A Study of Teachers' and Principals' Beliefs About Leadership Behaviors in Relation to School Performance

Brigette Matson

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A STUDY OF TEACHERS’ AND PRINCIPALS’ BELIEFS ABOUT
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS IN RELATION TO SCHOOL PERFORMANCE

A Dissertation
Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

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August 2018
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Schools with similar demographics have varying school performance; these differences exist among schools across Western Pennsylvania. Questions remain as to why some schools perform at higher levels than other schools in similar regions. Some researchers posit that leadership practices in different schools may influence student learning and school performance.

The purpose of this study was to research the relationship between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about the extent to which leadership practices influence school performance for high-, low-, and middle-level performing schools. This study examined how leadership practices are perceived by teachers and principals to influence school performance.

The beliefs of teachers and principals in regard to leadership behaviors were not assumed to reflect documented leadership behaviors within their schools. Teachers’ and principals’ perceptions about the extent to which they believe particular leadership practices influence school performance were collected and analyzed. Teachers and principals were asked to complete a survey to rate how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. The results of the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices for how those leadership practices influence school performance were correlated to School Performance Profiles to see if
relationships exist. Similarities as well as differences among higher, middle, and lower performing schools were also examined.

The results of this study do not determine causation, but the information gathered does reveal that differences and relationships exist between teachers and principals in terms of how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. Principals tend to see challenging teachers’ past beliefs about their work and assumptions about students as a more influential leadership practice concerning school performance. *Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and areas of expertise* is associated with higher performing schools, and *Communicating a shared vision with excitement about what can be accomplished through team work* is associated with lower performing schools. While both teachers and principals feel that Providing Individual Support is important, only principals believe that Building Vision is important. The results of this study lead to the conclusion that school leaders cannot focus on building vision alone if they wish to improve the school performance; they must provide teachers with the necessary support they need to gain confidence in their ability to reach the goals within the vision.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Following is a description of first-hand accounts with two junior-senior high schools in rural Western Pennsylvania. In the first school, teachers in grade level teams act as one unit. They collaborate to meet student needs despite barriers of time, human resources, money, and materials. Teachers take ownership of student learning in spite of many barriers outside of their control, including lack of family support for their students in many cases. Teachers continuously monitor student growth and use flexible grouping within the grade level to provide students with remediation and/or enrichment. The teachers are not participating in these practices because of a directive from the administration; they simply refuse to be associated with mediocrity. The majority of the teachers feel they have the capacity to help students reach grade level standards; more importantly, the teachers help the students believe they can and will learn at higher levels. It is not uncommon for teachers in this district to call the parents of students who are struggling or simply not performing at their best. Many of the teachers in the district know the students’ families and consider themselves an extension of those families for the purpose of ensuring students’ success. For the 2015-16 school year, records from Pennsylvania Department of Education (2015) show this school received a score of 80 for their School Performance Profile, indicating the levels of student growth and achievement exceeded the state’s expectations.

In the second school, teachers work in grade and/or department level teams because common plan time and professional learning communities have been created by the administration. Teachers plan and implement lesson plans aligned to grade-level
standards, and systems have been put in place for student support, such as scheduled times for enrichment and remediation. Research-based instructional strategies and assessment tools have been implemented throughout the district as a result of professional development that includes modeling and coaching. Students are passively compliant most of the time, and the majority of students move from one grade level to the next without additional remediation and/or enrichment. A few teachers within the district have taken planning and instructing to an elevated level by considering student readiness, interests, and learning styles to get students engaged in their learning, while others have not. The school has a small but select group of teachers who are influential over many other teachers in the school and who are seemingly resistant to change. Teachers in the district are regularly frustrated with barriers to student success outside of the school walls, such as poverty and lack of home support. Although most of the teachers believe students can learn and grow, many teachers feel that preparing their students to meet standards is outside the realm of possibility due to lack of support from students’ home environments. For the 2015-16 school year, records from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (2015) show that this school received a score of 65, indicating that levels of student growth and achievement were below the expected level of growth and achievement.

The two schools described are located 15 miles apart with very similar demographics, yet there is a 15-point difference in the School Performance Profile Scores. The same barriers exist in both districts, but outcomes for students and overall school performance differ significantly. Teachers’ perspectives on student learning and the culture of learning for the two schools also differ.
Statement of the Problem

As described above, schools with similar populations have varying school performance, and these differences exist among schools across the entire region of Western Pennsylvania. Questions remain as to why some schools perform at higher levels than other schools in similar regions with similar populations, and how the perception of leadership practices in terms of what is valued and prioritized within different schools may affect schools that perform well.

Background

Schools with similar demographics in rural Western Pennsylvania vary in their School Performance Profile scores (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). Questions remain as to what accounts for these differences and how leadership practices influence students’ ability to learn and perform at higher levels.

Peter Senge’s (1990) theory of learning organizations explains how individuals within organizations create structures to help them learn and adapt to changing conditions. All learners within the organization have shared goals. Team learning rather than individual learning is the focus. Organizations with individuals who learn together are more likely to perform at higher levels than organizations with individuals who learn in isolation (Senge, 1990).

Complementing Senge’s theory of learning organizations, Jantzi and Leithwood (1995) identify six dimensions of leadership associated with school improvement: Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations. These six dimensions have the
potential to build high levels of commitment within organizations (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995).

In both these frameworks, the need for personal motivation also exists and questions remain as to what leads individuals to act in a particular way toward a desired outcome. Bandura (1977) theorized self-efficacy as the idea that behavioral changes are the result of one’s belief in his or her ability to reach a goal. An individual’s motivation is related to how he or she cognitively represents the outcomes he or she desires. The individual has to believe he or she has the ability to carry out the behavior that is necessary to reach the outcome. It is possible for an individual to believe an outcome is possible but not believe he or she can perform in a way that is necessary to reach the outcome (Bandura, 1977). Further study and analysis is needed in regard to how school leadership practices may influence self-efficacy within learning organizations. Determining what leadership practices teachers and principals believe influence school performance and analyzing how these beliefs vary between teachers and principals in relation to school performance may provide insight into the influence of leaders to encourage teacher self-efficacy and to create an organization in which employees learn together in order to reach high levels of school performance.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to research the relationship between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about the extent to which leadership practices influence school performance in general and for higher, lower, and middle level performing schools. This study examined how leadership practices perceived by teachers and principals to influence school performance were linked to higher achieving schools. The beliefs of
teachers and principals in regard to leadership behaviors were not assumed to be documented leadership behaviors within their schools. Teachers’ and principals’ perceptions about the extent to which they believe particular leadership practices influence school performance were collected and analyzed. Jantzi and Leithwood’s six dimensions of leadership were used to frame this study. Teachers and principals were asked to rate how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. The results of the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions were correlated to each School Performance Profile to see if a relationship existed. Similarities as well as differences between higher, middle, and lower performing schools were examined.
**Research Questions**

1) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?

2) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?

3) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance?
4) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?

**Hypotheses**

This study was based upon the following hypotheses:

1) Null hypothesis- No differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance.

2) Null hypothesis- No differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools.

3) Null hypothesis- No relationship exists between what leadership practices teachers believe will influence school performance and school performance.

4) Null hypothesis- No relationship exists between what leadership practices principals believe will influence school performance and school performance.

5) Alternative hypothesis- Differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance.

6) Alternative hypothesis- Differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influences school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools.

7) Alternative hypothesis- A positive relationship exists between leadership practices teachers believe will influence school performance and school performance.

8) Alternative hypothesis- A positive relationship exists between leadership practices principals believe will influence school performance and school performance.
Significance of the Study

Knowing more about the leadership practices teachers and principals believe will influence school performance enables school leaders to be more effective when trying to foster teacher self-efficacy and the development of a learning organization. The variables included in the study are based on the belief that leaders have the ability to promote positive change within organizations.

This study is significant for the following reasons:

1. Results from this study may provide principal preparation programs with information to consider about the importance of perception in regards to leadership practices, especially the differences that may exist between what principals and teachers believe will have the most influence on school performance. Programs that train principals are vitally important to the future of public education. While most programs provide courses in effective supervision, few programs teach future principals how to apply and carry out leadership practices aligned with what teachers believe to influence improved school performance.

2. The information from this study has the potential to provide districts with elements to consider in regard to school leadership, particularly leadership practices that teachers and principals believe influence school performance. Correlations of statistical significance found with higher performing schools may provide direction for leaders of lower performing schools. Knowing more about how leadership practices are believed to influence human behavior
within educational institutions will better equip principals to lead schools toward improved performance.

**Research Design**

Information about what junior-senior high school teachers and principals value in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance were collected through a survey and categorized with Jantzi and Leithwood’s (1995) six dimensions of leadership. The sample including junior-senior high schools with fewer than 800 students represented the general population of rural high schools in Western Pennsylvania.

The first 24 items in the survey asked teachers to what extent they agree that leadership behaviors influence school performance on a scale of one to five. The scale included the following indicators of influence: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. A score of one indicated the teacher or principal strongly disagrees that the leadership practice influences school performance, and a score of five indicated the teacher or principal strongly agrees that the leadership practice influences school performance. Survey questions focused on the six dimensions of leadership: Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995).

The survey also contained three additional optional questions. Participants were asked to select two of the six leadership dimensions they believed were most important and two of the six leadership dimensions they believed were least important regarding school performance. Participants were also asked what other leadership behavior they believe most influences school performance. Through quantitative analysis using
Pearson product-moment correlation, the results of the surveys overall as well as the results for each dimension of leadership were compared to individual School Performance Profile scores to determine if relationships existed. Independent sample t-tests were used to determine if differences exist between what leadership dimensions teachers and principals believe influence school performance. ANOVA analysis was used to determine if differences existed between the leadership dimensions teachers and principals believe influence school performance for higher, middle, and lower performing schools. The additional questions were summarized and analyzed using descriptive statistics.

**Assumptions**

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The teachers’ responses of their perceptions of principal leadership were honest and valid, as the survey is self-administered.

2. The teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance were accurately measured. The survey consisted of six dimensions of leadership that included Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). The actions behind these practices were translated into behavioral statements. The survey was piloted to determine sound psychometric properties.

3. This study was suitable for correlational research, independent t-tests, and analysis of variance. Correlational research attempts to show a relationship between two or more variables, and analysis of variance attempts to show
differences between mean scores for subgroups of the population. The researcher assumes that the variables in this study could have been obtained from a sample of the larger population.

**Definitions of Terms**

The following terms and concepts were essential for the purpose of this study and were defined as follows:

Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader aimed at promoting cooperation among staff and assisting them to work together toward common goals” (p. 5).

High Performance Expectations- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior that demonstrates the leader’s expectations for excellence, quality, and high performance on the part of staff” (p. 5).

Identifying and Articulating a Vision- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her school, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with his or her vision of the future” (p. 4).

Intellectual Stimulation- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader that challenges staff to reexamine some of the assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed” (p. 5).

Providing an Appropriate Model- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood as “Behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for staff to follow consistent with the values the leader espouses” (p. 5).
Providing Individualized Support- Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood as “Behavior on the part of the leader that indicates respect for staff and concern about their feelings and needs” (p. 5).

School Performance Profile- A performance measure for educational institutions calculated on a 100-point scale that includes indicators of achievement, closing the achievement gap, growth, attendance rates, promotion rates, and graduation rates (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015).

**Organization of the Study**

In chapter one, the background of the study is outlined and the theoretical framework explained. The purpose of the study and the significance of studying teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance are presented and the research questions are stated. An overview of the procedures, assumptions, and definitions of terms are included. Chapter two contains a review of literature related to the study. Chapter three contains the description and selection of the population and the sample, an explanation of instrumentation and data collection, and a description of the survey instrument. The data are described and analyzed in Chapter four. Chapter five contains a summary, discussion, and implications for future research on teachers’ and principals’ perspectives of valued leadership in relation to school performance.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to the Literature Review

Principal leadership practices are deeply embedded in all aspects of school performance and continues to remain important for school reform. Examining what teachers and principals believe most influences a school’s performance in terms of leadership practices will add valuable information to the existing body of research for school leadership as well as school reform.

The following sections will review literature related to school reform, perceptions of leadership, the importance of leadership, teachers’ perceptions, effective practices of school leaders, and the validity of the School Performance Profile. The theoretical orientation for the study will also be outlined.

School Reform

Political School Reform Initiatives of the Past

A review of school reform efforts from the past 60 years sheds some light on the evolution and the direction of current school reform within the United States. This section outlines the political agendas regarding education from the Reagan administration to the present day Trump administration, along with factors that may have limited the effectiveness of reform movements.

