their own beliefs, assumptions, and values and helping them to address old problems with new methods. Lastly, the factor of individual consideration had a mean score of 2.20, which was the lowest among the transformational leadership factors. However, this mean score also reflected that teachers perceived their school principal as *sometimes* coaching and supporting followers, and encouraging them to develop into their fullest-potential. This factor's

standard deviation was 1.31. Likewise, reflecting a modest variation in teachers' responses.

For transactional leadership, the factor of contingent reward had a mean score of 2.67 and a standard deviation of 1.22. This mean score was highest among the transactional leadership factors. Collectively, it ranked third among the factors. This mean score suggested that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* demonstrating a reward-exchange practice, in which followers were rewarded in acknowledgement of their efforts and job-performances. The factor of manage by exception (active) had a mean score of 1.61 and a standard deviation of 1.24. This mean score indicated that teachers perceived their school principal as *sometimes* monitoring mistakes or deviations from the normal standards, practices, and procedures, maintaining records of employees' mistakes, and taking prompt actions to correct errors. Lastly, the factor of manage by exception (passive) had a mean score of 1.41 and a standard deviation of 1.31. Collectively, this mean score was the second lowest among the factors. It revealed that teachers perceived their school principal as *once in a while* waiting to correct problems or waiting for problems to become severe before addressing them.

The laissez-faire leadership factor had a mean score of 0.82 and a standard deviation of 1.17. As previously mentioned, this factor had the lowest mean score and standard deviation among the factors. This mean score indicated that teachers perceived their school principal as *never* exhibiting a complete lack of leadership in their respective schools.

Finally, for *outcomes of leadership,* the factor of extra effort had a mean score of 2.33 and a standard deviation of 1.47, which was the highest among the factors but, still indicated a modest variation in responses. This mean score reflected that teachers perceived their school principal as *sometimes* generating extra effort in followers to strive beyond their average performance. The factor of effectiveness had a mean score of 2.61, which collectively was the fourth highest mean score. This mean score suggested that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* being efficient in meeting organizational objectives,

handling higher organizational authority, and satisfying the professional needs of followers. This factor's standard deviation was 1.27, which reflected a modest variation in responses. Lastly, the factor of satisfaction had a mean score of 2.67, which collectively was the third highest mean score. This mean score denoted that teachers perceived their school principal as *fairly often* being warm, nurturing, open, and authentic, and generating interpersonal satisfaction in followers. This factor's standard deviation was 1.29, likewise reflecting a modest variation in responses.

Table 9

MLQ (5x) Short Descriptive Analysis by Factors

Factors	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Item N
Transformational Leadership				
Idealized Influence Attributed	2.56	1.33	.91	4
Idealized Influence Behavior	2.69	1.30	.84	4
Inspirational Motivation	2.75	1.30	.94	4
Intellectual Stimulation	2.38	1.26	.89	4
Individual Consideration	2.20	1.31	.85	4
Transactional Leadership				
Contingent Reward	2.67	1.22	.88	4
Manage by Exception (Active)	1.61	1.24	.63	4
Manage by Exception (Passive)	1.41	1.31	.75	4
Laissez-faire Leadership	0.82	1.17	.81	4
Outcomes of Leadership				
Extra Effort	2.33	1.47	.90	3
Effectiveness	2.61	1.27	.94	4
Satisfaction	2.67	1.29	.88	2

To investigate teachers' perception of their school culture, the SCS (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998) was utilized to enable teachers to rate their school culture as measured by collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership. A reliability analysis of this 35-item instrument determined that its

Cronbach's alpha was .95. The Cronbach's alpha for each individual factor of school culture has been listed in Table 10. The alphas for these measures ranged from .72 to .96, which indicated adequate internal consistency.

Based on a five point Likert scale, consisting of 35 items, teachers rated their school culture in the following manner: 1 = *Strongly disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Undecided*, 4 = *Agree*, and 5 = *Strongly agree* (see Appendix D). The results from this descriptive analysis, which entailed computing the mean and standard deviation for each factor (see Table 7), revealed that collectively the mean scores were between 3.96 (highest) and 2.18 (lowest) and the standard deviation scores were between 1.07 (highest) and 0.73 (lowest). Among the factors, professional development had the highest mean score of 3.96 and teacher collaboration had the lowest mean score of 2.18; it also had the highest standard deviation score of 1.07, which still reflected a modest variation in responses.

The factor of collaborative leadership had a mean score of 3.68 and a standard deviation of 1.06, which reflected a modest variation in teachers' responses. This mean score indicated that teachers perceived their school culture as being led by collaborative leadership, in which their school principal established, maintained and supported collaborative relationships within their school. They *agreed* that their school principal valued teachers' ideas, sought feedback, and engaged teachers' in the school's decision-making process. The factor of teacher collaboration had the lowest mean score of 2.18 and a standard deviation of 1.07, which also indicated a modest variation in teachers' responses. This mean score inferred that teachers perceived their school culture as being void of teacher engagement and interaction. Teachers *disagreed* that their school culture engaged them in constructive dialogue and collaborative planning to further the school's vision. The factor of professional development had a mean score of 3.96, which was the highest and a standard deviation of 0.84, which represented a small variation in teachers' responses. This mean score signified that teachers perceived their school culture as one, where teachers valued continuous growth and development and school-wide improvement. Teachers *agreed* that they sought ideas from seminars, colleagues,

organizations, and other professional sources to stay abreast of information and maintain current knowledge on instructional practices. The factor of unity of purpose had a mean score of 3.86 and a standard deviation of 0.95, which also reflected a small variation in responses. This mean score implied that teachers perceived their school culture as one in which teachers worked toward a common mission. Teachers *agreed* that they understood, supported, and performed in accordance with the school's mission. The factor of collegial support had a mean score of 3.94, which was the second highest and a standard deviation of 0.73, which also illustrated a small variation in teachers' responses. This mean score symbolized that teachers perceived their school culture as one in which teachers worked together cooperatively and effectively. Teachers *agreed* that they trusted each other, shared ideas with one another, and helped each other in achieving school tasks. Lastly, the factor of learning partnership had a mean score of 2.64, which was the second lowest and a standard deviation of 1.02, which reflected a modest variation in responses. This mean score denoted that teachers perceived their school culture neutrally, as being one in which teachers, parents, and students worked together for the benefit of students. Teachers were *undecided* on whether or not they shared common expectations and frequently communicated student-performance with parents. They were also *undecided* on whether or not students accepted responsibility for their own education.

Table 10

SCS Descriptive Analysis by Factors

Factors	Mean	*SD*	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Item *N*
Collaborative Leadership	3.68	1.06	.96	11
Teacher Collaboration	2.18	1.07	.85	6
Professional Development	3.96	0.84	.86	5
Unity of Purpose	3.86	0.95	.92	5
Collegial Support	3.94	0.73	.72	4
Learning Partnership	2.64	1.02	.80	4

Correlational Statistics

Two-tailed Pearson product-moment correlations (*r*) were used to investigate the relationship between the independent variables (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) and the dependent variable (school culture) as perceived by teachers. Correlational analyses were also conducted to investigate the relationship between each leadership style and the outcome measures of leadership and between the outcome measures of leadership and school culture. Two-tailed correlations were employed to determine the directional relationship between the variables. Correlations can range from -1 to +1. For this study, a negative correlation indicated that as scores of teachers' perception of their school principal's leadership style increased or decreased, scores of teachers' perception of their school culture adversely decrease or increased, depicting an inverse relationship. In contrast, a positive correlation indicated that as scores of teachers' perception of their school principal's leadership style increased or decreased, scores of teachers' perception of their school culture similarly increased or decreased, depicting a direct relationship and graphically, a positive slope (Salkind, 2008). These correlations were interpreted in the following manner: 0 to .2 indicates no relationship or a very weak relationship, .2 to .4 indicates a weak relationship, .4 to .6 indicates a moderate relationship, .6 to .8 indicates a strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 indicates a very strong relationship (Salkind, 2008, p. 85), and determined to be significant at *p* ≤ .01 level.

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers

The results from the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (two-tailed) analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between transformational leadership and school culture as perceived by teachers (see Table 11). The five factors of transformational leadership displayed a positive significant correlation with the six factors of school culture.

Overall, these correlations were between $r = .438$ (weak relationship) and r = .855 (very strong relationship).

The transformational leadership factor of idealized influence attributed indicated a positive very strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .833$). It had a positive strong relationship with teacher collaboration ($r = .687$) and unity of purpose ($r = .676$). It also revealed a positive moderate relationship with professional development ($r = .572$), collegial support ($r = .516$) and learning partnership ($r = .496$). These relationships were significant at the .01 level. The factor of idealized influence behavior had a positive strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .778$) and unity of purpose ($r = .740$). It had a positive moderate relationship with teacher collaboration ($r = .632$), professional development ($r = .611$) and collegial support ($r = .514$). It also showed a positive weak relationship with learning partnership ($r = .438$). These relationships were also significant at the .01 level. The factor of inspirational motivation exhibited a positive strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .776$) and unity of purpose ($r = .719$). It had a positive moderate relationship with teacher collaboration ($r = .605$), professional development ($r = .565$), collegial support ($r = .547$) and learning partnership ($r = .488$). Additionally, these relationships were significant at the .01 level. The factor of intellectual stimulation illustrated a positive very strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .855$); and a positive strong relationship with unity of purpose ($r = .735$) and teacher collaboration ($r = .705$). It also had a positive moderate relationship with professional development ($r = .597$), collegial support ($r = .576$), and learning partnership ($r = .543$). These relationships were also significant at the .01 level. Lastly, the factor of individual consideration revealed a positive strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .782$); and a positive moderate relationship with unity of purpose ($r = .625$), teacher collaboration ($r = .607$), professional development ($r = .498$) and collegial support ($r = .477$). It also had a positive weak relationship with learning partnership ($r = .444$). Likewise, these relationships were also significant at the .01 level (see Table 8).