Prior to Ronald Reagan’s presidency, the Soviet Union launched the world’s first artificial satellite, Sputnik, in 1957. This accomplishment revealed how much the Soviet Union was progressing with technology and exacerbated the United States’ fears and concerns during the Cold War. Mathematics, science, engineering, and foreign language
learning became increasingly important throughout the United States’ efforts to win the Cold War and continued to be emphasized for global competitiveness. Government funding for schools was increased during the time of the Cold War because of the focus to get ahead of other countries in technology for warfare (Johanningmeier, 2010). During the 1960s, schools in America had more access to funding and less government control than at any other time in history (Rist, 1974).

In 1983, President Ronald Reagan’s National Commission on Excellence in Education called for school reform efforts in their report, *A Nation at Risk*. The focus remained on developing future citizens to compete in the global economy and emphasized academic achievement and educational standards (Johanningmeier, 2010).

The National Commission on Excellence in Education consisted of politicians, business leaders, and educators, who began with the preconceived notion that schools were not meeting the needs of America’s youth. The committee was charged with collecting information from teachers, making site visits, and speaking with business leaders about the preparedness of newly hired employees. The report did not paint a positive picture of American education; rather, it called for change and school reform for future generations (Good, 2010).

The report gained a lot of attention because of how it was designed and communicated. The reform effort addressed all the claims, criticisms, and proposals that had been made toward education since the end of World War II. The need for reform had been created as American students’ achievement scores compared to international students fell significantly from the 1960s to the 1980s (Johanningmeier, 2010). Although the report was successful in calling attention to problems in education, it lacked
follow-through and failed to address the identified problems. For example, the report focused solely on high school and did not address pre-high school reform. The report communicated an unclear message to the leaders of school reform (Good, 2010). The initiatives that followed sent varied and different messages to school leaders.

Later initiatives provided school leaders with a clearer focus, but it was very narrow in scope. Kaufman (1989) recalled one proposal, the Regular Education Initiative (REI), from the Reagan-Bush era. The administration was criticized for this proposal, as it focused on a narrow but highly emotional issue that distracted the public’s attention from deeper analysis of larger educational issues. REI was based on the assumption that improving education for all students would provide the most benefit to students with disabilities. This initiative pushed for all students to be fully integrated into the regular education classroom and for special education categories to be eliminated. Federal regulations were loosened in favor of local control.

The idea of school as a catalyst for social change continued into the Clinton administration. In addition to using school reform to address discrimination against people with disabilities, social issues including poverty, joblessness, and racism were added to the school reform agenda (Lodar, 2006; Tice, 1993). Three pieces of educational legislation were proposed and passed: the Educate America Act (1994), the School to Work Opportunities Act (1994), and the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The Educate America Act and the School to Work Opportunities Act pushed states to develop academic and occupational standards and to enact school reform efforts to ensure students were given sufficient opportunities to meet those standards. The ESEA promoted school-wide reform efforts in place of traditional
pull-out programs that placed students into performance categories. School-wide reform efforts included professional development for teachers to ensure the success of all students in reaching the new standards (Smith, Levin, & Cianci, 1997).

Despite the efforts of the ESEA to promote school reform, achievement gaps continued. As a result of the widening achievement gap, educational policy was an important matter in the 2000 presidential election. Throughout his campaign, George W. Bush outlined an educational reform proposal that included increased accountability, improved literacy, more local control of schools, and parental choice (Marschall & McKee, 2002). Once elected, President Bush signed the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) into law in 2002.

This action re-authorized the ESEA initiatives for six more years with more accountability for schools. The authors of NCLB determined how schools would establish baselines and measure adequate yearly progress (AYP) toward meeting proficiency standards. According to NCLB, all students should be proficient in reading/language arts, mathematics, and science. Schools were required to demonstrate a linear progression toward full proficiency based on baseline percentages of proficiency. The baseline percentages of proficiency were the percent of students who achieved a proficient score of the state assessments. Schools that failed to demonstrate adequate yearly progress for two consecutive years would be identified to be in need of improvement and required to offer free attendance to another public school within the area. Schools failing to meet AYP for three consecutive years would be obligated to continue offering school choice in addition to paying for supplemental tutoring. Schools failing to meet AYP for four consecutive years would be required to choose from one of
three actions that included adoption of new curricular models, replacing staff, or changing leadership at the building level. Schools not meeting AYP for five consecutive years would continue with school restructuring, be changed to a charter school, or be taken over by the state (Fritzberg, 2004; Sanders, 2008).

Although the intent of NCLB was to move all students to set levels of proficiency, complications arose. Due to the increased accountability measures, highly qualified teachers were discouraged from working in lower performing schools. Funds allocated to students in need did not transfer to other schools, so higher-performing schools were less likely to accept eligible Title 1 students from schools not meeting AYP. Acceptance of Title 1 students had the potential to bring down schools’ scores without increasing the resources available to the school. An increasing number of schools were not meeting AYP, and inadequate funding was available to meet NCLB mandates (Darling, 2002; Sanders, 2008).

Due to inefficient implementation and inadequate funding of the mandates required under NCLB, social inequalities continued to widen in public education. As a result, President Obama laid the groundwork for future educational reform within the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009. This act does not ensure funding equity and, therefore promotes school reform for schools most in need. The ARRA continues to include school choice and accountability measures seen in NCLB (Means & Taylor, 2010).

In an attempt to further distribute control over school reform, President Obama gave the states and districts more autonomy under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015. ESSA went into full effect for the 2017-18 school year. The state goal for
Pennsylvania under ESSA is to close the achievement gap over 13 years. The lifespan of the goals go to 2029-30. Pennsylvania is using 2014-15 as the baseline year for student achievement and growth data because that was the first year of the new standards. This goal spanning over 13 years is meant to follow a cohort of students from Kindergarten through twelfth grade. The standardized tests used to determine proficiency rates include PSSA, Keystone, and PASA exams. The number of tests given is not being reduced through ESSA, but the time spent on testing is being reduced due to fewer test questions. The ESSA plan also includes accountability goals for career readiness and school attendance which also span over 13 years (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2018).

Under ESSA, states are required to reform their lowest performing schools, but they are able to choose their own intervention strategies with approval from the Department of Education. While states are required to adopt rigorous academic standards, they will no longer be required to select any particular set of standards. Time will tell whether or not all states and districts will take advantage of the leeway granted to them through ESSA, or if they will choose to continue to follow the parameters that have been previously been put into place with oversight at the federal level (Klein, 2016).

Rist (1974) argued that the lack of success has also been a result of the political processes within the United States and believed those more centrally concerned, such as teachers, students, and parents, needed to be directly involved to provide ideas. The people working most closely with the students need to be directly involved in the decision making for school reform. Political leaders should not be making decisions for school reform in isolation. Hirschland and Steinmo (2003) also addressed the complications associated with political processes, particularly in the area of education.
policy. Educational policy has a history of being incoherent and inconsistent, as it is forever wavering back and forth between centralized and decentralized control. This inconsistency has continually impeded educational reform efforts over the course of history.

Further complications associated with school reform may stem from the nature of local school boards depending on the presence or absence of certain characteristics. The presence or absence of these characteristics in school board members may influence initiatives within the schools. The principals are often tasked with leading the initiatives set by school board members. Unfortunately, initiatives set by school boards may or may not be in the best interest of the overall school. A literature review by Land (2002) revealed characteristics of school boards linked to low student achievement that included micromanagement, role confusion between the school board and the superintendent, interpersonal conflict and bickering among board members, trust and open communication between the board and the superintendent, personal agendas, not following the proper agenda process and the chain of command, staging to the public, and having limited commitment to improving the way in which they govern. In contrast, school boards associated with higher academic achievement include a focus on policy and support of student achievement, the absence of micromanagement, collaboration with the superintendent, enabling the superintendent to function as the Chief Executive Officer as well as the instructional leader, open communication with all stakeholders, adoption of an adequate yearly budget, purposeful goal setting, and long tenure of board members and superintendents.
Complications of School Reform

Large scale school reform efforts continue to pose challenges for school leaders. Many challenges face public schools today including lack of adequate funding, ineffective educational policy, lack of accountability for teachers, influences of charter schools, and ineffective school leadership (Hall, 2006; Smarick, 2010; Guhn, 2009; Tienken, 2011). These factors may influence the perception of leadership within schools and inhibit leaders from being effective.

Proper funding is necessary to carry out school reform (Hall, 2006; Smarick, 2010). In some states, funding has been low which limits the ability to provide students with the opportunities to academically succeed. However, past educational research does not show a relationship between spending and achievement. Increased funding is often accompanied by mandates that further “squeeze” existing school resources (Hall, 2006). Smarick (2010), for example, discussed how the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) was created to support school reform. Through this act, $100 billion of new federal grant funds were given to help schools initiate and sustain improvement. Unfortunately, the majority of the funds were used to balance budgets and sustain current educational practices. Schools received money simply for having students. States were not required to provide information as to how the money was spent. According to Smarick (2010), “The federal government can make states and districts do what they want to, but it can’t make them do it well” (p. 5).

Much of the framework and expectations for student achievement are a result of educational policy. The U.S. government’s past strategies for generating change has been a combination of incentives and optional reforms that has not resulted in improving
schools (Smarick, 2011). One (controversial) example of school reform is the implementation and funding of charter schools, which were to act as laboratories for public schools. Charter schools were created to provide a venue in which innovative educational and instructional practices could be piloted on a small scale (Smarick, 2008; Tienken, 2011). If these innovations were found to be effective at raising student achievement, they would be adopted by the public schools. Charter schools were to work in harmony with public schools. The introduction of charter schools and the sharing of best practices did not, however, cause improvement in public school student achievement (Smarick, 2008). The charter school movement is looking more like big business. With the competition imposed by charter schools and the reality of school choice on the rise, traditional public schools may not have adequate resources to sustain themselves. The monetary resources that have been given to the local public schools in the past are being reallocated to the charter schools. This reality could potentially destroy many local public schools. School leaders in the public schools are continually trying to do more with less resources and financial support (Tienken, 2011).

When considering the possibility of successful school reform, the element of organizational change must be considered. Dotger and Mangram (2008) identified the impact of personal dynamics within an organization during times of change. The thoughts and affective responses of every individual shape the thoughts and actions of others within the school. The success or failure of school reform efforts has been dependent upon these dynamics, which contribute to the challenge of promoting change.

By looking toward states and countries that have had success with school reform, educators can gain insight into what has been effective (Hamann, 2005; Pyhalto, Soini, &
Maine and Vermont have led national efforts in school reform. Historically, education has been more of priority in these states, which has helped them to raise student achievement. The reform efforts adopted by these states favored local control for school governance (Hamann, 2005).

Internationally, Finland and Norway have been leaders in educational reform efforts. Principals in these countries most often emphasize pedagogy as the core focus of school reform which keeps the focus of teachers on academics. Chief Educational Officers tend to consider technical and financial factors to be more critical in school reform efforts. However, any successful reform efforts studied in Finland have carefully considered and aligned pedagogical, technical, and financial resources (Pyhalto, Soini, & Pietarinen, 2011). A recent study involving Norwegian teachers suggests a positive attitude toward competency aims because the teachers clearly articulate what each student must work on to make progress in learning (Ramburg, 2014). This study also highlights the importance of supporting teachers as agents of change in reform efforts, particularly efforts to improve educational practices.

Many schools in China have implemented successful school reform. One study in particular examined communication used by school leaders. A personal approach of caring and understanding was found to facilitate better communication. Clear communication may have helped buffer some of the uncertainties that are inevitable in school reform efforts (Siu, 2008).

Countries and states that have implemented successful school reform efforts tend to create systems that enable school leaders to continually assess and refine their efforts in a very systematic and purposeful way (Rouse & Kemple, 2009; Weston, 2009). In
order for school leaders to be successful, they need a system through which they can continually learn and adapt.

Weston (2009) advocated for Alan Bain’s self-organizing school model as a way to achieve this goal. This model promotes the idea of systems using feedback to reinforce, refine, or discontinue a current practice and has six principles that involve a common schema for teaching and learning: simplifying rules with a focus on accomplishing more by doing less, using feedback to drive change, networking, collaborating, and dispersing control within a sound design that embeds all of these principles. Schools that become successful learning organizations have a thoughtful and systematic approach to ensure that analyzed outcomes were accurate and valid. Rouse and Kemple (2009) discussed the importance of differentiating between “outcomes and impacts” (p.5). They noted that “outcomes were the result of many factors such as the individual’s motivation, ability, interest, family support, health, prior academic experiences, the quality of the current school, and, in the case of a study of a reform strategy, the reform itself” (p. 5). The impacts were the effects from any of these factors. To properly assess impacts, valid benchmarks need to be identified to control for any factors that may have influenced the impact. Valid benchmarks provided teachers with accurate information to adapt their instructional approaches and respond continually to student needs (Rouse & Kemple, 2009).

As important as systems are for implementing change, teacher’s actions toward reform efforts are ultimately a choice (Joselowsky, 2009; Peterson, 2008). Originally reformers thought that once student performance was made known, the leaders would make the changes that follow reforms. This assumption could not be farther from reality.
School reform efforts are complex. Part of the complexity is the human element of student choice and engagement (Peterson, 2008). Joselowsky (2009) explored the importance of student engagement within school reform efforts. The students were active participants in creating the learning environment that enabled them to reach academic success. Students helped decide what school-wide issues the student-leadership would address. All students took part in monitoring their own progress with learning.

School leaders need to reform policy to support the vision, mission, and goals of the district (Weston, 2009). Successful reform will require school administrators to act as change agents by involving all stakeholders in the decision-making process and continually working to improve the educational practices of each and every teacher within the school district. The importance of improving pedagogy and student engagement cannot be stressed enough (Ramburg, 2014). If school leaders are able to create a working atmosphere where reform efforts are continually refined in a systematic and purposeful way, the school district will become a true learning organization (Weston, 2009).

**Perception of Leadership**

Followers’ perception of their leaders may influence the effectiveness of leadership practices. Ladkin (2013) conducted a phenomenological study to examine how we know when they are being led or when they are leading. This project was based on Maurice Merleau-Ponty’s understanding of perception, which is based on the idea that perception is a full-body experience and that it is reciprocal. The more we perceive, the more we are aware of being perceived. Data were gathered through a single case study of a leader and his staff in an organization in the United Kingdom. Not all members of the
organization liked the leader, but they all had an opinion of him and still felt a duty to respond to his requests. His followers always felt his presence. The leader consistently took note of how people within the organization were feeling and tried to find ways to help. Findings showed that not all perceptions had to be good to create a feeling of commitment. The leader spent a lot of time contemplating about his staff, and his staff spent a large portion of time thinking about him. The subjective part of leadership that surfaced throughout this study was trust between the leaders and the followers. Effective leaders motivated for the good of everyone, and the followers in turn supported the leader’s new vision.

Furthermore, a leader’s social-emotional intelligence affects the followers’ perception of the leader (Moore, 2009; Sun, Wang, & Sharma, 2014; Williams, 2007). Moore (2009) used educational research to support his opinion that school leaders need to have high levels of social emotional intelligence. Leaders with well-developed social emotional intelligence are able to establish a culture within the organization that is necessary for change. Emotions run high during the change process. Stress, anxiety, anger, and frustration are common. Leaders who are able to show empathy are better equipped to deal with emotions in order to build trust and cooperation.

In addition, Williams (2007) examined the social intelligence characteristics of outstanding principals in city schools. These principals demonstrated higher levels of social intelligence in the areas of developing the strengths of others, promoting change, and fostering collaboration. They were aware of how teachers may react to changes, and provided support for consistency. Findings from a study of effective leadership practices in China (Sun, Wang, & Sharma, 2014) further support this notion. The results of teacher
surveys showed they expect school principals to be considerate of their individual needs and to show empathy. Effective principals from this study were perceived to be good decision makers who followed through with action. These principals also had a strong moral compass and demonstrated a level of comfort when interacting with their followers.

**Teachers’ Perceptions**

Teachers’ perceptions may influence behaviors of principals, which may contribute to the overall effectiveness of the school. Recent studies on teachers’ perceptions have generally focused on teachers’ perceptions of school leaders’ trustworthiness. Teachers’ perceptions of trusting relationships with school leaders have been found to have a significant positive relationship on school performance (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016; Kosar, 2015; Pogodzinski, 2015; Thibodeaux, Labat, Lee, & Labat, 2015).

Teachers who trust their principals have a greater sense of commitment to the organization (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016; Kosar, 2015). Eliophotou-Menon and Ioannou (2016) examined the link between transformational leadership and motivation for learning, trust in leadership, job satisfaction, as well as overall commitment to the organization. Two themes emerged in their quantitative review. A transformational leadership style was found to be associated with the perception of trust, and trusting relationships between school leaders and teachers may have a significant impact on school performance.

The themes in the review of literature were supported by an earlier study that examined the relationships between teacher professionalism, teachers’ perception of trust
in their principals, and teacher self-efficacy. Positive relationships were found between teachers’ perceptions of trust in school principals and teacher professionalism. Teachers who perceived their principals as trustworthy were more active stakeholders when enacting reform (Kosar, 2015).

Feelings of trust toward school principals have also been shown to positively affect teachers’ actions (Pogodzinski, 2015) as well as their attitudes about the profession as a whole (Thibodeaux et al., 2015). Pogodzinski (2015) examined how school leadership affects how often new teachers and mentor teachers interact as well as the focus of their interactions. Results from the study revealed more frequent interactions with new teachers and their mentors with a focus on curriculum when the school leader was perceived positively and did not interfere with the core work of the teachers. Thibodeauz et al. (2015) examined how principal leadership behaviors may impact teacher retention. Results showed that leadership behaviors demonstrated by principals affected the retention of new teachers. A majority of the teachers surveyed indicated that teachers feel more pressure from administrators than they do from the pressure of teaching a state-measured subject area.

In addition to trust, teachers’ perceptions of principals’ leadership behaviors have also been examined. The perception of strong leadership behaviors of principals have been found to have a significant positive relationship on several factors that impact school performance (Eliophotou-Menon, 2014; Munir & Khalil, 2016; Ozdemir, Sezgin, & Kilic, 2015; Sisman, 2016) as well as teachers’ overall job satisfaction (Eliophotou-Menon, 2014). In general, principals tend to perceive their own leadership behaviors more positively than teachers do (Ozdemir et al., 2015; Sisman, 2016), but primary
school teachers were found to have more positive perceptions of their administrators’ leadership practices than did teachers from secondary schools (Sisman, 2016).

A longitudinal study conducted by Goff, Gutrie, Goldring, and Bickman (2014) examined how teachers’ perceptions of specific principals’ leadership behaviors can be utilized to improve individual school leader performance through feedback and coaching. Coaching was found to have a positive effect on the development of principal leadership behaviors. Principals who participated in coaching sessions enhanced their leadership skills and grew as professionals. These findings suggest that using coaching, along with feedback from teachers, provides an opportunity for principals to engage with their teachers in order to enhance their leadership. The coaches used teachers’ feedback to facilitate principals’ self-reflection. The self-reflection helped the principals to prioritize issues in their schools and to initiate change.

**Importance of Leadership**

In addition to examining effective leadership practices, the importance of leadership is also considered. Successful leadership may have the potential to establish organizational values and affect the followers’ commitment in an organization.

Values-based leadership is important because of the importance of role-modeling leadership. Brown and Treino (2014) found “ethical role models during a leader’s career to be positively related to their subordinates-rated ethical leadership” (p.587). A key component of leadership is to instill commitment within followers for the greater good of the organization. Social learning theory helps to explain why individuals are likely to behave in a similar manner to their role models. People tend to exhibit the same behaviors that are modeled. This dynamic makes it important for higher level managers
and administrators to exhibit ethical behavior and decision making because of the influence they have on their followers due to their position (Brown & Trino, 2014).

Leadership also influences individual commitment of the employees. When a supervisor embraces the culture of the organization, their leadership behaviors tends to elicit feelings or support. Feeling supported motivates employees to stay in the organization (Canals, 2014). In contrast, when a supervisor does not embrace the culture of the organization, their leadership behaviors tends to lead to lower levels of perceived support within the organization (Stinglhamber, Marique, Caesens, Hanin, & Zanet, 2015). Affective commitment is the desire to remain in an organization because of an emotional attachment. Organizations with stronger feelings of support have greater affective commitment and less turnover (Ozgur & Asuman, 2015). Further examination of leadership practices may give insight into what makes some leaders more effective than others.

**Effective School Leadership Practices**

Jantzi and Leithwood (1995) identified three exemplary leadership practices that deal directly with the inward actions of the leaders themselves: Providing Stimulation, Building Vision, and Modeling Behavior. Leaders who provide stimulation require followers to reexamine prior assumptions about how their work can be performed. Leaders who build vision have the ability to persuade individuals toward common goals driven by passion and possibility. Leaders who model behavior lead by example in line with desired organizational values. These three exemplary leadership practices are carried out by leaders who exhibit strong moral and ethical values and also demonstrate resiliency, persistence, and courage. These characteristics have all been identified in
leaders in higher achieving schools (Garza, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson, & Merchant, 2014; Ladkin, 2013; Parkes & Thomas, 2001). The following empirical studies review leadership practices in relation to school performance and student achievement.

The school principal’s ability to communicate direction toward a vision to influence teaching and enhance community support is critical to successful schools (Garza, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson, & Merchant, 2014; Schulte, Slate, & Onwuegbuzie, 2010). Louis and Robinson (2012) examined how the work of school principals is affected by their perceptions of mandates from the state and federal government. Principals who have a more positive attitude about external mandates and policies are judged to be stronger instructional leaders who are able to articulate a shared vision in a positive manner. Findings from Ladkin’s phenomenological study furthermore enhance the notion of creating a shared vision by clarifying that not all perceptions of followers have to be positive to create a strong feeling of commitment.

Effective leadership also involves the element of empowerment. Empowerment requires a leader to give authority to individuals to do something and has been found to significantly change the behavior in an organization (Hairon & Goh, 2015; Lai, 2014; Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Wood & Goverender, 2013). Principals who adopt a participatory-growth approach that emphasizes teacher learning through teacher leaders were more likely to empower teachers to use their leadership capacity (Lai, 2014). Hairon and Goh (2015) noted that teacher empowerment does not mean an absence of principal control, nor does it mean complete principal control. Teacher empowerment is most successful when decision-making powers are shared but still coordinated by the leaders. These findings suggest the importance for school leaders to give authority to all
stakeholders and offer time and support for adjustments throughout the change process (Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Wood & Govender, 2013).

Psychological empowerment requires skilled persuasion from the leader. Lowenhaupt (2013) analyzed how a principal’s use of persuasive language facilitates school improvement. Professional knowledge was used to justify, common sense was used to get the teachers to set boundaries for students, and appealing to the authority of the district and the state was used to argue for standardization of teaching practices across classrooms. The principal used pathos, or emotional appeal, to emphasize accomplishments as well as challenges: For example, she used pathos to communicate urgency to act on improvement efforts and to pursue better instructional programs. This principal used ethos, or ethical appeal, to remind stakeholders of their moral obligation to focus on doing what is right for the students.

Being open to other ideas and providing consistent feedback are critical for leaders to gain high levels of trust (Freire & Fernandes, 2015; Sanzo, Sherman, & Clayton, 2010; Tahir, Musah, Al-Hudawi, Yusof, & Yason, 2015; Torsoen, 2010). Freire and Fernandes (2015) concluded that having access to information about the values and goals of the administration, receiving specific information on what is needed for individuals to improve, having time to complete what is required, being given opportunities to be intellectually challenged, and being given opportunities for collaboration with colleagues are necessary structures for empowerment, which leads to trust. Tornsen (2010) revealed that principals who possess the ability to make themselves vulnerable when sharing information are more likely to promote positive interactions that are reciprocated. Having a solid knowledge base of pedagogy and legal issues is found to
be helpful in building reciprocal trust with teachers. Findings from Tahir et al. (2015) highlighted the importance of experience, as teachers from the highest performing schools and teachers with the most years of experience show the highest levels of trust toward their principals.

These studies highlight the importance of providing stimulation, building vision, and modeling behavior. Jantzi and Leithwood (1995) also identified three exemplary leadership practices that reflect the outward actions of leaders, which include holding high expectations, setting group goals, and providing support. Leaders who hold high expectations and set group goals foster collaboration and build effective teams. Leaders who provide individual support recognize individuals’ feelings and needs throughout the learning process. The following empirical studies review these leadership practices in relation to school performance and student achievement.

Establishing high expectations and setting group goals require open systems. Fostering open systems that support teamwork and collaboration to establish a culture of learning is directly related to higher levels of student achievement (Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, & Sleegers, 2015; Crum, Sherman, & Myran, 2009; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Merchant, Arlestig, Garza, Johansson, Murakami-Ramalho, & Tornsen, 2012; Mulford, Kendall, Ewingtom, Edmunds, Kendall, & Silins, 2008).

Leithwood and Mascall (2008) examined the effect of shared leadership on certain teacher variables and student learning. Results showed a significant association between higher levels of student achievement and collective leadership. Findings highlight the importance of school leaders providing teachers with opportunities to learn from each other. However, principals still took responsibility for improving the knowledge and
the skills of the teachers. Although teachers perceived distributed leadership in their schools, a hierarchy of control was still evident. Findings from Crum (2009) support these earlier findings in his examination of the leadership practices of 12 successful elementary school principals from Virginia. Interview data reveal the importance of principals developing teachers into leaders while continuing to serve as the instructional leaders of the school.