Among the transformational leadership factors, idealized influence attributed ($r = .833$) and intellectual stimulation ($r = .855$) demonstrated a positive and very strong relationship with collaborative leadership. Intellectual stimulation had the strongest relationship among the two factors. These two factors also displayed a positive strong relationship with teacher collaboration ($r = .687$) and ($r = .705$) with intellectual stimulation ($r = .705$) displaying the strongest relationship among the two factors. Four of the five transformational leadership factors, which included idealized influence attributed ($r = .676$), idealized influence behavior ($r = .740$), inspirational motivation ($r = .719$), and intellectual stimulation ($r = .735$), had a positive strong relationship with unity of purpose; idealized influence behavior displayed the strongest relationship among these factors (see Table 11).

Table 11

Correlational Matrix for Transformational Leadership and School Culture

| | Transformational Leadership | | | | |
	Idealized Influence Attributed *(N = 70)*	Idealized Influence Behavior *(N = 70)*	Inspirational Motivation *(N = 70)*	Intellectual Stimulation *(N = 70)*	Individual Consideration *(N = 70)*
School Culture Subscales Collaborative Leadership *(N = 70)*	.833**	.778**	.776**	.855**	.782**
Teacher Collaboration *(N = 70)*	.687**	.632**	.605**	.705**	.607**
Professional Development *(N = 70)*	.572**	.611**	.565**	.597**	.498**
Unity of Purpose *(N = 70)*	.676**	.740**	.719**	.735**	.625**
Collegial Support *(N = 70)*	.516**	.514**	.547**	.576**	.477**
Learning Partnership *(N = 70)*	.496**	.438**	.488**	.543**	.444**

Note. ** $p \leq .01$. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationship between the transformational leadership factors and the outcomes of leadership factors (see Table 12). These results revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between the five transformational leadership factors and the outcomes of leadership factors.

Overall, these correlations were between $r = .713$ and $r = .799$, which indicated a positive strong relationship or very strong relationship between the factors.

The transformational leadership factor of idealized influence attributed showed the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, satisfaction ($r = .798$), followed by extra effort ($r = .779$) and effectiveness ($r = .768$). These relationships were significant at the .01 level. The factor of idealized influence behavior displayed the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, effectiveness ($r = .789$), followed by satisfaction ($r = .784$) and extra effort ($r = .713$). The relationships were also significant at the .01 level. The factor inspirational motivation had the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, satisfaction ($r = .771$), followed by effectiveness ($r = .751$) and extra effort ($r = .709$). Likewise, these relationships were significant at the .01 level. The factor of intellectual stimulation portrayed the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, satisfaction ($r = .773$), followed by effectiveness ($r = .757$) and extra effort ($r = .719$). These relationships were also significant at the .01 level. Lastly, the factor of individual consideration revealed the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, extra effort ($r = .799$), followed by satisfaction ($r = .783$) and effectiveness ($r = .777$). Similarly, these relationships were significant at the .01 level.

Among the five transformational leadership factors, idealized influence attributed ($r = .798$), intellectual stimulation ($r = .773$), and inspirational motivation ($r = .771$) had the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, satisfaction; two of the transformational leadership factors, idealized influence attributed ($r = .779$) and individual consideration ($r = .799$) had the strongest relationship with the outcomes of leadership factor, extra effort (see Table 12).

Table 12

Correlational Matrix for Transformational Leadership and Outcomes of Leadership

| | Transformational Leadership | | | | |
	Idealized Influence Attributed *(N = 70)*	Idealized Influence Behavior *(N = 70)*	Inspirational Motivation *(N = 70)*	Intellectual Stimulation *(N = 70)*	Individual Consideration *(N = 70)*
Outcomes of Leadership Extra Effort *(N = 70)*	.779**	.713**	.709**	.719**	.799**
Effectiveness *(N = 70)*	.768**	.789**	.751**	.757**	.777**
Satisfaction *(N = 70)*	.798**	.784**	.771**	.773**	.783**

Note. ** $p \leq .01$. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

The Relationship between Transactional Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers

The results from the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (two-tailed) analysis revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between the transactional leadership factor of contingent reward and school culture as perceived by teachers. There was no relationship between the transactional leadership factor of management by exception (active) and school culture as perceived by teachers. Lastly, there was a negative significant relationship between the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception (passive) and school culture as perceived by teachers (see Table 13).

The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward had a positive very strong relationship with collaborative leadership ($r = .812$). It had a positive strong relationship with unity of purpose ($r = .729$); and a positive moderate relationship with professional development ($r = .619$), teacher collaboration

(r = .607), collegial support (r = .537) and learning partnership (r = .508). These relationships were significant at the .01 level. Manage by exception (active) showed *no* relationship with any of the school culture factors. Manage by exception (passive) illustrated a negative moderate relationship with the six school culture factors, collaborative leadership (r = -.633), teacher collaboration (r = -.613), unity of purpose (r = -.594), learning partnership (r = -.579), professional development (r = -.502), and collegial support (r = .482). These relationships were also significant at the .01 level (see Table 13).

Table 13

Correlational Matrix for Transactional Leadership and School Culture

	Transactional Leadership		
	Contingent Reward *(N = 70)*	Manage by Exception (Active) *(N = 70)*	Manage by Exception (Passive) *(N = 70)*
School Culture Subscales Collaborative Leadership *(N = 70)*	.812**	.020	-.633**
Teacher Collaboration *(N = 70)*	.607**	.031	-.613**
Professional Development *(N = 70)*	.619**	-.039	-.502**
Unity of Purpose *(N = 70)*	.729**	.018	-.594**
Collegial Support *(N = 70)*	.537**	.037	-.482**
Learning Partnership *(N = 70)*	.508**	-.059	-.579**

Note. ** $p \leq .01$. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

Table 14 shows the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the relationship between the transactional leadership factors and the outcomes of leadership factors. There was a positive significant relationship between the transactional leadership factor of contingent reward and the outcomes of leadership factors including satisfaction ($r = .861$), effectiveness ($r = .827$), and extra effort ($r = .820$). Additionally, there was a weak, positive non-significant

relationship between the transactional leadership factor of management by exception (active) and the outcomes of leadership factors, extra effort ($r = .164$), satisfaction ($r = .155$), and effectiveness ($r = .144$. Lastly, there was a negative significant moderate relationship between the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception (passive) and extra effort ($r = -.532$), satisfaction ($r = -.525$), and effectiveness ($r = -.460$). These relationships were also significant at the .01 level.

Table 14

Correlational Matrix for Transactional Leadership and Outcomes of Leadership

	Transactional Leadership		
	Contingent Reward *(N = 70)*	Manage by Exception (Active) *(N = 70)*	Manage by Exception (Passive) *(N = 70)*
Outcomes of Leadership Extra Effort *(N = 70)*	.820**	.164	-.532**
Effectiveness *(N = 70)*	.827**	.144	-.460**
Satisfaction *(N = 70)*	.861**	.155	-.525**

Note. ** $p ≤ .01$. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

The Relationship between Laissez-faire Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers

The results from the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis revealed that there was a negative significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and the six factors of school culture. Laissez-faire leadership showed a strong relationship with three of the six factors of school culture, which included collaborative leadership ($r = -.790$), unity of purpose ($r = -.698$), and teacher collaboration ($r = -.693$). These relationships were significant at the .01 level. With the remaining three factors of school culture, professional development ($r =$

-.606), learning partnership (r = -.556), and collegial support (r = -.500), it displayed a moderate relationship. These relationships were also significant at the .01 level (see Table 15).

Table 15

Correlational Matrix for Laissez-faire Leadership and School Culture

	Laissez-faire Leadership (N = 70)
School Culture Subscales	
Collaborative Leadership (N = 70)	-.790**
Teacher Collaboration (N = 70)	-.693**
Professional Development (N = 70)	-.606**
Unity of Purpose (N = 70)	-.698**
Collegial Support (N = 70)	-.500**
Learning Partnership (N = 70)	-.556**

Note. ** p ≤ .01. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

In Table 16, the Pearson product-moment correlations between laissez-faire leadership and the outcomes of leadership factors are shown. There was a negative significant moderate relationship between laissez-faire leadership and the outcomes of leadership factors, satisfaction (r = -.632), effectiveness (r = -.631) and extra effort (r = -.613). These relationships were significant at the .01 level.

Table 16

Correlational Matrix for Laissez-faire Leadership and Outcomes of Leadership

	Laissez-faire Leadership (N = 70)
Outcomes of Leadership	
Extra Effort (N = 70)	-.613**
Effectiveness (N = 70)	-.631**
Satisfaction (N = 70)	-.632**

Note. ** $p \leq .01$. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

Lastly, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationship between the outcomes of leadership factors and school culture as perceived by teachers (see Table 17). The results indicated a positive significant relationship with the three leadership outcome factors and the six school culture factors. These relationships were significant at the .01 level. The leadership outcome factor of extra effort illustrated a strong relationship with the three factors of school culture, which included collaborative leadership ($r =$ .766), unity of purpose ($r = .697$), and teacher collaboration ($r = .650$). With the remaining three factors, professional development ($r = .550$), learning partnership ($r = .542$), and collegial support ($r = .538$), it displayed a moderate relationship. The outcomes of leadership factor of effectiveness also portrayed a *strong relationship* with the same three factors of school culture− collaborative leadership ($r = .764$), unity of purpose ($r = .685$), and teacher collaboration ($r =$ .659), and similarly, a moderate relationship with collegial support ($r = .544$), learning partnership ($r = .526$), and professional development ($r = .524$). Contrarily, the correlation between effectiveness and collegial support was stronger than that of professional development. Lastly, the factor of satisfaction manifested a strong relationship with two factors of school culture, which

included collaborative leadership (r = .786) and unity of purpose (r = .680); it exhibited a moderate relationship with the remaining four factors, teacher collaboration (r = .595), professional development (r = .547), collegial support (r = .547), and learning partnership (r = .510).   Among these correlational analyses, the three outcomes of leadership factors depicted the strongest relationship with collaborative leadership, followed by unity of purpose and teacher collaboration (see Table 17).