Utilizing teacher-leaders is critical for improving teaching and learning and providing individual support to teachers (Gigante & Firestone, 2007; Hauge, Noreness, & Veday, 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013). Gigante and Firestone (2007) studied how teacher leaders from New Jersey helped improve mathematics and science teaching. Results of this study revealed the importance of teacher leaders focusing on deepening teachers’ knowledge about instruction. To be successful, teacher leaders need time to collaborate and learn from each other’s strengths. They need acknowledgement and reinforcement from their administrators and high levels of trust with teachers. Successful teacher leaders need to be directly involved in the coordination and reinforcement of professional development.

Klar and Brewer (2013) conducted a single case study of a successful school principal in the southeast who also supports the use of teacher leaders and teacher collaboration. Challenges facing this school included low academic achievement, limited budgets, geographical isolation, and the demands of accountability with high stakes testing. The school had many incompetent teachers who did not like students and believed they could not achieve academically. This principal had high expectations of teachers but helped them along the way. He encouraged teachers to collaborate, share
good instructional practices, and observe one another in the classroom. He provided professional development related to teaching and learning, and he connected the school to the wider community by providing opportunities for parents to see and learn about what their children were doing in school.

In addition to individual teacher leaders, leadership team can be utilized. Hauge, Noreness, and Veday (2014) examined the effects of implementing a leadership team to enhance school improvement and educational change. The team consisted of four teachers who were all heads of key departments. The principal assisted with leading the team but did not interfere with their daily work. This study highlights the importance of school principals to give up some authority to create opportunity for bottom-up improvement processes through shared leadership. Fostering collaboration and teamwork requires support, encouragement of participants, and celebration of their accomplishments.

The following studies highlight the power of a school leader who encourages the heart of his or her followers. Principals who preserve their role as an instructional leader and create incentives for learning and quality teaching are better able to provide meaningful and encouraging feedback to teachers and raise student achievement (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Gale & Bishop, 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Ozdemir, Sezgin, & Kilie, 2015; Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, & Brown, 2013; Ward, 2013).

Odhiambo and Hii (2012) examined teachers’ students’, and parents’ perceptions of effective school leadership at a girls’ parochial school in Sydney, Australia. This particular school was chosen because it had been recognized as a successful school with
effective past and present school leaders. Stakeholders identified areas of responsibility they perceived as having the most effect on teaching and learning, which included observing teachers and providing feedback for improvement.

Later, Ward (2013) conducted a single case study considering the leadership practices of a first-year principal at an elementary school in Southern California. The purpose of the study was to identify the leadership practices that led to increased student achievement. The principal provided support for teachers by providing feedback from daily classroom visits, implementing professional learning communities, and providing teachers with release time to observe other teachers. In contrast to supportive leadership, a case study examining the leadership practices of an ineffective principal in Texas revealed how a laisse-faire approach to instructional leadership led to inconsistencies with the schools and between classrooms. Teachers were left feeling unsupported (Bloom, 2011).

These studies highlight the importance of holding high expectations, setting group goals, and providing support (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Although information such as this is not directly included in the measurement of school performance in Pennsylvania, it may be an underlying condition of higher performing schools. School performance in Pennsylvania is measured by the School Performance Profile (SPP) Score. This score contains elements in addition to student achievement (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). The next section outlines the indicators in the SPP score and highlights the surrounding issues.
Validity of the School Performance Profile Score

The effectiveness of teachers and principals in Pennsylvania is currently being measured by the School Performance Profile (SPP) score (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). The SPP score was developed in response to the demand for more accountability. Educational experts and government officials have been striving to develop valid measures of school performance for educational institutions to determine the effectiveness of teachers and school leaders. To examine the validity of the SPP score for measuring school performance, one must understand the anatomy of the SPP score and to consider all surrounding issues.

The question for how student performance is best measured continues to be debated. Determining what constitutes successful knowledge, ability, and work remains elusive (Steeves, Hodgson, & Peterson, 2002). The state of Pennsylvania has implemented the SPP score to measure student performance. According to the Pennsylvania Department of Education (2015), 50 percent of the SPP score is comprised of indicators of academic achievement and closing the achievement gap. Indicators that look at academic achievement include the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA), Pennsylvania Alternate System of Assessment (PASA), Keystone assessments, industry standards-based competency assessments, grade three reading proficiency, and Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)/American College Testing (ACT) college-ready benchmarks. The indicators that look at closing the gap for achievement examine the school’s progress toward proficiency for students who have not been performing at the proficient level. Forty percent of the School Performance Profile (SPP) score includes “Indicators of Academic Growth/Pennsylvania Value Added Assessment System
(PVAAS).” PVAAS scores measure the school’s ability to grow students from year to year. The remaining ten percent of the SPP score consists of graduation rates, promotion rates, and attendance. Schools can earn extra credit points for students who score advanced on state assessments, a three or higher on Advanced Placement exams, and a four or higher on International Baccalaureate exams. The SPP score is a quantitative academic score based on a 100-point scale (Understanding Academic Performance, para.1). An overwhelming majority of the SPP score is based on high-stakes testing as a measure of student performance, so analyzing the effects of such testing on students’ performance is imperative. Arguments supporting the validity of the SPP score as a measure of student performance as well as arguments against should be considered to determine true validity. Research findings that do not support the use of high-stakes testing will be outlined along with the potential detrimental effects. Supporting research for the measures included with the SPP score will also be reported.

One criticism of high stakes testing continues to form around the potential consequence of teaching to a test. An assessment is meant to measure a student’s mastery of the content. If teachers teach to the test, they compromise the true intent of the assessment by using it as a curricular tool rather than a measure of mastery. If schools make the choice only to teach students to the level of any given test, they compromise the opportunity for students to master content and transfer their knowledge in future situations (Steeves et al., 2002).

As schools plan for the future, keeping students in school and developing them into dedicated learners poses another challenge. The pressure of high stakes testing may discourage students who are struggling learners to stay in school if they do not feel they
are being successful. Schools may consider more retention of students in an effort to gain time for remediation of skill, so they have a chance of success with the established exams. A common practice such as this can lead to further discouragement of students as learners and reduce graduation rates (Bracey, 2009).

Along with reduced graduation rates comes lack of student success. According to Steeves et al. (2009), “there is no evidence that passing the current tests equates to student success. Actually for many, it may even mean the opposite” (p. 233). Preparing students simply to succeed on a test does not necessarily show that they are able to think critically and solve problems.

Considering the significance of high stakes test scores and the SPP score, the standard error of measure may be a factor. Tieken (2011) reported the debate surrounding the conditional standard error of measure (CSEM). The CSEM defines the difference of the student’s recorded score from the student’s possible score; “the CSEM reflects the amount of scale-score imprecision of individual test scores” (p. 299). Depending on the day, an individual student’s score may vary. If the variation of the score is significant enough to rate the student below proficiency, the score could have detrimental effects on the student’s future.

The use of exit exams also has the potential to limit a student’s future potential. Warren (2009) noted how the use of exit exams improves the value of the high school diploma. Preparing students for exit exams such as the Keystone tests puts pressure on teachers, parents, and the community to increase student achievement. Exit exams also help avoid the pitfall of giving students credit for seat time alone. The students have to demonstrate their learning in an agreed upon fashion (Warren, 2009). These findings
help refute the argument that schools should not be evaluated on single test scores but rather multiple measures over the course of a year. The relationship between curricular measures and academic achievement measured by high-stakes testing is valuable, but academic growth is also considered when looking at learner performance.

The inclusion of PVAAS data in the calculation of the SPP score gives school districts credit for student improvement over the course of the year. The PVAAS scores provide schools with a quantifiable means to measure and track students over time (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). Andrejko (2004) reinforces the importance of using student data to show growth of students from one year to another. Evaluating students in terms of growth diminishes factors such as race or socioeconomic status.

No person learns or demonstrates learning in exactly the same way. The variability with which one learns makes it difficult to agree upon valid measures of school performance. Narrowing the curriculum and limiting opportunities for mastery of content, discouraging learners, and relying on a single test are valid concerns surrounding the use of high-stakes testing to measure student performance (Steeves et al., 2002).

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

Learning Organization (Peter Senge)

Peter Senge’s (1990) learning organization theory, described in his seminal work *The Fifth Discipline*, provides the overarching theoretical framework for this study. This model examines how individuals within an organization create structures to help them learn and adapt to changing conditions. All learners within an organization have the same goal. Team learning rather than individual learning is the focus (Senge, 1990).
Learning Organization model has five components that include personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking (Evans, Thorton, & Unsinger, 2012). Systems thinking is necessary for the first four components to work together. Personal mastery is helping employees to develop as professionals to meet their full potential. Mental models deal with individual beliefs and assumptions that impact a person’s behavior. If an employee’s mental model goes unchallenged, the perception of how things should be may inhibit the organization’s capacity to create a different future. The goal of developing a shared vision is for all stakeholders to embrace the same vision. Effective team learning requires all members to think deeply about critical issues in a coordinated fashion. Systems thinking is the ability for all members to realize that each decision and action within an organization affects many other elements of the organization. Senge’s theory of a learning organization has been used in many studies as a framework for examining leadership styles, in particular leadership styles in relation to team learning. Implementation of learning organization interventions and employee satisfaction and the benefits of systems thinking have also been explored.

One quantitative study examined the relationship of laissez-faire leadership and transformational leadership with team learning. Laissez-faire is a hands-off leadership style and transformational is an inspirational leadership style. A relationship between laissez-faire leadership and team learning was found. A hands-off approach to leadership provides freedom and autonomy, which allows all team members to be part of the decision making process and to think creatively and solve problems (Raes, Decuyper, Lismont, Van den Bossche, Kyndt, Demeyere, & Dochy, 2013).
Senge’s theory has also been used to determine how structures of an organization affect the culture and employee satisfaction (Kiedrowski, 2006). An intervention was put into place in one division of a large corporation. Nominal data gathered from the intervention group was correlated with an employee satisfaction survey. Statistically significant gain scores and positive correlations existed between the organization intervention and employee satisfaction. Initiatives that seem as though they come from the top appear more like orders, whereas the learning organization intervention created a sense of empowerment needed for true learning.

Individual parts of Senge’s learning organization theory have also been used to examine leadership in relation to organizational success. Shaked and Schechter (2013) linked systems thinking to successful school leadership. Systems thinking enabled school principals to navigate through challenging and complex situations.

**Self-Efficacy (Albert Bandura)**

Self-efficacy in this study focuses on how an individual’s belief in his or her own abilities may influence his or her contribution to the performance of an organization. Bandura (1977) theorized that behavioral changes are the result of a person’s belief in his or her ability to reach a goal. Personal beliefs that result in behavioral changes come from four sources, including personal accomplishments, vicarious experiences, persuasion from others, or one’s mental state. Motivation is related to how individuals cognitively represent the outcomes they desire. Individuals have to believe they have the ability to carry out the behavior that is necessary to reach the outcome. It is possible for individuals to believe an outcome is possible but not believe they can perform in a way that is necessary to reach the outcome. People who persist as they work to acquire
outcomes will eventually eliminate such negative beliefs. The strength of an individual’s self-efficacy is often determined and influenced by the amount and timing of failures. If an individual experiences repeated success as a result of sustained effort, an occasional failure will likely not be taken as hard and may even further strengthen self-motivation. Succeeding at relatively easy tasks does nothing to increase one’s self-efficacy, but mastery of more challenging tasks will raise a person’s perceived self-efficacy.

Bandura further clarified how individuals perceive their own efficacy. People change beliefs about their efficacy by considering goals they have accomplished in the past, comparing themselves to others, and the level of persuasion they have received from others. The deepest level of self-inefficacy results from a perceived loss of control without knowing how to regain control of the situation. As people evaluate their self-efficacy, they are concerned with the knowledge, skills, and strategies the outcome will require more than the effort the outcomes will require (Bandura, 1986).

A couple of studies have examined how gaining knowledge, skills, and strategies for teaching have influenced teachers’ self-efficacy (Shoulders and Krei, 2015; Yoo, 2016). Shoulders and Krei (2015) explored individual teacher characteristics that may influence teachers’ self-efficacy in regard to specific aspects of teaching such as student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. A significant difference was found between the different levels of education and teachers’ efficacy in instructional practice and classroom management but not in student engagement. Further analysis showed that higher levels of education resulted in higher levels of teacher self-efficacy for instructional practices and classroom management. Yoo (2016) further analyzed the effect of professional development on teacher self-efficacy. Online
professional development education was found to positively influence teacher self-efficacy because of knowledge gained and changes in the teachers’ point of reference.

Teacher autonomy (Rahimi & Riasati, 2015) and teacher leadership (Angelle & Teague, 2014) have also been examined in relation to teacher efficacy. Rahimi and Riasati (2015) found a positive relationship between teacher autonomy and their perceived efficacy to influence decisions in the school. However, no significant relationship was found between teacher autonomy and instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to obtain parental involvement, and efficacy to promote a positive school climate. Findings from Angelle and Teague (2014) revealed a strong positive relationship between teacher leadership and teacher efficacy. Formal leadership roles such as head teachers were not as strong of indicators as were the less formal aspects of teacher leadership in the form of collaboration or other extra roles teachers may take in an informal way. The results of this study attest to the importance of professional learning communities as well as other avenues for collaboration and shared decision making.