Table 17

Correlational Matrix for Outcomes of Leadership and School Culture

	Outcomes of Leadership		
	Extra Effort *(N = 70)*	Effectiveness *(N = 70)*	Satisfaction *(N = 70)*
School Culture Subscales			
Collaborative Leadership *(N = 70)*	.766**	.764**	.786**
Teacher Collaboration *(N = 70)*	.650**	.659**	.595**
Professional Development *(N = 70)*	.550**	.524**	.547**
Unity of Purpose *(N = 70)*	.697**	.685**	.680**
Collegial Support *(N = 70*	.538**	.544**	.547**
Learning Partnership *(N = 70)*	.542**	.526**	.510**

Note. ** p ≤ .01. Correlations were interpreted based on .0 to .2 no relationship or very weak, .2 to .4 weak relationship, .4 to 0.6 moderate relationship, .6 to .8 strong relationship, and .8 to 1.0 very strong relationship.

Multiple Linear Regression

For this study, a simultaneous multiple linear regression model was also employed to investigate the effects of the independent variables (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles) on the

dependent variable (school culture). The "Enter" default method was used to include the independent variables (aka predicators) into the regression model so that they contribute to R^2 – "the amount of variance in the dependent variable as explained by the collective predictors" (Muijs, 2004, p. 163) as opposed to using other methods (e.g., stepwise, remove, backward) that only include the variables that are statistically significant, causing computation problems and concerns of biases. Muijs (2004) listed these problems as:

1. The regression coefficients for the selected variables will be too large (because of the removal of the other variables);
2. R square will be biased (upwards);
3. The p-values will be biased;
4. And finally, and possibly most importantly, you are replacing theory and judgment as a researcher by a mechanical process. (p. 169)

Therefore, Muijs suggested using the "Enter" default for the regression model.

The Effects of Transformational Leadership Style on School Culture

To investigate the effects of transformational leadership style on each factor of school culture (e.g., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support, and learning partnership), separate multiple linear regressions were conducted. The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of collaborative leadership revealed that R^2 for the model was .76; 76% of the variance in collaborative leadership was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted collaborative leadership (Beta = .47, p = .002). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant ($F_{(5, 64)}$ = 41.84, p = .000, see Table 18).

Table 18

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collaborative Leadership (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	.18	.12	.24	.152
Idealized Behavior	.04	.13	.05	.745
Inspirational Motivation	.04	.12	.05	.742
Intellectual Stimulation	.38	.12	.47	.002
Individual Consideration	.09	.10	.12	.348

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .76; F (5, 64) = 41.84; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of teacher collaboration revealed that R^2 for the model was .52; 52% of the variance in teacher collaboration was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted teacher collaboration (Beta = .46, p = .027). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (5, 64) = 13.99, p = .000, see Table 19).

Table 19

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Teacher Collaboration (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	.25	.16	.36	.124
Idealized Behavior	.10	.16	.14	.529
Inspirational Motivation	-.11	.15	-.17	.470
Intellectual Stimulation	.34	.15	.46	.027
Individual Consideration	-.04	.13	-.06	.725

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .52; F (5, 64) = 13.99; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of professional development revealed that R^2 for the model was .40; 40% of the variance in professional development was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of idealized behavior positively and significantly predicted professional development (Beta = .42, p = .099). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (5, 64) = 8.62, p = .000, see Table 20).

Table 20

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Professional Development (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	.07	.16	.11	.674
Idealized Behavior	.27	.16	.42	.099
Inspirational Motivation	-.04	.15	-.08	.769
Intellectual Stimulation	.20	.14	.31	.171
Individual Consideration	-.07	.12	-.12	.545

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .40; $F(5, 64)$ = 8.62; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of unity of purpose revealed that R^2 for the model was .59; 59% of the variance in unity of purpose was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted unity of purpose (Beta = .44, p = .020) and the factor of idealized behavior positively and significantly predicted unity of purpose (Beta = .34, p = .099). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant ($F(5, 64)$ = 19.15, p = .000, see Table 21).

Table 21

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Unity of Purpose (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	-.10	.15	-.14	.520
Idealized Behavior	.26	.15	.34	.099
Inspirational Motivation	.13	.14	.19	.373
Intellectual Stimulation	.34	.14	.44	.020
Individual Consideration	-.02	.12	-.03	.859

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .59; $F(5, 64)$ =19.15; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of collegial support revealed that R^2 for the model was .35; 35% of the variance in collegial support was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted

collegial support (Beta = .48, p = .043). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (5, 64) = 6.95, p = .000, see Table 22).

Table 22

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collegial Support (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	-.05	.13	-.11	.694
Idealized Behavior	-.04	.13	-.09	.746
Inspirational Motivation	.15	.12	.34	.211
Intellectual Stimulation	.24	.12	.48	.043
Individual Consideration	-.01	.10	-.02	.912

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .35; F (5, 64) = 6.95; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transformational leadership style on the school culture factor of learning partnership revealed that R^2 for the model was .31; 31% of the variance in learning partnership was accounted for by the independent variables. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted learning partnership (Beta = .51, p = .040). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (5, 64) = 5.80, p = .000, see Table 23).

Table 23

Transformational Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Learning Partnership (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Idealized Attributed	.05	.20	.07	.794
Idealized Behavior	-.21	.21	-.28	.306
Inspirational Motivation	.21	.19	.30	.280
Intellectual Stimulation	.39	.19	.51	.040
Individual Consideration	-.04	.16	-.05	.806

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .31; F (5, 64) = 5.80; p = .000.

In conclusion, these results from the multiple linear regression model, which was used to investigate the effects that transformational leadership have on school culture, indicated that each model was significant at p = .000. The transformational leadership factor of intellectual stimulation positively and significantly predicted five of the six school culture factors (i.e., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning

partnership), and the factor of idealized behavior positively and significantly predicted two of the six school culture factors (i.e., professional development and unity of purpose). The other factors of transformational leadership did not significantly predict any of the school culture factors.

The Effects of Transactional Leadership Style on School Culture

To investigate the effects of transactional leadership style on each factor of school culture (i.e., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support, and learning partnership), separate multiple linear regressions were conducted.   The linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor of collaborative leadership revealed that R^2 for the model was .73; 73% of the variance in collaborative leadership was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted collaborative leadership (Beta = .65, p = .000). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted *collaborative leadership* (Beta = -.32, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant $(F$ (3, 66) = 60.91, p = .000, see Table 24).

Table 24

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collaborative Leadership (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.52	.06	.65	.000
Manage by Exception (Active)	.01	.06	-.01	.907
Manage by Exception (Passive)	.26	.06	-.32	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .73; F (3, 66) = 60.91; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor, teacher collaboration revealed that R^2 for the model was .49; 49% of the variance in teacher collaboration was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted

teacher collaboration (Beta = .38, p = .001). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted teacher collaboration (Beta = -.42, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 21.33, p = .000, see Table 25).

Table 25

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Teacher Collaboration (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.28	.08	.38	.001
Manage by Exception (Active)	.04	.08	.05	.618
Manage by Exception (Passive)	-.32	.08	-.42	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .49; F (3, 66) = 21.33; p =.000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor professional development revealed that R^2 for the model was .43; 43% of the variance in professional development was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted professional development (Beta = .32, p = .000). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted professional development (Beta = -.23, p = .042). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 16.75, p = .000, see Table 26).

Table 26

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Professional Development (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.32	.07	.51	.000
Manage by Exception (Active)	-.05	.07	-.06	.512
Manage by Exception (Passive)	-.15	.07	-.23	.042

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .43; F (3, 66) = 16.75; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor unity of purpose revealed that R^2 for the model was .59; 59% of the variance in unity of purpose was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted unity of purpose

(Beta = .57, *p* = .000). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted unity of purpose (Beta = -.23, *p* = .002). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (*F* (3, 66) = 31.89, *p* = .000, see Table 27).

Table 27

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Unity of Purpose (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.43	.07	.57	.000
Manage by Exception (Active)	-.01	.07	-.01	.957
Manage by Exception (Passive)	-.23	.07	-.30	.002

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .59; *F* (3, 66) = 31.89; *p* =.000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor collegial support revealed that R^2 for the model was .34; 34% of the variance in collegial support was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted collegial support (Beta = .38, *p* = .002). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted collegial support (Beta = -.15, *p* = .019). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant *F* (3, 66) = 11.65, *p* = .000, see Table 28).

Table 28

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collegial Support (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.19	.06	.38	.002
Manage by Exception (Active)	.02	.06	.03	.744
Manage by Exception (Passive)	-.15	.06	-.29	.019

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .34; *F* (3, 66) = 11.65; *p* = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of transactional leadership style on the school culture factor learning partnership revealed that R^2 for the model was .39; 39% of the variance in learning partnership was accounted for by the independent variables. The transactional leadership factor of contingent reward positively and significantly predicted

learning partnership (Beta = .23, p = .013). Contrarily, the factor of manage by exception (passive) negatively and significantly predicted learning partnership (Beta = -.33, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant F (3, 66) = 14.39, p = .000, (see Table 29).

Table 29

Transactional Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Learning Partnership (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Contingent Reward	.23	.09	.29	.013
Manage by Exception (Active)	-.03	.09	-.03	.734
Manage by Exception (Passive)	-.33	.09	-.42	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .39; F(3, 66)= 14.39; p =.000.

In conclusion, these results from the multiple linear regression model, which was used to investigate the effects that transactional leadership have on school culture, indicated that each model was significant at p = .000. The transactional leadership factors, contingent reward and manage by exception (passive) significantly predicted the six school culture factors, i.e., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership. The other factor, manage by exception (active), did not significantly predict any of the school culture factors.

The Effects of Laissez-faire Leadership Style on School Culture

To investigate the effects of Laissez-faire leadership style on each factor of school culture (i.e., collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership), separate multiple linear regressions were conducted. The linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor collaborative leadership revealed that R^2 for the model was .62; 62% of the variance in collaborative leadership was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted collaborative leadership (Beta = -.79, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 112.81, p = .000, see Table 30).

Table 30

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collaborative Leadership (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.75	.07	-.79	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .62; F (1, 68) = 112.81; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor teacher collaboration revealed that R^2 for the model was .48; 48% of the variance in teacher collaboration was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted teacher collaboration (Beta = -.60, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 62.69, p = .000, see Table 31).

Table 31

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Teacher Collaboration (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.60	.08	-.69	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .48; F (1, 68) = 62.69; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor professional development revealed that R^2 for the model was .36; 36% of the variance in professional development was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted professional development (Beta = -.45, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 39.44, p = .000, see Table 32).

Table 32

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Professional Development (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.45	.07	-.61	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .36; F (1, 68) = 39.44; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor unity of purpose revealed that R^2 for the model was .48; 48% of the variance in unity of purpose was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted unity of purpose (Beta = -.62, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 64.4, p = .000, see Table 33).

Table 33

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Unity of Purpose (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.62	.08	-.70	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .48; F (1, 68) = 64.49; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor collegial support revealed that R^2 for the model was .25; 25% of the variance in collegial support was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted collegial support (Beta = -.50, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 22.68, p = .000, see Table 34).

Table 34

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collegial Support (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.29	.06	-.50	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .25; F (1, 68) = 22.68; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the effects of laissez-faire leadership style on the school culture factor learning partnership

revealed that R^2 for the model was .30; 30% of the variance in learning partnership was accounted for by the independent variables. The laissez-faire leadership negatively and significantly predicted learning partnership (Beta = -.56, p = .000). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (1, 68) = 30.44, p = .000, see Table 35).

Table 35

Laissez-faire Leadership Style Multiple Linear Regression Results for Learning Partnership (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Laissez-faire leadership	-.50	.09	-.56	.000

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .30; F (1, 68) = 30.44; p = .000.

In conclusion, these results from the multiple linear regression models used to investigate the effects that laissez-faire leadership have on school culture, indicated that that each model was significant at p = .000. The laissez-faire leadership style negatively and significantly predicted the six school culture factors. However, these significances were less than the .001 level.

The Effects of Outcomes of Leadership on School Culture

To investigate the effects of outcomes of leadership on each school culture factor, separate multiple linear regressions were conducted. The linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of leadership effects on the school culture factor collaborative leadership revealed that R^2 for the model was .65; 65% of the variance in collaborative leadership was accounted for by the independent variables. Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 40.82, p = .000). However, the outcomes of leadership did not predict collaborative leadership as indicated in Table 36.

Table 36

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collaborative Leadership (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.19	.12	.30	.110
Effectiveness	.17	.12	.24	.152
Satisfaction	.21	.14	.30	.155

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .65; F (3, 66) = 40.82; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of leadership effects on the school culture factor teacher collaboration revealed that R^2 for the model was .47; 47% of the variance in teacher collaboration was accounted for by the independent variables. The outcomes of leadership factor extra effort positively and significantly predicted teacher collaboration (Beta = .50, p = .028), and outcome factor of effectiveness also positively and significantly predicted *teacher collaboration* (Beta = .53, p = .012). Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 19.90, p = .000, see Table 37).

Table 37

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Teacher Collaboration (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.29	.13	.50	.028
Effectiveness	.35	.13	.53	.012
Satisfaction	-.21	.16	-.33	.198

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .47; F (3, 66) = 19.90; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of leadership effects on the school culture factor professional development revealed that R^2 for the model was .31; 31% of the variance in professional development was accounted for by the independent variables. Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 10.21, p = .000). However, the outcomes of leadership did not predict professional development as indicated in Table 38.

Table 38

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Professional Development (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.14	.13	.28	.283
Effectiveness	.07	.13	.12	.619
Satisfaction	.10	.16	.19	.513

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .31; F (3, 66) = 10.32; p = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of leadership effects on the school culture factor unity of purpose revealed that R^2 for the model was .51; 51% of the variance in unity of purpose was accounted for by the independent variables. The outcomes of leadership factor, extra effort

positively and significantly predicted unity of purpose (Beta = .38, *p* = .080).

Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 23.39,

p = .000, see Table 39).

Table 39

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Unity of Purpose (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.23	.13	.38	.080
Effectiveness	.20	.13	.30	.127
Satisfaction	.04	.16	.06	.806

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .51; F (3, 66) = 23.39; *p* = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of

leadership effects on the school culture factor collegial support revealed that R^2

for the model was .31; 31% of the variance in collegial support was accounted for

by the independent variables. Additionally, the model as a whole was statistically

significant (F (3, 66) = 10.32, *p* = .000). However, the outcomes of leadership did

not predict collegial support as indicated in Table 40.

Table 40

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Collegial Support (N = 70)

Variable	B	SE	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.07	.10	.18	.491
Effectiveness	.11	.10	.24	.312
Satisfaction	.07	.12	.18	.551

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .31; F (3, 66) = 10.32; *p* = .000.

The multiple linear regression results for investigating the outcomes of

leadership effects on the school culture factor learning partnership revealed that

R^2 for the model was .30; 30% of the variance in learning partnership was

accounted for by the independent variables. Additionally, the model as a whole

was statistically significant (F (3, 66) = 9.80, *p* = .000). However, the outcomes

of leadership did not predict learning partnership as indicated in Table 41.

Table 41

Outcomes of Leadership Multiple Linear Regression Results for Learning Partnership (N = 70)

Variable	*B*	*SE*	Beta	Sig.
Extra Effort	.23	.15	.39	.136
Effectiveness	.18	.16	.27	.263
Satisfaction	-.05	.19	-.08	.791

Note. The overall model was R^2 = .30; F (3, 66) = 9.80; p = .000.

In conclusion, these results from the multiple linear regression models used to investigate the outcomes of leadership effects on school culture, indicated that each model was significant at p = .000. The outcomes of leadership factor extra effort significantly predicted two of the six school culture factors (i.e., teacher collaboration and unity of purpose); effectiveness significantly predicted teacher collaboration. The other outcome factor of satisfaction did not significantly predict any of the school culture factors.

Summary of Findings

This chapter discussed the summative findings from the statistical analyses, which were used to investigate the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style and school culture. These analyses answered the three research questions and tested the null hypotheses that guided this study. The correlational analyses revealed that a significant relationship existed between each leadership style and school culture: Transformational leadership was significantly correlated with the six school culture factors, demonstrating a strong relationship with collaborative leadership, unity of purpose, and teacher collaboration. Transactional leadership style, with the exception of manage by exception (active), was also significantly correlated with the six school culture factors, demonstrating the strongest relationship with collaborative leadership. Lastly, laissez-faire leadership style was significantly correlated with the six school culture factors, also demonstrating a strong relationship with collaborative leadership.

These findings supported Lucas and Valentine's (2002) and Martin's (2009) findings of a significant relationship between leadership style and school

culture. Furthermore, the findings from the multiple linear regression analyses revealed that leadership style significantly effected school culture. Effects were identified in the regression models for the six school culture factors. Moreover, the findings provided answers to the three research questions that guided this study and supported the rejection of the three null hypotheses. The next chapter will discuss the findings in relation to the research questions and null hypotheses, as well as the implications from the study and suggestions for future studies.

Chapter V

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between school principals' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and school culture as perceived by teachers. The research findings as they relate to the three research questions and null hypotheses that guided this study are discussed in this chapter. The chapter also includes several implications from the study and recommendations for future studies. To address the research questions and null hypotheses, Pearson product-moment correlations and multiple linear regression models were used to determine the effects that each leadership style had on school culture.

Discussion of the Research Findings

Null hypothesis one predicted that there is no relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The null hypothesis was rejected because there is a relationship between school principals' transformational leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The results from the Pearson product-moment correlation revealed that the five factors of transformational leadership had a positive statistically significant relationship with the six factors of school culture at the .01 level of significance.

The results from this study were consistent with several other studies such as Lucas and Valentine's (2002) study, which examined principals' transformational leadership style from 12 middle schools based on the perceptions of the school's leadership team. Their results indicated that there was a direct significant relationship between principals' transformational leadership and school culture. Additionally, the results from this study were consistent with Le Clear (2005) and Martin's (2009) studies, which surveyed teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership styles and school culture. Findings indicated a positive significant correlation between transformational leadership and school culture.