In addition to studying self-efficacy, Bandura found patterns of how groups worked together. He observed that groups who had more confidence in their abilities were associated with greater success. When the members of a team are assured of their specific role, the team is more likely to reach greater success (Bandura, 1977). In 1993, Bandura concluded that higher levels of student achievement result when teachers believe their combined abilities matter to student outcomes. Bandura called this notion “collective efficacy.” When teachers’ collective efficacy increases, the academic achievement of students increases as well (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Goddard, Hoy, &
In 2016, Hattie concluded that teacher collective efficacy was the primary factor that influences student achievement. Collective efficacy influences how teachers think about and act on their pedagogical practices (Bandura, 1993). When a strong sense of collective efficacy exists within a school, the culture of the school reflects high expectations for student achievement. A culture with high expectations tends to focus on student learning rather than passive compliance. Teachers who teach within a culture of collective efficacy tend to think about what they did or what they did not do when students do not learn (Hattie & Zierer, 2018).

Conversely, when teachers lack a sense of collective efficacy, the school culture usually reflects complacency. Teachers who lack a sense of collective efficacy believe they have little influence over student achievement. These negative perceptions result in teachers giving up on trying new approaches to teaching and lowering their expectations for student learning (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Teachers who teach within a culture that lacks collective efficacy tend to blame student ability levels and other external factors for lower student achievement (Gibbs & Powell, 2011).

**Six Dimensions of Leadership (Jantzi and Leithwood)**

The implementation of Senge’s learning organization theory requires effective leadership practices. Jantizi and Leithwood (1995) outlined six dimensions of leadership, including Building Vision, Modeling Behavior, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). The six dimensions of leadership align with the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards adopted by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA). The ELCC standards are used in school leadership preparation programs to
provide candidates with experiences that require use of leadership skills in a meaningful district-level context. Candidates need exposure to experiences that will bridge their course content with real life experiences. The ELCC standards were developed and adopted in 2011 (National Policy Board for Educational Administration., 2011). The connection of the ELCC standards to Jantzi and Leithwood’s six dimensions of leadership will be outlined below.

**Modeling behavior.** Modeling behavior involves establishing principles for how people within the organization will be treated and how agreed-upon outcomes will be pursued. Leaders who Model Behavior act as role models for others to follow and live by the principles they have established (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Modeling Behavior aligns with ELCC standard 5.0, which requires school leaders to act with integrity and in an ethical manner to ensure accountability and to serve as role models within the district. Moral decision making is of the utmost importance. Within this standard, leaders are expected to act with fairness and to be transparent as goals within the district are pursued (National Policy Board for Educational Administration., 2011).

**Building vision.** Leaders who build a vision are able to create a picture of an ideal organization and communicate their vision to others. Having a vision alone is not enough; leaders need to have the ability to continually communicate the vision. Building vision requires passion and the ability to persuade others to work toward creating something new. A significant part of the process is getting others excited about potential possibilities that lie ahead when the vision becomes reality. Leaders need to have a clear idea of what the results will be and what the organization can become within the context of the vision (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Building Vision aligns with ELCC standard
1.0, which requires school leader candidates to develop and communicate a shared vision. Leaders must be able to collect data, set goals, and implement a plan to reach the desired goals that are in line with the vision (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2011).

**Providing stimulation.** When leaders provide intellectual stimulation, they challenge their employees to reexamine how things have always been done and to rethink how their work can be done. Providing Stimulation requires leaders who are willing to think in innovative ways and who are willing to take risks. This leadership practice requires leaders who see failures as a necessary part of the learning process (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Providing Stimulation aligns with the ELCC standards 2.0 and 3.0. ELCC standard 2.0 requires leaders to create and evaluate educational programming in the district, and ELCC standards 3.0 requires leaders to evaluate operations and management in the district. Both standards include the need for questioning current programs, systems, and operations in a systematic way and looking for strategies of continuous improvement (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2011).

**Holding high expectations and setting goals.** Holding High Expectations requires providing support and encouragement to bring out others’ best efforts. Holding high expectations aligns with Setting Group Goals, which is rooted in fostering collaboration and team building, and requires leaders who are able to form trusting relationships built on mutual respect. Leaders involve constituents in every aspect of the work, including decision making, planning, implementing, and problem solving (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Holding High Expectations and Setting Group Goals align with ELCC standards 4.0. Within this standard, school leaders promote student success through
collaboration with teachers as well as other community members and stakeholders. Application of this standard involves responding to the needs of the school and the larger community and mobilizing resources within the school and the community. Building positive and productive relationships with teachers, families, and community partners is necessary to meet ELCC standard 4.0 (National Policy Board for Educational Administration., 2011).

**Providing support.** Leaders who recognize individuals’ needs, feelings, and accomplishments provide support. Reaching lofty goals to achieve a vision is hard work, and people in an organization need to be supported as individuals (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). Providing Support aligns with ELCC standard 6.0. This district level standard focuses on the role of school leaders to act as advocates for students and families by showing concern for their feelings and needs. Having leaders who understand and respond to the larger political, social, and economic context within the school district goes a long way toward showing students and their families that they are valued team members (National Policy Board for Educational Administration., 2011).

**Synthesis and Critique of Previous Research**

While a number of qualitative (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Crum et al., 2009; Garza et al., 2014; Hauge et al., 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013; Ladkin, 2013; Lai, 2014; Lowenhaupt, 2013; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Parkes & Thomas, 2001; Sanzo et al., 2010; Tornse, 2010; Ward, 2013)) and mixed methods studies (Louis & Robinson, 2012; Schulte et al., 2010; Williams, 2007) have examined leadership practices in schools, fewer quantitative studies exist (Bruggencate et al., 2015; Hairon & Goh, 2015; Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Merchant et al.,
2012; Mulford et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2014). Only three (Friere & Fernandes, 2015; Gulcan, 2012; Ozdemir et al., 2015) examine the perception of principal leadership practices from the perspective of teachers. None of the reviewed studies examined teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices they believe have the most influence on school performance and the relationship of their beliefs to the actual performance of schools.

In an attempt to raise the level of school performance, measures of accountability have been implemented across the country. In Pennsylvania, the School Performance Profile is one such measure. A review of literature suggests a link between effective leadership practices and improved performance. The results of this study will add to the body of knowledge regarding effective leadership practices and school performance with a particular focus on teachers’ and principals’ perceptions.

Summary

This study asked teachers and principals to rate how much they believe certain leadership practices influence the performance of a school. The results of the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices in how they influence school performance were correlated to the school performance profile to see if a relationship exists. Similarities as well as differences between higher, middle, and lower performing schools were examined. The review of literature related to the study includes research on school reform, perception of leadership, the importance and perception of leadership, teachers’ perceptions, effective practices of school leaders, and the validity of the School Performance Profile, as well as the theoretical orientation for the study. The methodology to be used to collect and analyze the data is outlined in Chapter III.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Chapter III describes the methods for collecting and analyzing data for this study. The purpose of the study and the research questions are outlined. The population and the survey instrument for exemplary leadership practices are described. The final portion of the chapter contains a summary of how the data were analyzed.

Statement of the Problem

School performance indicators vary for school districts in similar regions of Pennsylvania. The School Performance Profile Score (SPSS) varies from school to school where the demographics are very similar. Questions remain as to why some schools are performing at higher levels than other schools in similar regions with similar student populations.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of teachers and principals in regard to the leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. The beliefs of teachers and principals in regard to leadership behaviors were not assumed to indicate documented leadership behaviors within their schools. Teachers and principals were asked to rate how much they agree that certain leadership practices influence school performance. Jantzi and Leithwood’s (1995) six dimensions of leadership informed the study and were used to analyze the data. These leadership practices include Building Vision, Modeling Behavior, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations. Leaders who build vision are able to create a picture of an ideal organization and communicate their vision to others. Leaders
provide stimulation when they push individuals within the organization to continually reexamine how things are done. Leaders hold high expectations when they set group goals and follow through with support to meet the goals. Leaders with a strong moral compass provide a model of behavior for others, and leaders who recognize the needs and feelings of individuals provide support (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1995). The results of the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices and the relationship of those practices to school performance were correlated to the SPPS to see if a relationship existed. Similarities as well as differences between the teachers’ and principals’ perspectives for higher, middle, and lower performing schools were also examined.

**Research Questions**

This quantitative research study attempted to answer the following questions through a survey of teachers and principals.

1) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?

2) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?

3) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance?

4) What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?
Design of Study

This quantitative study examined teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of what leadership practices they believe most influence school performance, as measured by the School Performance Profile score. The teachers’ and principals’ beliefs regarding how leadership practices influence school performance were collected via survey.

A belief that school leadership correlates with improved school performance is documented in literature on successful school reform efforts (Rouse & Kemple, 2009; Weston, 2009) and effective leadership practices (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Crum et al., 2009; Garza et al., 2014; Hauge et al., 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013; Ladkin, 2013; Lai, 2014; Lowenhaupt, 2013; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Parkes & Thomas, 2001; Sanzo et al., 2010; Tornse, 2010; Ward, 2013). Motivation to further explore the relationship between leadership and school performance led the researcher to examine teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of what leadership practices they believe have the most influence on school performance within higher, middle, and lower performing schools.

For the survey, a quantitative scale was used to correlate the scores of the higher, middle, and lower performing schools. Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used to determine what relationships, if any, exist between how much teachers and principals believe certain leadership practices influence school performance and the SPP score. An independent sample t-test was used to examine differences between the beliefs of teachers and principals. Analysis of Variance was used to examine differences between the beliefs of teachers and principals within lower, middle, and higher performing schools. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize data collected from three additional questions within the survey (Pyrczak, 2006).
Population

The setting of this study was rural Pennsylvania, and the population was school
principals and teachers. The sample surveyed for this study consisted of teachers and
principals working in junior-senior high schools with an enrollment of 800 students or
fewer. The highest performing schools were schools that had School Performance Profile
Scores that ranged from 77 to 80 for the 2016-17 school year. The middle performing
schools were schools that had School Performance Profile Score that ranged from 65 to
70 for the 2016-17 school year. The lowest performing schools were schools that had
School Performance Profile Scores that ranged from 60 to 63 for the 2016-17 school year
(Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). Surveys were distributed to as many
junior-senior high schools as possible that contained grades seven through 12 and had a
student enrollment of fewer than 800 students. The highest performing school had 310
students enrolled, with 52 percent of the students being economically disadvantaged and
13 percent of students receiving special education. The middle performing district had
290 students enrolled, with 58 percent of the students being economically disadvantaged
and 25 percent of students receiving special education. The lowest performing district
had 233 students enrolled, with 57 percent of the students being economically
disadvantaged and 20 percent of students receiving special education. The student
enrollment for all other ethnic groups (American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Black or
African American, Hispanic, Multi-Racial, and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific
Islander) was less than 4 percent. The highest, middle, and lowest performing district
included in the study were within 100 miles of each other and none of them were Title I
schools. The teachers and principals represented the general population of teachers
working in rural middle schools and high schools in Western Pennsylvania (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015).

After obtaining site approval from the superintendent to survey teachers and principals, and a list of faculty email addresses from the superintendent or his or her designee, the researcher sent the surveys via email with a short description of the purpose of the study. The first page of the Qualtrics® survey contained the informed consent form (see Appendix C). An email containing the narrative in an attachment was sent to each participant along with a link to the Qualtrics® survey. Teachers and principals who completed the survey had the option of entering into a drawing for a $100 Amazon gift card. Due to widely varied experiences and knowledge for teachers and school principals, a large sample was necessary to ensure valid results. The teachers and principals were representative of the population.

**Instrumentation**

The survey instrument for this study is a modification of the Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) (Valentine & Lucas, 2000), which was developed from Jantzi and Leithwood’s (1996) six dimensions of leadership. The items were used with written permission from Jantzi, Leithwood, Valentine, and Lucas (see Appendix D). The survey consisted of 24 questions asking teachers to rate how much they believe each of the leadership practices influences school performance. The questions in the survey focused on the six dimensions of leadership:

1. **Building Vision.** Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader aimed at identifying new opportunities for his or her school, and developing, articulating, and inspiring others with his or her vision of the
future” (p. 4). The questionnaire included five items under Building Vision with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .88.

2. Modeling Behavior. Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood as “Behavior on the part of the leader that sets an example for staff to follow consistent with the values the leader espouses” (p. 5). The questionnaire included three items under Modeling Behavior with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .86.

3. Setting Group Goals. Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader aimed at promoting cooperation among staff and assisting them to work together toward common goals” (p. 5). The questionnaire included five items under Setting Group Goals with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .80.

4. Providing Support. Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood as “Behavior on the part of the leader that indicates respect for staff and concern about their feelings and needs” (p. 5). The questionnaire included five items under Providing Support with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .82.

5. Providing Stimulation. Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior on the part of the leader that challenges staff to reexamine some of the assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed” (p. 5) The questionnaire included three items under Providing Stimulation with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .77.

6. Holding High Expectations. Defined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996) as “Behavior that demonstrates the leader’s expectations for excellence, quality,
and high performance on the part of staff” (p. 5). The questionnaire included three items under Holding High Expectations with a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .73.

The teachers and principals were asked to rate each leadership practice on a scale of one to five. The scale included the following indicators of influence: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree. A score of one indicated the teacher or principal strongly disagrees that the leadership practice influences school performance, and a score of five indicated that the teacher or principal strongly agrees that the leadership practice influences school performance. The highest score for the entire survey was 102. The highest possible score for Building Vision was 25, Modeling Behavior was 15, Setting Group Goals was 25, Providing Support was 25, Providing Stimulation was 15, and Holding High Expectations was 15. For the entire survey, a high score was 79 or above, a moderate score fell between 54 and 78, and a low score was any score of 53 or lower. For subsections with 25 possible points, a high score was 20 or above, a moderate score was 16 to 19, and a low score was 15 or below. For subsections with 15 possible points, a high score was 12 or above, a moderate score was 10 to 11, and a low score was nine or below. The survey had been used and validated in previous studies to examine transformational leadership and the perceptions of teachers and principals regarding leadership practices in relation to school performance and/or school culture (Cruickshank, 2013; Miles, 2002; Rossal, 2014; Truitt, 2002).

Three additional short answer response questions were added to the survey. Two of the questions asked teachers and principals to select two of the six leadership dimensions (Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing
Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations) they believe are most important in regard to school performance and two of the six leadership dimensions they believe are least important in regard to school performance. The survey also included a question asking teachers and principals what other leadership behavior they think most influences school performance.

**Pilot Study Results**

In order to establish reliability and validity, the researcher conducted a pilot study to ensure the instrument would provide the information desired by the researcher. The survey was sent to 13 teachers and principals who were not included in the sample. The researcher analyzed the results by correlating the even-numbered responses to the odd-numbered response items to determine if there was a correlation coefficient greater than .75. The teachers and principals involved in the pilot were also asked to rate the questions on a scale of one to four asking if they strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree for how they measured the associated effective leadership practice. The researcher looked for nine out of 13 participants to score each question with a three or a four.

The Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) (Valentine & Lucas, 2000) was based on the work of Jantzi and Leithwood (1996). The questionnaire items were used (with modifications described above) with written permission from Jantzi, Leithwood, Valentine, and Lucas. The survey for this study consisted of 24 questions asking teachers to rate how much they believe each of the leadership practices influences school performance. The researcher distributed the survey to 11 teachers and two principals for the pilot study; all thirteen completed and returned the survey. To ensure reliability, the
researcher analyzed the results by correlating the even-numbered responses to the odd-numbered response items to determine if there was a correlation coefficient greater than .75. The questions focused on the six dimensions of leadership:

1. **Building Vision.** Principal behavior aimed at creating, communicating, and inspiring others toward a shared vision for the future. The questionnaire included five items under Building Vision, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .90 was determined from the pilot study.

2. **Modeling Behavior.** Principal behavior that sets an example for all team members with consistent values. The questionnaire included three items under Modeling Behavior, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .90 was determined from the pilot study.

3. **Setting Group Goals.** Principal behavior that promotes collaborative work toward a common goal. The questionnaire included five items under Setting Group Goals, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .87 was determined from the pilot study.

4. **Providing Support.** Principal behavior that respects the feelings and needs of the other team members. The questionnaire included five items under Providing Support, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .90 was determined from the pilot study.

5. **Providing Stimulation.** Principal behavior that challenges team members to reexamine assumptions from the past and to look for new ways of doing things in the future. The questionnaire included three items under Providing
Stimulation, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .92 was determined from the pilot study.

6. Holding High Expectations. Principal behavior that demonstrates high performance expectations. The questionnaire included three items under Holding High Expectations, and a reliability coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) of .93 was determined from the study.

To ensure validity, 11 teachers and two principals in the pilot were also be asked to rate the questions on a scale of one to four to indicate if they strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree on how they measured the associated effective leadership practice. The researcher looked for nine out of thirteen participants to score each question with a three or a four. Each of the 24 statements in the survey received a rating score of a three or four from a minimum of nine out of the thirteen participants from the pilot study. Table 1 displays how the research questions corresponded to survey questions in the study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Survey Questions Analysis</th>
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| 1. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance? | Building Vision 1-5  
Modeling Behavior 6-8  
Setting Group Goals 9-13  
Providing Support 14-18  
Providing Stimulation 19-21  
Holding High Expectations 22-24 |
| 2. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools? | Building Vision 1-5  
Modeling Behavior 6-8  
Setting Group Goals 9-13  
Providing Support 14-18  
Providing Stimulation 19-21  
Holding High Expectations 22-24 |
| 3. What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance? | Influence of leadership behaviors overall 1-30  
Building Vision 1-5  
Modeling Behavior 6-8  
Setting Group Goals 9-13  
Providing Support 14-18  
Providing Stimulation 19-21  
Holding High Expectations 22-24 |
Building Vision 1-5  
Modeling Behavior 6-8  
Setting Group Goals 9-13  
Providing Support 14-18  
Providing Stimulation 19-21  
Holding High Expectations 22-24 |
Data Collection Procedures

After obtaining approval for this study from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), superintendents from 67 school districts were contacted for permission to conduct the survey study. A cover letter introducing the study, along with instructions for completing the survey, was given to the school superintendents. Site approval was obtained for each of the school districts whose teachers and principals were surveyed for this study. Along with site approval, the researcher requested a faculty email list serve for the purpose of distributing the survey to the teachers and the principals.

During the 2017-18 school year, the researcher provided a brief overview of the study along with the survey online via the teachers’ and principals’ email addresses. The survey was emailed to 800 teachers and principals using the online survey tool Qualtrics®. A statement was attached to the survey to ensure the participants that completing the survey was voluntary. The survey began with a statement of consent asking if participants agreed to take the survey. If a teacher or a principal selected that they did not agree to complete the survey, participants were automatically directed to the end of the survey. Surveys completed and returned were analyzed to determine teachers’ and principals’ perceptions for how much they believe leadership practices influence the performance of a school. Higher, middle, and lower performing schools were included in the study.

Participants were asked if they would like to be entered into a drawing for a $100 gift card from Amazon for completing the survey. Three gift cards were given away to three different participants entered into the drawing. Participants were asked if they would like to be entered into the drawing at the end of the Qualtrics® survey. If
participants indicated they wished to be included in the drawing, they were asked to supply an email address. The researcher supplied the winners of the drawing with an electronic gift card. The researcher kept the email addresses confidential to protect the privacy of the participants and did not use the email addresses for any purpose other than distributing the gift cards.

**Data Analysis Procedures**

Correlational, independent sample *t*-test, analysis of variance, and descriptive statistics methodological design were used for this research study. Through quantitative analysis using the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient, the results of the survey were compared to the School Performance Profile score of each teacher’s and principal’s building to determine if a relationship existed. Since the researcher was examining six different leadership dimensions in relation to the school performance profile, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was also used to analyze each leadership practice in relation to school performance. Independent sample *t*-tests were used to compare the teachers’ perceptions and the principals’ perceptions to see if any differences existed. The average mean scores between teachers and principals were compared as well as the mean average scores for each of the six dimensions for higher, middle, and lower performing schools using ANOVA. The data were analyzed with SPSS software. Tables and graphs were used to represent the data and aid in analysis. The tables summarized the correlational and the comparison data, and scatter plot graphs were included to provide visual representation of the correlations. Data from the three additional questions were summarized using descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages (Pyrczak, 2006). Table 2 displays the data collection process and analysis for the research.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Data Collection</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?</td>
<td>Survey Demographic Information and Perception of Leadership Behaviors + School Performance Profile Score (SPP)</td>
<td>Independent sample t-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?</td>
<td>Survey Demographic Information and Perception of Leadership Behaviors + School Performance Profile Score (SPP)</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Protecting Human Subjects and Permissions**

Participation in this study was completely voluntary, and individuals who participated in the study had the option to withdraw at any time without penalty. Participants were able to end their participation in the survey by leaving a question blank or exiting out of the on-line survey. There was minimal risk for subjects who completed the survey. The data collected from each participant were not anonymous but remained confidential. The completed surveys will be stored by the researcher in a securely locked location and destroyed after the required three years, per IRB protocol. The identity of
participants could have been potentially known to the researcher through triangulation of the demographic data including sex, current position held within the school district, and the name of the school district. The researcher assured confidentiality by not disclosing the identity of participants, aggregating data across all participants, and publishing data only in aggregate. The data were not identified by participant. Permission to use the six dimensions of leadership was given by the researchers Dr. Doris Jantzi and Dr. Kenneth Leithwood.

**Expected Findings**

It was expected that the study would show a correlation between teachers’ and principals’ rating of perceived influence of leadership behaviors to school performance and the School Performance Profile Score. A correlational finding was expected for the overall teacher and principal rating score as well as for the rating score for each of the six leadership behaviors. Similarities were expected to be revealed through Analysis of Variance for the average mean scores for principals and teachers in the higher performing schools for the six leadership behaviors. Differences were expected to be revealed through Analysis of Variance for the average mean scores for principals and teachers in the middle and lower performing schools for the six leadership behaviors. It was expected that this study could lead to additional research investigating the impact of aligning what is believed by teachers and principals to influence school performance and forming actionable goals based on the shared beliefs. Additionally, this study could lead to a focus on the use of leadership behaviors from a shared set of beliefs to promote improved school performance.
Summary

This study asked teachers and principals to rate how much they agree that certain leadership practices influence school performance. The results of the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices and their influence on school performance were correlated to the SPP score to see if a relationship existed. Similarities as well as differences among higher, middle, and lower performing schools were examined.

The sample included teachers and principals from junior-senior high schools (grades seven through twelve) with fewer than 800 students. A survey modified from Valentine & Lucas (2000), which itself was based on Jantzi and Leithwood’s (1996) six dimensions of leadership, was used to gather quantitative data for further analysis.

Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used to analyze the data to determine what relationships if any exist between how much teachers and principals agree leadership practices influence school performance in relation to the actual School Performance Profile. Independent sample t-tests were used to analyze differences between the perceptions of teachers and the perceptions of principals, and Analysis of Variance was used to analyze the differences among teachers and principals for higher, middle, and lower performing schools. The data were analyzed with SPSS software. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages, were used to analyze data from the three additional questions in the survey. The results of this study may add to the existing body of research on school leadership regarding the context of the teacher and principal perceptions in regard to school performance.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher and principal perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. This chapter outlines the results of the quantitative analysis of the four research questions that were discussed in Chapter III.

While a number of current qualitative (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Crum et al., 2009; Garza et al., 2014; Hauge et al., 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013; Ladkin, 2013; Lai, 2014; Lowenhaupt, 2013; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Parkes & Thomas, 2001; Sanzo et al., 2010; Tornse, 2010; Ward, 2013), mixed method (Louis & Robinson, 2012; Schulte et al., 2010; Williams, 2007), and quantitative (Bruggencate et al., 2015; Hairon & Goh, 2015; Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Merchant et al., 2012; Mulford et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2014) studies have examined leadership practices in schools, very few have examined the perception of principal leadership practices from the perspective of the teachers and principals (Friere & Fernandes, 2015; Gulcan, 2012; Ozdemir et al., 2015). None of the previously reviewed studies examined teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of what leadership practices they believe have the most influence on school performance.

This gap in research led the researcher to design a quantitative study to examine teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. A review of literature suggests a link between effective leadership practices and higher school performance, including Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, and
Sleegers (2015), Crum, Sherman, and Myran (2009), Jacobson (2011), Leithwood and Mascall (2008), Merchant, Arlestig, Garza, Johansson, Murakami-Ramalho, and Tornsen (2012), Mulford, Kendall, Ewingtom, Edmunds, Kendall, and Silins (2008), among others. The results of this study will add to the body of knowledge regarding effective leadership practices and school performance with a particular focus on teachers’ and principals’ perceptions.

This study specifically examined differences in the perception of leadership between teachers and principals for lower, middle, and higher performing schools. The relationships between how much teachers and principals believe specific leadership behaviors influence school performance and participating schools’ School Performance Profile scores (SPP) were also studied. The SPP scores, as well as all the school level statistics, were collected from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) data files for the 2016-2017 school year. Chapter IV explains the data analysis procedures used in this study and presents the findings for each of the four research questions:

1. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?
2. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?
3. What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance?
4. What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?
The researcher utilized a variety of statistical tests for this quantitative study. An independent sample $t$-test was used to determine if differences exist between the ratings of the teachers and the principals for how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. A one-way ANOVA was used to determine if differences exist between teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership for lower, middle, and higher performing schools. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients ($r$) were used to determine if correlations exist between the teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about how much certain leadership behaviors influence school performance and the School Performance Profile score (SPP). Statistical analysis was conducted through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 for Windows. This chapter shares the results as well as the data analysis techniques used to answer the four research questions contained within the study.