The findings from this study revealed a moderate positive relationship between transformational leadership and the four school culture factors, teacher collaboration, professional development, collegial support, and learning partnership. More specifically, there was a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and the school culture factor of unity of purpose and an even stronger relationship with the school culture factor of collaborative leadership (see Figure 1).
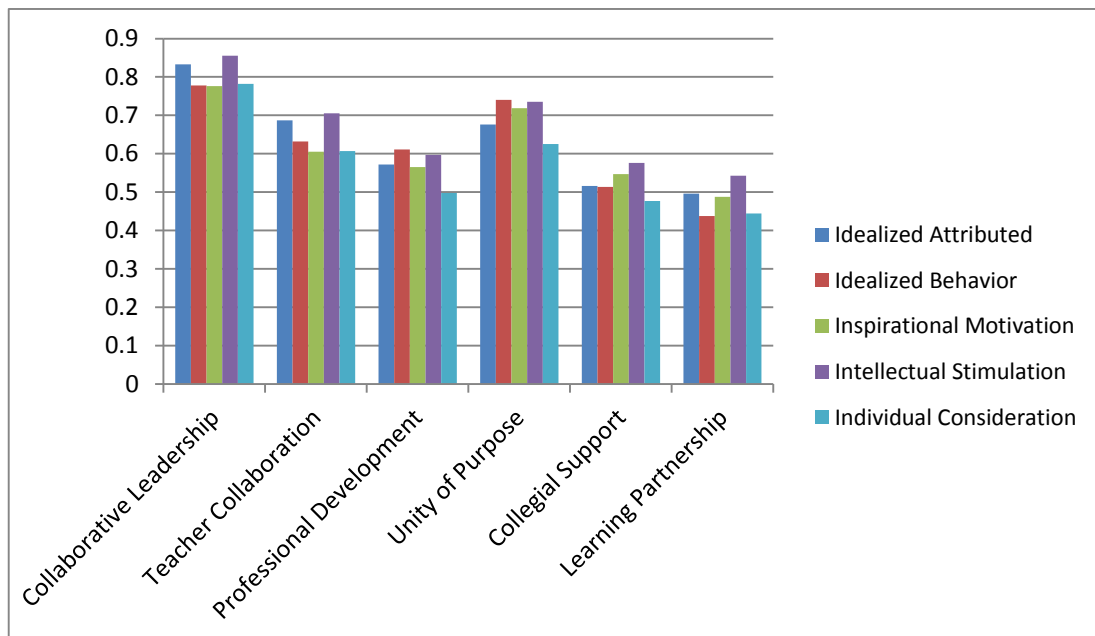

Figure 1. The correlational results between transformational leadership and school culture as perceived by teachers.

Teachers who perceived their school principals' leadership style as being transformational also perceived their school culture as a place where teachers clearly understood their school's mission and the school's mission served as a compass for their performance. These teachers also felt valued, respected, and appreciated by their school principal, and they felt encouraged to participate in school decision-making. This likely explains the positive strong relationship between transformational leadership and the school culture factor collaborative leadership. Collaborative leadership refers to a school leader who cultivates a school culture of working relationships and shared decision making with and among his/her staff (Valentine, 2010). The transformational leader demonstrates

collaborative leadership in that he/she focuses on building collaborative relationships within the school. These leaders foster shared-decision making by soliciting teachers' ideas and opinions and by making teachers feel that their feedback is valuable. They welcome teachers' innovative ideas when implementing school programs; and they ensure that school committees and teams are working effectively to achieve school goals. Therefore, transformational leadership is a practical leadership style that can be employed by school principals to cultivate a positive school culture and collaborative leadership.

These conclusions are further supported by the results from the multiple linear regressions which indicated transformational leadership had a positive significant effect on school culture at the .01 level of significance. The findings from this study also revealed a positive significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and the three outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effective and satisfaction) at the .01 level of significance (see Figure 2). These results were consistent with Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis, which indicated that there was a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and the outcomes of leadership.
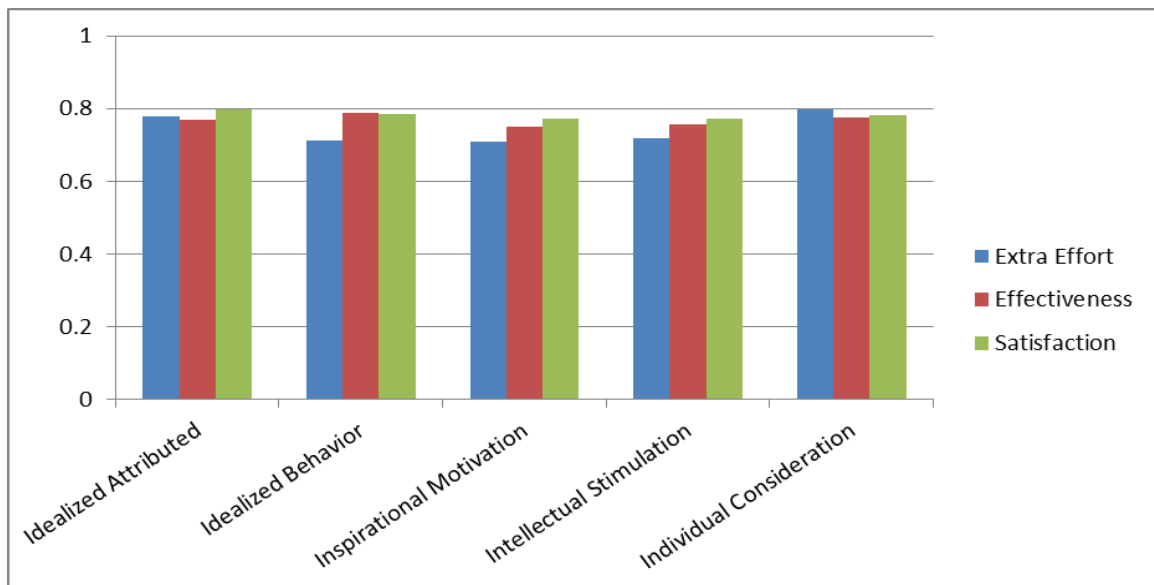

Figure 2. The correlational results between transformational leadership and outcomes of leadership as perceived by teachers.

Teachers who perceived their school principals as being transformational leaders also perceived them as being able to generate extra effort from teachers; as being able to demonstrate efficient interactive skills; and as being able to generate satisfaction in teachers from their work methods. These results were also consistent with the characteristic of the transformational leader in that these leaders exhibit a sincere interest in their subordinates' needs and wants; they act as role models and seek to develop the leadership qualities of their subordinates; and they effectively interact with the organization's higher authority on the behalf of their group (Sample, 2004).

Null hypothesis two predicted that there is no relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The null hypothesis was rejected because there is a relationship between school principals' transactional leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The results from the Pearson product-moment correlations revealed that the transactional leadership factor of contingent reward displayed a positive statistically significant relationship with the six factors of school culture at the .01 level of significance. Contrarily, the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception (passive) had a negative statistically significant relationship with the six factors of school culture at the .01 level of significance.

Similar to the outcomes for transformational leadership, the findings from this study indicated transactional leadership (contingent reward) displayed a moderate positive relationship with the school culture factors of teacher collaboration, professional development, collegial support, and learning partnership. Likewise, it portrayed a strong positive relationship with unity of purpose and an even stronger relationship with collaborative leadership (see Figure 3).
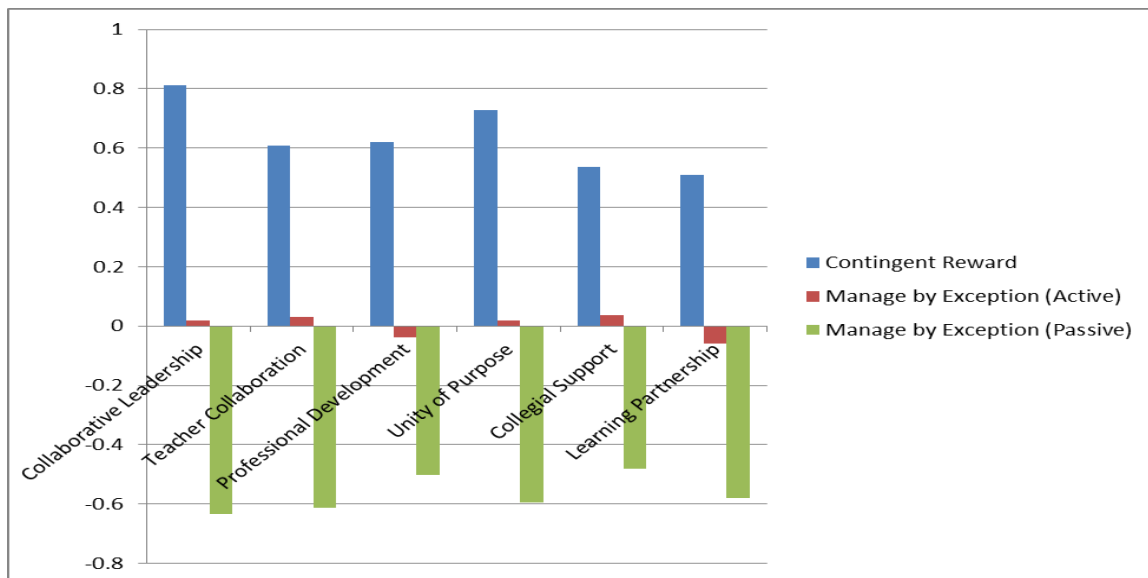
Figure 3. The correlational results between transactional leadership and school culture as perceived by teachers.

These results indicate that teachers who perceived their school principal's leadership style as being transactional also perceived their school culture as being one where their school principal discussed specific terms that were associated with their job-performance; the principal made it clear what teachers could expect to receive upon achieving their goals and made teachers aware of his/her satisfaction upon successfully completing their goals. This positive relationship between transactional leadership (contingent reward) and school culture can be explained by the characteristic of the transactional (contingent reward) leader and the practices that make this form of leadership effective. For instance, contingent reward is an exchange process that takes place between the leader and subordinates whereby subordinates' outcome performances are contingent on specific rewards (Northouse, 2010). This form of leadership is effective because in this exchange process both the leader and follower reap a benefit that satisfies both parties at the end of the transaction.