**Demographics of the Sample**

Sixty-seven junior-senior high schools from 26 counties in Western Pennsylvania were invited to participate in the study. All schools contain grades seven through 12 and have fewer than 800 students. The average years of experience of faculty for all participating schools was 10 to 15 years. The researcher obtained site approval to survey teachers and principals from 12 small rural school districts from eight counties in Western Pennsylvania. The lower performing schools received an SPP score between 60.2 and 63.1 for the 2016-17 school year. The middle performing schools received a performance score between 65.2 and 69.8, and the higher performing schools received a performance score between 77.8 and 80.5 (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015) (Table 3).
Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of School Performance for Participating Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>School Performance Profile Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 1</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 2</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 3</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 4</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 1</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 2</td>
<td>67.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 3</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 4</td>
<td>69.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 5</td>
<td>69.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 1</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 2</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 3</td>
<td>80.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Enrollment for the lower performing schools was between 108 and 670 students, with 44 percent to 57 percent of the students being economically disadvantaged and 11.8 percent to 19.7 percent receiving special education services. The middle performing schools had a student enrollment between 290 and 652, with 41 percent to 65 percent of the students being economically disadvantaged and 13.1 percent to 25.1 percent receiving special education services. The higher performing schools had between 310 and 419 students enrolled, with 35 percent to 52 percent of the students being economically disadvantaged and 13.8 percent to 15.0 percent of students receiving special education. All 12 participating schools have an English Language Learner population of less than 1.5 percent (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015) (Table 4).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Group</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Percent Enrollment for Economically Disadvantaged</th>
<th>Percent Enrollment for Special Education</th>
<th>Percent Enrollment for English Learner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 1</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 2</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>0.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 3</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing School 4</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 1</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>25.1%</td>
<td>1.38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 2</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 3</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 4</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing School 5</td>
<td>652</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 1</td>
<td>359</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>0.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 2</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing School 3</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The participating schools were very similar in terms of their lack of diversity by ethnicity. Over 92 percent of students enrolled in all 12 participating school districts were of White descent. The student enrollment for all other ethnic groups (American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Black or African American, Hispanic, Multi-Racial, and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander) was less than 4 percent. (Table 5).
Table 5
Descriptive Statistics of Percent Enrollment by Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>American Indian/Alaskan Native</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Black or African American</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Multi-Racial</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>98.6</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>97.16</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 3</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>94.44</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>96.14</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 1</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>92.76</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>98.14</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>98.32</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>97.81</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 5</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>92.64</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>92.48</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>98.39</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>95.18</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The faculty from all 12 participating schools had between 11 and 19 years of experience in education, averaging 11 to 17 years in their current districts. The dropout rate for all schools was below 2 percent, and the percentage of gifted students for all schools was between 0 and 8 percent (Table 6).
Table 6
Descriptive Statistics of School Specifics

| School Type          | School 1 | School 2 | School 3 | School 4 | School 5 | School 1 | School 2 | School 3 | School 4 | School 5 | School 1 | School 2 | School 3 | School 4 | School 5 |
|----------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Average Years of Educational Experience (in LEA)  | 11.09    | 11.27    | 12.67    | 13.61    | 15.62    | 12.9     | 16.27    | 9.32     | 12.03    | 15.62    | 12.9     | 10.44    | 14.03    | 14.03    | 7.64     | 0.25     |
| Percent of Gifted Students                        | 2.09     | 4.48     | 1.85     | 3        | 4.45     | 1.11     | 3.72     | 2.16     | 2.39     | 4.45     | 1.11     | 2.26     | 7.64     | 7.64     | 0.25     |
| Dropout rate (Percent)                            | 1.9      | 0.88     | 1.77     | 0.79     | 0.47     | 1.77     | 0.23     | 1.23     | 1.39     | 0.47     | 1.77     | 0.92     | 0.25     | 0.25     |
A total of 800 teachers and principals were invited to participate in the study, which resulted in 221 responses to the Qualtrics survey. After removing incomplete responses from the data files, a total of N=185 surveys were completed and submitted to the researcher. The sample was made up of 92 percent teachers (N=170) and 8 percent principals (N=15) (Table 7). Ten percent of participants surveyed were from higher performing districts, 48 percent were from middle performing districts, and 41 percent were from lower performing districts. All participants were over the age of 18 with years of experience ranging from zero to 35 (Table 8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>170</th>
<th>92%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for the Sample by Current Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of School Performance</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Performing</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Performing</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>48.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Performing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scores from the survey developed from Jantzi and Leithwood’s work (1995) were calculated for each of the participants. Results from the surveys indicated that the target population believe leadership has a strong influence on school performance overall. The sample was grouped by current position and level of school performance to determine whether differences exist between how much teachers and principals believe specific leadership practices influence school performance. These differences were also explored for lower, middle, and higher performing schools. The relationship between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about specific leadership practices and school performance were
also analyzed. The findings from this study are grouped according to the research questions listed earlier in the chapter.

**Analysis of Results**

The teachers and principals were asked to rate each leadership practice on a scale of one to five in terms of its influence on school performance. The scale included the following indicators of influence: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, strongly agree. A score of one indicated the teacher or principal strongly disagrees that the leadership practice influences school performance, and a score of five indicated the teacher or principal strongly agrees that the leadership practice influences school performance (Table 9). The School Performance Profile score for each participating school was collected via the public website (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Conversion Chart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Response</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question #1: What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?

Data collected from the demographic portion of the survey instrument was used to determine the position of the participant within the school. Responses from the survey were used to determine how much teachers and principals believe certain leadership behaviors influence school performance. The mean average scores of the teachers and
the principals for each leadership practice were compared using an independent sample $t$-test (Table 10).

Table 10  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>Current Position</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you believe the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?-- Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school.</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you believe the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?-- Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students.</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The independent sample $t$-test was used to determine what differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance. A significant difference was found between teachers and principals regarding the belief that challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school influences school performance. Principals ($M = 4.60$, $SD = .51$) agree more than teachers that challenging teachers to reexamine basic assumptions they may have about their work in school is beneficial ($t (174) = -2.96$, $P<.01$).

A second finding revealed a significant difference between teachers and principals regarding the belief that stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students influences school performance. Principals ($M = 4.75$, $SD = .46$) agree more than teachers that stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students is good practice ($t (174) = -2.63$, $P<.01$). These two findings led the
researcher to reject the null hypothesis that no differences exist between teachers and principals. There was a significant difference based on position regarding beliefs about how much challenging teachers to reexamine basic assumptions about their work in school influences school performance. A second significant difference was found based on position regarding beliefs about how much stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students influences school performance (Table 11).

Table 11
Independent Sample t-Test Comparing Position and Leadership Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Challenging teachers to reexamine basic assumptions they may have about their work in school</td>
<td>-.693</td>
<td>-2.96</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating teachers to think about what they do for students</td>
<td>-.572</td>
<td>-2.63</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Equal variance assumed

This question examined the differences between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs that certain leadership behaviors influence school performance. This test shows that principals feel more strongly than teachers that challenging basic assumptions about their work and stimulating teachers to think about what they do for the students’ influences student performance.

Research Question #2) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?
Data taken from the demographic portion of the survey was used to determine each participant’s position within the district. Responses from the survey were used to determine the leadership practices teachers and principals believe influence school performance. The mean average scores of the teachers were compared to the mean average scores of the principals in relation to individual School Performance Profile scores of the participating schools for the 2016-17 school year. No statistically significant differences were found through the one-way ANOVA. These results led the researcher to fail to reject the null hypothesis that no differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools (Table 12). The average mean scores for all 24 leadership behaviors were all above 3.75. These high average scores indicate that teachers and principals believe each of the 24 leadership behaviors has a strong influence on school performance regardless of the level of performance of the school in which they teach.

Although no statistically significant differences exist between the mean scores for teachers and principals with low, middle, and high performing schools, some differences exist among scores that are of interest to the study of school leadership and school performance. The mean average scores for the five leadership behaviors included in the dimension of Provides Vision or Inspiration were sequentially different. The high performing schools had the highest mean average scores, and the low performing schools had the lowest mean average scores for all five behaviors. The five leadership behaviors under Providing Vision included Displaying both the capacity and the judgment to overcome most obstacles, Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty, Exciting
faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work, Making faculty members feel and act like leaders, and Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from higher performing schools that Providing Vision or Inspiration influences school performance. The average scores for Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty were the lowest for all schools, indicating that it is the least influential behavior in the dimension of Providing Vision or Inspiration.

The middle performing schools had the highest mean average scores for the three leadership behaviors under the dimension of Modeling Behavior. The three leadership behaviors under Modeling Behavior included Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling,” Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education, and Providing good models for faculty member to follow. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from middle performing schools regarding the category of Modeling Behavior and its influence on school performance in comparison to teachers and principals from higher and lower performing schools.

Under the dimension of Providing Individual Support, the behavior of Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work and Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise had sequentially different average mean scores for high, middle, and low performing schools. The high performing schools had the highest mean average scores, and the low performing schools had the lowest mean average scores for this behavior. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from higher performing schools that taking teachers’
opinions into consideration when making decisions and treating teachers as individuals influence school performance.

The mean average scores for the three leadership behaviors included in the dimension of Provides Intellectual Stimulation were sequentially different. The high performing schools had the highest mean average scores, and the low performing schools had the lowest mean average scores for all three behaviors. The three leadership behaviors under the dimension of Provides Intellectual Stimulation included Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school, Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students, and Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from higher performing schools that Providing Intellectual Stimulation influences school performance.

The mean average scores for the three leadership behaviors included in the dimension of Holds High Performance Expectations were higher for middle and high performing schools in comparison to low performing schools. The three leadership behaviors under the dimension of Holds High Performance Expectations included Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty, Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals, and Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from higher and middle performing schools that Holding High Performance Expectations influences school performance.
Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Mean Average Scores for High, Middle, and Low Performing Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Performance Level</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Displaying both the capacity and the judgement to overcome most obstacles (Provides Vision or Inspiration)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty (Provides Vision or Inspiration)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through teamwork (Provides Vision or Inspiration)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making faculty members feel and act like leaders (Provides Vision or Inspiration)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>4.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role (Provides Vision or Inspiration)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling” (Models Behavior)</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of education (Models Behavior)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing good models for faculty members to follow (Models</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>process of developing school goals (Fosters Commitment to Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>process of developing school goals (Fosters Commitment to Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Fosters Commitment to Group Goals)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>process of developing school goals (Fosters Commitment to Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals)</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

82
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation of the school’s program (Provides Individual Support)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise (Provides Individual Support)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work (Provides Individual Support)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs (Provides Individual Support)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school (Provides Intellectual Stimulation)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students (Provides Intellectual Stimulation)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program (Provides Intellectual Stimulation)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(Holds High Performance Expectations)</em></td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school’s faculty as professionals *(Holds High Performance</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations)*</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td>.891</td>
<td>1.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work as the school faculty *(Holds High Performance</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations)*</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>1.115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
This question examined the differences between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs that certain leadership behaviors influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools. Although no statistically significant differences exist between the mean scores for teachers and principals with low, middle, and high performing schools, some unique differences were revealed. Teachers and principals from higher performing schools held stronger beliefs that Providing Vision or Inspiration, Providing Individual Support, Providing Intellectual Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations influences school performance. Teachers and principals from middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that Modeling Behavior influences school performance in comparison to beliefs of teachers and principals from higher and lower performing schools. Overall, the teachers and the principals from higher and middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that the leadership practices of the school principal influence school performance when compared to lower performing school teachers and principals.

Research Question #3) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance

Data collected from the demographic portion of the survey instrument was used to determine the position of each participant within the school. Responses from the survey were used to determine how much teachers and principals believe certain leadership behaviors influence school performance. The survey results for each individual leadership behavior were compared to the School Performance Profile scores for the 2016-17 school year. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was utilized to determine if a correlation exists between the two variables. No significant
positive or negative correlation was found between the dependent variable (SPP) and 23 of the independent variables (leadership behaviors), which indicates that the teachers who hold these perceptions are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools. Because the relationship between variables does not exist, the teachers’ perceptions of these particular leadership behaviors are not likely to account for differences in higher, middle and lower performing schools. A significant positive correlation was found between school performance and teachers’ perceptions that Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise influences school performance. $r$ (159) = .162, $P < .05$. Schools in which teachers feel that using teacher expertise influences school performance tend to be schools with higher School Performance Profile scores. This finding led the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that no relationship exists between what leadership practices teachers believe will influence school performance and actual school performance. There was a significant positive relationship between school performance and teachers’ perceptions that Treating teachers as individuals influences school performance (Table 13).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise</td>
<td>.162*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly agree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** $p < .01$ level
* $p < .05$ level

The following narratives and tables outline the correlational data for teachers on each leadership question within the six leadership dimensions included in this study. The
Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the five independent variables under the leadership dimension of Providing Vision or Inspiration revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of *Displaying both the capacity and the judgment to overcome most obstacles* ($r_{166} = .121, p > .05$), *Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty* ($r_{166} = .078, p > .05$), *Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work* ($r_{166} = .090, p > .05$), *Making faculty members feel and act like leaders* ($r_{166} = .067, p > .05$), and *Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role* ($r_{166} = .090, p > .05$) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that teachers who believe Providing Vision or Inspiration influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 14).