Although the relationship between transactional leadership (contingent reward) and the school culture factor of collaborative leadership was not as strong as the relationship between transformational leadership and collaborative leadership, the results were consistent with Bass and Avolio's (2004) assertion

that while these two forms of leadership are interrelated, transformational leadership does not replace transactional leadership− it only increases its effectiveness. Therefore, it can be concluded that transactional leadership (contingent reward) is also a practical leadership style that promotes a positive school culture that is also reflective of collaborative leadership. This conclusion is further supported by the results from the multiple linear regression models which showed that transactional leadership (contingent reward) had a positive significant effect on school culture at the .01 level of significance. The results also showed that transactional leadership (contingent reward) had a positive significant relationship with the three outcomes of leadership (see Figure 4).
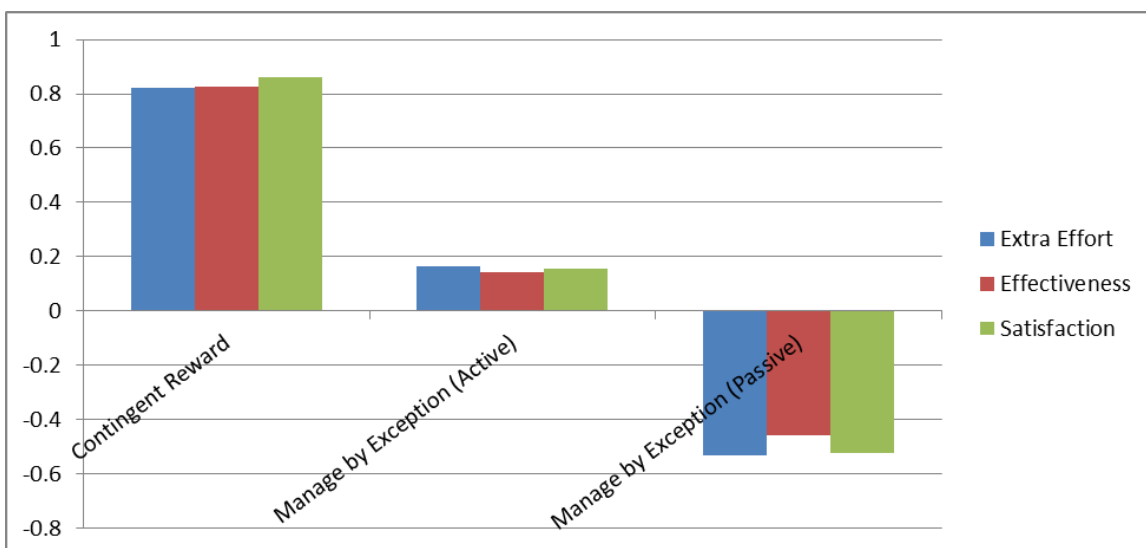
Figure 4. The correlational results between transactional leadership and outcomes of leadership as perceived by teachers.

Since the transactional leadership factor of contingent reward is recognized as a positive reinforcement between the leader and his/her subordinates (Northouse, 2007), where both the leader and subordinates benefit from the transaction, it is reasonable that this form of leadership would be an effective form of leadership in promoting a positive school culture.

In addition to these results, the findings from this study also revealed that there was a negative significant relationship between the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception−passive and the six school culture factors. This form of leadership had the strongest negative significant relationship with the

school culture factor of unity of purpose and collaborative leadership. Teachers who perceived their school principal's leadership style as being transactional (manage by exception−passive) also perceived their school culture as lacking in the components of school culture. These teachers did not feel that they were encouraged to plan lessons together or to work collaboratively on school projects. Teachers did not have a clear understanding of their school's mission; nor did they feel respected, appreciated or encouraged to share their ideas or to participate in the decision making aspect of the school. These negative results can be explained by the characteristic of the transactional leader (manage by exception−passive), whose interactions with his/her followers are limited to the degree that he/she only monitors staff performance and takes action only after a mistake has been made. Due to this limited interaction with staff, transactional leadership (manage by exception−passive) is viewed as a negative form of leadership and it is frequently linked with the laissez-faire leadership and classified as passive-avoidant leadership (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Therefore, it can be concluded that school principals who promote a positive school culture, especially one that radiates collaborative leadership, should not practice the manage by exception−passive leadership style in their schools.

The manage by exception−passive leadership style has been perceived by teachers as being negatively associated with the school culture. This conclusion is further supported by the results from the multiple linear regression models which showed that transactional leadership (manage by exception−passive) had a negative significant effect on school culture at the .01 level of significance. The findings also illustrated a significant negative relationship between the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception (passive) and the three outcomes of leadership as shown in figure 4. These results were consistent with Northouse's (2007) claim that the two factors of transactional leadership, manage by exception (active and passive), utilize more negative reinforcement approaches. This provides a degree of explanation for why there was not a significant relationship between the transactional leadership factor of manage by exception (active), school culture, and the leadership

outcomes, but yet a negative moderate relationship between the transactional leadership factor, manage by exception (passive) and the three outcomes of leadership (i.e., extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). This outcome was also consistent with Judge and Piccolo's (2004) study, which showed a negative correlation between the transactional leadership factor, manage by exception (passive) and the outcomes of leadership.

 Null hypothesis three predicted that there is no relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The null hypothesis was rejected because there is a relationship between school principals' laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. The results from the Pearson product-moment correlations revealed that laissez-faire leadership displayed a negative statistically significant relationship with the six factors of school culture at the .01 level of significance. These results were consistent with Martin's (2009) study which also showed that there was a negative relationship between the laissez-faire leadership and the six factors of school culture. Likewise, school principals' laissez-faire leadership style was most negatively correlated with the school culture factor of collaborative leadership (see Figure 5).
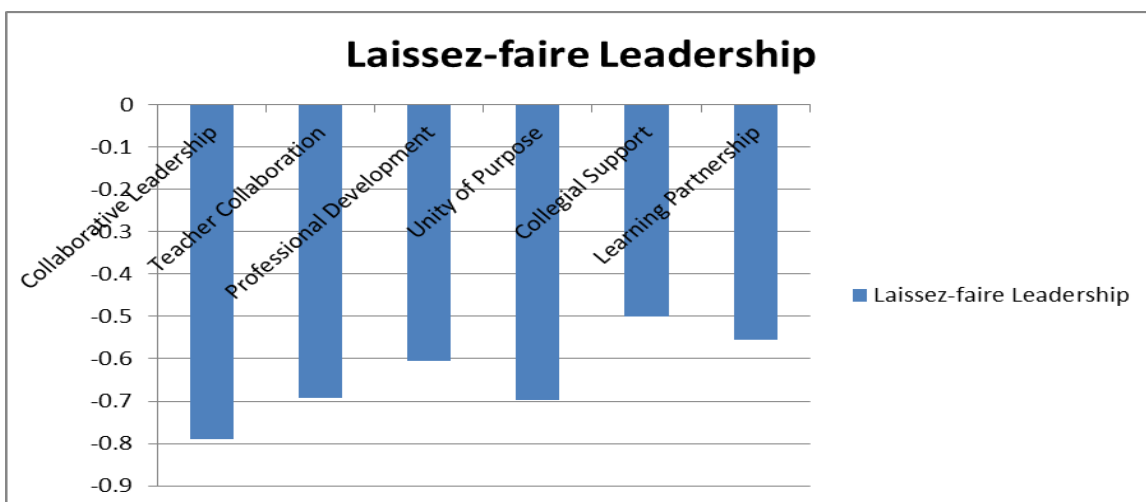

Figure 5. The correlational results between laissez-faire leadership and school culture as perceived by teachers.

Teachers who perceived their school principal's leadership style as being laissez-faire also perceived their school culture as lacking the components of school culture. Teachers felt that their principals neglected important school issues, avoided making decisions, delayed addressing questions and concerns from teachers, and were unavailable to provide support to teachers. These results were consistent with the classification of the passive-avoidant leader given the negative relationship in teachers' responses regarding the manage by exception−passive leadership style and their school culture. However, the negative relationship between the laissez-faire leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers also confirmed the individual characteristic of the laissez-faire leader. These leaders are defined as exhibiting no form of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). They take a "hands-off" approach to matters in the workplace. Therefore, it can be concluded that the laissez-faire leadership style is not a practical leadership style for school principals to employ when seeking to establish or maintain a positive school culture, especially one that emanates collaborative leadership. School principals who practice laissez-faire leadership should be trained to develop their leadership style so that they are acting within the authority of their position. This conclusion is also supported by the results from this study which showed that laissez-faire leadership had a negative significant effect on the six school culture factors at the .01 level of significance. The results from this study also confirmed the moderate negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and the three outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) at the .01 level of significance (see Figure 6).
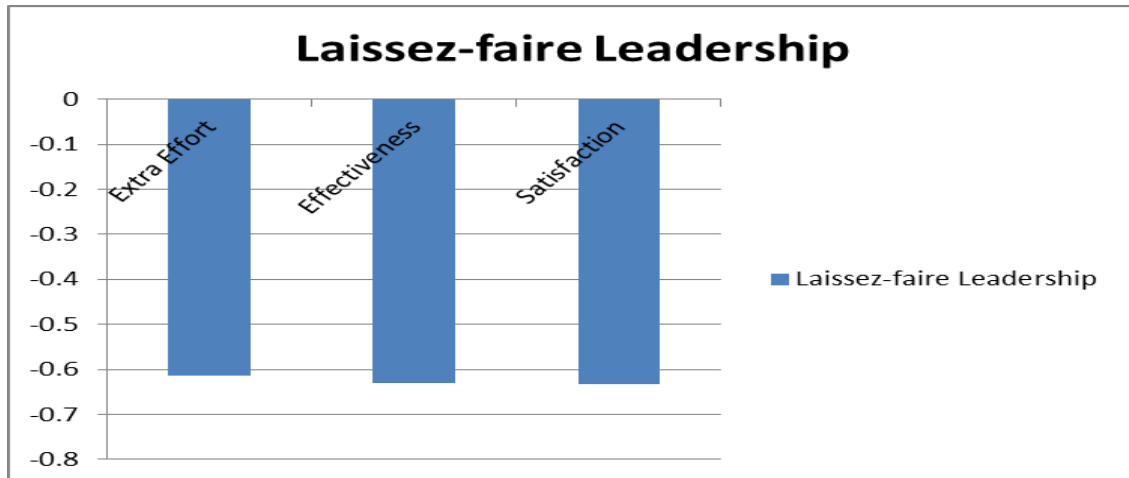
Figure 6. The correlational results between laissez-faire leadership and outcomes of leadership as perceived by teachers.

This means that teachers did not perceive these principals as being "good motivators, having efficient interactive skills, or generating satisfaction from their work methods" (Sample, 2004, p. 9). Likewise, these results were consistent with Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis results, which confirmed the negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and leadership outcomes.

Summary of Discussion

This researcher investigated the relationship between school principals' leadership style and school culture as perceived by teachers. Unlike other researchers who investigated the relationship between leadership style and school culture (Bolton, 2010; Ibarra, 2008; Iye, 2001; LeClear, 2005; Martin, 2009), this study was unique because it bridged a gap in the literature pertaining to the relationship between school principals' leadership style and school culture by broadening the investigation of these two variables to include the perception of teachers across geographical areas (urban, suburban, and rural) as well as across school (elementary, middle and high school) and grade (K-12) levels. Utilizing the MLQ 5x-short, this researcher gathered teachers' perception of their school principal's leadership based on three leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire); this researcher also gathered teachers' perception of their school culture using the SCS, which measures

collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support, and learning partnership. This investigation of the relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture, and the effects that these leadership styles have on school culture, was intended to contribute to the literature and serve as a resource for school administrators' identification of leadership styles that cultivate positive school cultures and a collaborative school community.

The research indicated that both transformational and transactional (contingent reward) leadership styles were positively and significantly correlated with school culture as perceived by teachers. These leadership styles also had a positive and significant effect on school culture as perceived by teachers, and were positively and significantly correlated with the outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). These results were consistent with Avolio and Bass's (2004) assertion that transformational and transactional leaders are effective forms of leadership because they possess the ability to act as inspiring participative leaders, capable of influencing their followers to unite for the overall good of achieving the organization's mission and goals (Bass & Bass, 2008). Other experts reported that the transformational leader possesses the ability to create a positive school culture because he/she acts as a change agent, transforming the mentality and the belief system and practices of others (Rutledge, 2010; Peariso, 2011). Therefore, transformational and transactional (contingent reward) leadership styles are effective forms of leadership that school principals can utilize to create, promote, or sustain a positive school culture.

It is necessary for school principals to understand the needs of their school culture when selecting which form of leadership to practice. School principals who seek to change their school culture into a more collaborative school community should employ the transformational leadership, which is a higher degree of leadership for transitioning an existing school culture into a new direction. On the other hand, school principals who seek to maintain their already productive and collaborative school culture would be more successful in utilizing the transactional (contingent reward) leadership style. Neither the

transactional (managed by exception (active/passive) nor the laissez-faire leadership styles were effective forms of leadership in this study and therefore, these leadership styles may not be employed by school principals when attempting to promote a positive school culture.

Implications for Educational Leadership

The findings from this study confirmed that both school leadership and school culture are important components of the school's organizational structure. The findings from this study also confirmed that there is a statistically significant relationship between school principals' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and school culture, and that school principals' leadership styles impact their school culture in several ways. The implications of leadership style on school culture may be summarized as follows:

1. School district's professional development and training programs for school principals and post-secondary institutions' programs for aspiring school principals may ensure that their program's curriculum include an intensive concentration on school leadership in relation to the full range of leadership development and an understanding of how leadership styles correlate with and impact the school culture. Professional development and training programs that focus on these components will help ensure that practicing school principals and aspiring school principals are better prepared and equipped for their role as the school leader.

2. Since the transformational and transactional (contingent reward) leadership styles are effective forms of leadership, school districts' screening and hiring processes and institutional school-leadership programs' enrollment processes may include components that will identify candidates who possess characteristics of these styles. Such processes will ensure that school principal candidates possess the ability to effectively interact with subordinates so that school-district and school-level goals and objectives will be achieved.

3. Lastly, as school district administrators focus on selecting and developing effective school leaders, who can either transform or sustain positive school cultures, they may need to understand that school principals with the transformational leadership style can transform school cultures by promoting collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, unity of purpose, collegial support, and learning partnership. Likewise, the transactional leadership style (contingent reward) is an effective leadership style for sustaining a positive school culture. School district administrators may ensure that school principals understand their own leadership style and its impact on the school culture through assessments that encourage reflection on leadership practices and provide feedback from others (e.g., peers, teachers, staff, parents, students) so that they remain flexible in their leadership approaches and consistent with the needs of their school culture.

Policy Recommendations

Based on the findings from this study, the following recommendations have been made for further studies that may help bridge the gap in knowledge pertaining to the topic of school principals' leadership styles and school culture. This researcher investigated school principals' leadership styles based on the perception of teachers with three or more years of teaching experience and working experience with their school principal. A study that investigates leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and school culture, which include school principals' perceptions of their own leadership style in addition to the perception of other members of the school community (non-teaching staff, students, and parents), would be useful in determining how school principals view their own leadership style in comparison to how others view them in relations to the school culture. The use of other data-collection such as interviews, observations and case studies will provide more insightful information to this kind of study.

This investigation of school leadership styles and school culture was limited to selected urban, suburban, and rural school districts in the state of Maryland. A study that broadens the study to include more states may be useful in further investigating Avolio and Bass's (1991) full range of leadership development theory in the context of the school organization, as well as determining the degree to which transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles exist in other school districts across states.

Also, this researcher only investigated the relationship between school principals' leadership styles and school culture. Since there was a minimum amount of research pertaining to this topic, a study that extends this investigation to include school principals' leadership styles and the relationship of other school variables (e.g., student achievement, teacher retention, teacher satisfaction etc.) may also be useful to school administrators in better understanding and identifying effective leadership styles in the context of school organization.

Lastly, this study revealed a strong statistically significant positive relationship between school principals' leadership styles and collaborative leadership. Future studies that focus on effective leadership styles that promote collaborative leadership in the context of the school-setting may be beneficial to school administrators seeking to improve their school culture through collaborative efforts. Such information may help these administrators identify ways to include teachers in their school's decision-making process so that teachers feel encouraged to share their ideas and to develop their own leadership.

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Appendix A

Dissertation Oversight Committee's Approval of Prospectus

September 23, 2010

Dear Ms. Artis:

I am pleased to inform you that the Dissertation Oversight Committee (DOC) members duly reviewed and found your prospectus viable for a dissertation research. I urge you to proceed working with your committee in developing your prospectus into a dissertation proposal (Chapter 1-3).

Once your committee determines that your proposal is ready for defense and a date has been established by all parties, your chairperson must advise the Director of Graduate Education Programs accordingly. Arrangements will be made for facilities and resources that you may need for your proposal defense.

Again, I congratulate you for the approval of your prospectus.

Sincerely,

Director, Graduate Studies

Appendix B

Request for Permission to Use the School Culture Survey via Email Communication

Sent: Tuesday, October 19, 2010 10:41 AM

From: Audrey Artis

To: Valentine, Jerry W.

Subject: Request for Permission to Use the School Culture Survey

Dear Dr. Valentine,

Good morning. I am a doctoral candidate at Delaware State University. Currently, I am working on my dissertation research, titled: A Study to Investigate the Relationship Between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools. I am writing this request for permission to utilize the School Culture Survey- Form 4-98 to gather data for my study. Please let me know if any further steps are needed in addition to this written request. I look forward to your response. Thank you in advance.

Regards,

Ms. Audrey Artis

Appendix C

Permission to use the School Culture Survey Approved via Email Communication

Thursday, October 21, 2010 1:31 AM

From: Valentine, Jerry W.
To: Audrey Artis

Audrey

After reviewing your proposal, I am providing, via this email, permission to use the School Culture Survey for your dissertation research. There is no fee for this use. I would only ask that you provide me with an electronic version of your completed study so I might read the study when it is finished.

Best of luck.

Jerry W. Valentine, Ph.D.
Professor Emeritus
University of Missouri

Appendix D

School Culture Survey/Sample of Questions

Indicate the degree to which each statement describes conditions in your school.

Please use the following scale:

1= Strongly Disagree   2=Disagree   3=Undecided   4=Agree   5=Strongly Agree

1. Teachers utilize professional networks to obtain information and resources for classroom instruction.

2. Leaders value teachers' idea.

3. Teachers have opportunities for dialogue and planning across grades and subjects.

4. Teachers trust each other.

5. Teachers support the mission of the school.

Appendix E

Electronic Form Request for Permission to Use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Name: Audrey Artis

Company/Institution: Delaware State University

Order/Invoice number: 16374

Order Date: 4/29/2011

Project Title: A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools

Instrument Name: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

I will compensate Mind Garden, Inc. for every use of this online form.

I will put the instrument copyright on every page containing question items from this instrument.

I will remove this form from online at the conclusion of my data collection.

I will limit access to this online form and require a login or uniquely coded url. Once the login/code is used that evaluation will be closed to use.

The form will not be available to the open Web.

I will include info@mindgarden.com on my list of survey respondents so that Mind Garden can verify the proper use of the instrument.

Method for Restricting Access:

The form will be submitted via a email link to principal-participants only and in turn, principals will forward the link to participating teachers. Pass codes will be

use by teachers to access the survey until the survey has been completed. Upon completion, teachers will not be able to re-access the survey.

Electronically signed on 4/30/2011 by Audrey Artis.

Appendix F

Permission to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Approved via

Email Communication

Monday, May 2, 2011 1:46 PM

From: info@mindgarden.com

To: audreyartisa@yahoo.com

Re: MGAgree: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire from Audrey Artis (Order # 16374)

Dear Audrey,

Thank you for your order and for completing our online use agreement. Please feel free to proceed with your survey.

Best,

Valorie Keller

Mind Garden, Inc.

Appendix G

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5x-Short)

Sample of Questions

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of the individual as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank. Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, If not always
0	1	2	3	4

THE PERSON I AM RATING…

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts…………………0 1 2 3 4

2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate……………………………………………………………………..0 1 2 3 4

3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious…………………………..0 1 2 3 4

4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards……………………………………………………………………….0 1 2 3 4

5. Avoids getting involved when important values and beliefs………………0
    1 2 3 4

Appendix H
Request for School Districts' Participation and Approval

December 26, 2010

Dear Supervisor of Research & Program Evaluation,

RE: External Research

Research Title: A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools

I am submitting this correspondence to extend an offer for your school district's participation in a dissertation research study that I have proposed for my doctorate degree program at Delaware State University. The purpose of the study is to determine the relationship between leadership styles of school principals and school culture and the impact that these styles have on the school's culture as perceived by teachers. The significance of this study is that it will contribute to the overall body of literature as empirical data on the impact that leadership styles have on the school's culture. The study will identify leadership behaviors that influence the school's culture in either a positive or negative aspect, and affect teacher-principal relations that work in collaboration to promote and ensure effective teaching and learning and student achievement outcomes. Both practicing and aspiring school principals will be able to utilize this information as a resource for creating, promoting, fostering and sustaining a healthy and thriving school culture in order to maximize the benefits that a positive school culture contributes to student achievement outcomes. District school administrators and school leadership programs will also be able to utilize this information as a resource for providing professional development training to practicing and aspiring school principals that will assist them with developing and improving their leadership skills to meet the demands of their ever-evolving leadership role as the school's Chief Operating Officer as they aim to promote the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school

culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and professional growth.

For your review and further consideration, I have enclosed a shortened version of my proposal and other pertinent materials to address the components on the procedures to conducting research. Participation of the following schools is being requested:

Due to Delaware State University's (DSU) Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval process (which requires a letter of consent to participate from any external organization prior to its review and approval of any research) I am unable to provide you with the IRB documentation at this time. However, if you are willing to participate in this study, I am requesting if you could provide *a letter of consent to participate, pending the approval of DSU's IRB*. Upon receiving the letter of the IRB's approval, it will be immediately forwarded to your organization, which will occur prior to the implementation of the study. I look forward to your reply, indicating your interest or lack thereof in this research study. If you need to contact me for further information, I can be reached at 443-473-8081 or via email at audreyartisa@yahoo.com. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Regards,

Mrs. Audrey Artis,
Doctorate Degree Candidate

Appendix I

Permission Granted from School District (SD3s)

February 15, 2011

Dear Ms. Artis:

Your request to conduct the research entitled "A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools" has been reviewed by SD1s research application reviewers. Based on the examination, I am pleased to inform you that the Department of Research & Evaluation has granted conditional authorization for you to proceed with your study.

Authorization for this research extends through 2010-2011 school year only. If you are not able to complete your data collection during this period, you must submit a written request for an extension. We reserve the right to withdraw approval at any time or decline to extend the approval if the implementation of your study adversely impacts any of the school district's activities.

Please secure written approval of the principals of ElemS3s, MS3s, and HS3s on the enclosed Principal Permission to Conduct Research Study forms. The original signed copy of this for should be forwarded to my attention and a copy given to the respective principal. An executive summary of the research and one copy of the final research report should be forwarded to the Department of Research & Evaluation within one month of the completion of your study.

I wish you success in your study.

Sincerely,

Director, Department of Research & Evaluation

Appendix J

Permission Granted from School District (SD1u)

February 24, 2011

Dear Ms. Audrey Artis

The Office of Achievement and Accountability (OAA) has reviewed and approved your request to conduct a research study titled, *A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland.*

Therefore, you may now contact the principals at selected schools for permission to begin the implementation phase of your study. Please note that teacher participation is voluntary and participants can withdraw from your study without prior notice. The study must be implemented as proposed and you are required to notify OAA of any changes. Approval is valid for one year and would expire on February 23, 2012.

Upon the completion of your study, please provide OAA with a copy of your results. I wish you success in your study.

Respectfully,

Chief Accountability Officer

Appendix K

Permission Granted from School District (SD2r)

February 25, 2011

Dear Mrs. Artis:

This letter is to inform you that your request to conduct your doctoral research at ElemS2r, MS2r, and HS2r during the 2011-2012 school-year has been approved. Participation by any staff member is voluntary.

Please contact the principal of each respective school to coordinate the logistics schedule.

Best of luck with your research and with the completion of your doctorate—I know from experience that it is an arduous challenge, but also one that is very rewarding.

Best,

Supervisor of Research and Program Evaluation

Appendix L
Informed Consent Form

Principal Investigator: <u>Ms. Audrey Artis</u>

Title of Project: <u>A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools</u>

You are invited to participate in a research study, titled: "*A Study to Investigate the Relationship Between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools.*" The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between leadership styles of school principals and school culture as perceived by teachers. This study will be of benefit to others by enabling school district administrators, school program officials and school principals to understand the degree to which teacher perceptions are consistent with reality as this reality pertains to leadership styles in public education and the impact that these styles have on the school's culture. This kind of clarification can lead to meaningful changes in school districts and universities' leadership professional development training and programs as they work collaboratively towards enhancing the quality of public education. Aspiring and practicing school principals can utilize this information as a tool for enhancing their leadership skills in an effort to create positive and productive school cultures. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a K-12 grade level school principal or teacher in a Maryland Public School System.

If you are a school principal and decide to participate in this study, you will be asked to sign and date this informed consent form (in the presence of the researcher) to acknowledge your agreement to participate. You may sign and date this form on the following page.

If you are a teacher and decide to participate, you will be asked to electronically sign and date this informed consent form in the space provided. Following your signature, which will acknowledge your agreement to participate, you will be asked to complete two surveys (which have been combined) on *surveymonkey.com*: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x-short", which consists of 45 questionnaire items and will take at minimum, approximately 30 minutes to complete and "The School Culture Survey", which consists of 35 questionnaire items and at minimum, will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Combined with the two minutes to read and electronically sign the informed consent signature sheet, the total time to complete the survey process is estimated at approximately 52 minutes. It is recommended that teachers complete the surveys when they have one hour to commit to completing them entirely. Surveys will be made available to teacher-participants from Monday, May 2, 2011 until Monday, May 16, 2011. Approximately two weeks will be allotted for teachers to complete the online-surveys.

Since this study is based on teacher perceptions, there are no identifiable invasive procedures or information requested, discomforts, or risks associated with this study. Therefore, issues relating to medical care and compensation are not active concerns. As previously mentioned, this study will be of benefit to others by enabling school district administrators, school program officials and school principals to understand the degree to which teacher perceptions are consistent with reality as this reality pertains to leadership styles in public education and the impact that these styles have on the school's culture, if any.

Teachers are asked to read and electronically sign the signature sheet to acknowledge informed consent. These documents and all collected data will be maintained by the researcher until the data analysis process has been completed and the final report generated. Upon acceptance of the final written report, all data will be shredded under the authority of the researcher's mentor. There is no request for personal identification in the survey process and therefore, will be no way of associating responses with respondents.

If you give us your permission by signing this document, the study will be disclosed in a formal paper submitted to the researcher's dissertation chair person and the director of the Doctoral Program of Educational Leadership. Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with Delaware State University. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

Before you complete and sign the form, please feel free to ask questions regarding any aspect of this study that is unclear to you. If you have any additional questions, you may contact Ms. Audrey Artis at 443-487-8081 or email me at audreyartisa@yahoo.com. If at any time, you have questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the office of Sponsored Programs at 302-857-6819 or 857-6811.

YOU ARE MAKING A DECISION WHETHER OR NOT TO PARTICIPATE. YOUR SIGNATURE INDICATES THAT YOU HAVE DECIDED TO PARTICIPATE HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED ABOVE.

I acknowledge that I have received a personal copy of this consent form.

Copy received: _____

       (Initial)

Signature of Participant:_____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator:_____ Date:_____

Appendix M

Institution Review Board—Human Subjects Protection Committee Approval Letter

April 29, 2011

Dear Ms. Artis:

Delaware State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB)— Human Subjects Protection Committee has reviewed your research project entitled **"A Study to Investigate the Relationship between Leadership Style and School Culture as Perceived by Teachers in Maryland Public Schools".** The committee has **approved** this project and requires that an annual progress report be submitted before **April 29, 2012**. Please send this information to the Office of Sponsored Programs.

Sincerely,

Acting Chair- Human Subjects Protection Committee

Appendix N
Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that Audrey Artis successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 3/18/2009

Certification Number 198985