**Table 14**

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Teachers’ Perceptions for Questions for Provides Vision or Inspiration*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1- Displaying both the capacity and the judgement to overcome most obstacles</td>
<td>.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2- Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty</td>
<td>.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3- Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4- Making faculty members feel and act like leaders</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5- Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role</td>
<td>.090</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly agree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Models Behavior...
revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of

*Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”* \((r (164) = .113, p > .05)\),

*Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education* \((r (164) = .004, p > .05)\), and *Providing good models for faculty members to follow* \((r (164) = .034, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that teachers who believe Modeling Behavior influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 15).

Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q6- Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”</td>
<td>.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7- Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8- Providing good models for faculty members to follow</td>
<td>.034</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?  
Strongly agree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5  
** p < .01 level  
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the five independent variables under the leadership dimension of Fosters Commitment to Group Goals revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of *Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the process of developing school goals* \((r (161) = .064, p > .05)\), *Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals* \((r (161) = -.072, p > .05)\), *Using problem solving with the faculty to generate schools goals* \((r (161) = .023, p > .05)\), *Working toward whole faculty consensus in establishing priorities for school goals* \((r (161) = .092, p > .05)\), and
Encouraging faculty members to evaluate their progress toward achievement of school goals \((r (161) = -.004, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that teachers who believe Fostering Commitment to Group Goals influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 16).

Table 16
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation \((r)\) Between School Performance and Teachers’ Perceptions for Questions for Fosters Commitment to Group Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q9- Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the process of developing school goals</td>
<td>.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10- Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11- Using problem solving with the faculty to generate schools goals</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12- Working toward whole faculty consensus in establishing priorities for school goals</td>
<td>.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13- Encouraging faculty members to evaluate their progress toward achievement of school goals</td>
<td>-.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?
Strongly agree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the five independent variables under the leadership dimension of Provides Individual Support were examined. A significant positive correlation was found between the dependent variable of SPP and the independent variable of Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise \((r (159) = .162*, p < .05)\). This finding suggests that teachers who believe treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise influences school performance tend to come from higher performing schools. This difference may further suggest that teachers in higher performing schools are more likely to feel as
though they are treated as individuals with unique needs and expertise. No significant positive or negative correlations were found for the other four independent variables under the leadership dimension of Providing Individual Support. The independent variables of *Providing for extended training to develop teachers’ knowledge and skills relevant to being a member of the school faculty* \( (r (159) = .020, p > .05) \), *Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation of the school’s program* \( (r (159) = .001, p > .05) \), *Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work* \( (r (159) = .101, p > .05) \), and *Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs* \( (r (159) = .002, p > .05) \) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that teachers who believe these leadership behaviors under the dimension of Modeling Behavior influence school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 17).

Table 17

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Teachers’ Perceptions for Questions for Provides Individual Support*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q14- Providing for extended training to develop teachers’ knowledge and skills relevant to being a member of the school faculty</td>
<td>-.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15- Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation of the school’s program</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Q16- Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise</strong></td>
<td>.162*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17- Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18- Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level*
The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Provides Intellectual Stimulation revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of *Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school* \((r (158) = .064, p > .05)\), *Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students* \((r (158) = .153, p > .05)\), and *Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program* \((r (158) = .097, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score.

These findings suggest that teachers who believe Providing Intellectual Stimulation influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 18).

Table 18
*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Teachers’ Perceptions for Provides Intellectual Stimulation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q19- Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20- Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students</td>
<td>0.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21- Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Holds High Performance Expectations revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The
independent variables of *Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty* \((r (158) = .023, p > .05)\), *Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals* \((r (158) = .087, p > .05)\), and *Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty* \((r (158) = .075, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that teachers who believe Holding High Performance Expectations influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 19).

Table 19  
*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Teachers’ Perceptions for Questions for Holds High Performance Expectations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q22- Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q23- Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals</td>
<td>.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q24- Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?  
Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

This question examined the relationship between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance. This test shows a significant positive relationship between school performance and teachers’ perception that *Treating teachers as individuals* influences school performance. Teachers who feel that using teacher expertise influences school performance tend to come from higher performing schools.
Research Question #4) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?

Data taken from the demographic portion of the survey were used to determine each participant’s position within the district. Responses from the survey were used to determine how much principals believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. The survey results for each individual leadership practice were then compared to the School Performance Profile scores for the 2016-17 school year. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($r$) was utilized to determine if a correlation existed between the two variables. No significant positive or negative correlation was found between the dependent variable (SPP) and 23 of the independent variables (leadership behaviors), which indicates that the principals who hold these perceptions are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools. Because a relationship between variables did not exist, the principals’ perceptions of these particular leadership behaviors are not likely to account for the differences in higher, middle and lower performing schools. A significant negative correlation was found between school performance groups and principals’ perceptions of *Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work* ($r$ (14) = -7.64, P<.05). Schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through team work influences school performance tend to be schools with lower School Performance Profile scores. This finding led the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that no relationship exists between what leadership practices principals believe will influence school performance and actual school performance. There was a significant negative relationship between school performance and principals’
belief in the importance of *Exciting faculty with a vision about what is possible through team work* (Table 20).

Table 20

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Principals’ Perceptions of Exciting Faculty with Vision*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work</strong></td>
<td>-.764**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?*

Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The following narratives and tables outline the correlational data for principals on each leadership question within the six leadership dimensions included in this study. The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the five independent variables under the leadership dimension of Providing Vision or Inspiration were examined. A significant negative correlation was found between the dependent variable of SPP and the independent variable of *Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work* (r (14) = -.764**, P < .01). This finding suggests that principals who believe that the characteristic of exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work influences school performance tend to come from lower performing schools. No significant positive or negative correlations were found for any of the other four independent variables. The independent variables of *Displaying both the capacity and the judgment to overcome most obstacles* (r (14) = .227, p > .05), *Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty* (r (14) = -.170, p > .05), *Making faculty members feel and act like leaders* (r (14) = .042, p > .05), and *Giving the
faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role \((r (14) = -.122), p > .05\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that principals who believe these examples of Providing Vision or Inspiration influence school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 21).

Table 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1- Displaying both the capacity and the judgement to overcome most obstacles</td>
<td>.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2- Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty</td>
<td>-.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3- Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through teamwork</td>
<td>-.764**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4- Making faculty members feel and act like leaders</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5- Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role</td>
<td>-.122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?

- Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Models Behavior revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling” \((r (14) = .163, p > .05)\), Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education \((r (14) = .388, p > .05)\), and Providing good models for faculty members to follow \((r (14) = .222, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that principals who believe Modeling Behavior influences school performance
are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 22).

Table 22  
**Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Principals’ Perceptions for Questions for Models Behavior**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q6- Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”</td>
<td>.163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7- Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education</td>
<td>.388</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8- Providing good models for faculty members to follow</td>
<td>.222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5  
** p < .01 level  
* p < .05 level*

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the five independent variables under the leadership dimension of Fosters Commitment to Group Goals revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the process of developing school goals \( (r (14) = .030, p > .05) \), Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals \( (r (14) = .101, p > .05) \), Using problem solving with the faculty to generate schools goals \( (r (14) = .073, p > .05) \), Working toward whole faculty consensus in establishing priorities for school goals \( (r (14) = -.222, p > .05) \), and Encouraging faculty members to evaluate their progress toward achievement of school goals \( (r (14) = .383, p > .05) \) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. 

These findings suggest that principals who believe Fostering Commitment to Group Goals influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 23).
Table 23

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Principals’ Perceptions for Questions for Fosters Commitment to Group Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q9- Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the process of developing school goals</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10- Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11- Using problem solving with the faculty to generate schools goals</td>
<td>.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12- Working toward whole faculty consensus in establishing priorities for school goals</td>
<td>-.222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13- Encouraging faculty members to evaluate their progress toward achievement of school goals</td>
<td>.383</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?
Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Provides Individual Support revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of Providing for extended training to develop teachers’ knowledge and skills relevant to being a member of the school faculty (r (14) = .098, p > .05), Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation of the school’s program (r (14) = -.008, p > .05), Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise (r (14) = .170, p > .05), Taking teacher’s opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work (r (14) = -.066, p > .05), and Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs (r (14) = -.301, p > .05) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that principals who believe
Modeling Behavior influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 24).

Table 24

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q14- Providing for extended training to develop teachers’ knowledge and skills</td>
<td>.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relevant to being a member of the school faculty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15- Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation</td>
<td>-.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the school’s program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16- Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise</td>
<td>.170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17- Taking teachers opinions into consideration when initiating actions that</td>
<td>-.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affect their work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18- Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs</td>
<td>-.310</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?
Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Provides Intellectual Stimulation revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of Challenging teacher to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school \((r (14) = -.005, p > .05)\), Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students \((r (14) = .362, p > .05)\), and Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program \((r (14) = -.096, p > .05)\) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that principals who believe Providing Intellectual Stimulation influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 25).
Table 25  
*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Principals’ Perceptions for Provides Intellectual Stimulation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q19- Challenging teacher to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school</td>
<td>-.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20- Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students</td>
<td>.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21- Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program</td>
<td>-.096</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance? Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5
** p < .01 level
* p < .05 level

The Pearson Correlation coefficients between the dependent variable (SPP) and the three independent variables under the leadership dimension of Holds High Performance Expectations revealed no significant positive or negative correlations. The independent variables of Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty (r (14) = .456, p > .05), Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals (r (14) = .279, p > .05), and Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty (r (14) = .232, p > .05) were not significantly correlated to the dependent variable of SPP score. These findings suggest that principals who believe Holding High Performance Expectations influences school performance are just as likely to come from higher performing schools as they are to come from lower performing schools (Table 26).
Table 26
*Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (r) Between School Performance and Principals’ Perceptions for Questions for Holds High Performance Expectations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Behaviors</th>
<th>SPP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q22- Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty</td>
<td>.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q23- Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals</td>
<td>.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q24- Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty</td>
<td>.232</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?*

Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5

** p < .01 level

* p < .05 level

This question examined the relationship between leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance. This test shows a significant negative relationship between school performance groups and principals’ perceptions that *Exciting faculty with visions at what may be accomplished through team work*. Schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through team work influences school performance tend to come from lower performing schools.

**Ranking of Leadership Behaviors**

Both teacher and principal participants were asked to answer three optional questions at the end of the survey:

1. Out of the six leadership dimensions (Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations), which two do you believe are most important in regard to school performance?
2. Out of the six leadership dimensions (Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations), which two do you believe are least important in regard to school performance?

3. What other leadership behavior do you believe most influences the performance of a school?

These questions were asked in order to determine which leadership dimensions and behaviors teachers and principals believe have the most influence over school performance and which behaviors are viewed as having the least influence over school performance. The researcher categorized the responses to the open-ended questions into the six leadership dimensions included in the survey instrument. Results revealed that the highest number of participant teachers (N = 120) and principals (N = 9) selected Providing Individual Support as the most important leadership behavior for influencing school performance. In addition, the highest number of participant teachers (N = 50) and principals (N = 5) listed a leadership behavior under the dimension of Providing Individual Support as having the most influence on individual school performance. These responses suggest that Providing Individual Support has the most influence on school performance. This response supports the finding from the third research question, which showed a significant positive correlation between teachers who perceive being treated as individuals with unique needs and improved school performance. Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise falls under the leadership dimension of Providing Individual Support.
In contrast to the above finding, the highest number of teachers (N = 103) and principals (N = 11) selected Providing Intellectual Stimulation as the least important leadership behavior for influencing school performance. In addition, the smallest number of teachers (N = 3) and principals (N = 0) listed a leadership behavior under the dimension of Providing Intellectual Stimulation as having the least amount of influence on the performance of a school. These responses suggest that Providing Intellectual Stimulation has the least amount of influence on school performance. Although earlier findings suggest that principals believe more than teachers that Providing Intellectual Stimulation is a good practice, neither group identifies this leadership dimension as having the most influence on the performance of a school.

These results show agreement between the highest number of principals (N = 9) and teachers (N = 120) that Providing Support is important. The highest number of teachers (N = 50) and principals (N = 5) also identified an additional leadership behavior under the dimension of Providing Support as having an influence on school performance. However, only the principals (N = 8) believe that Building Vision is important. Teachers (N = 64) ranked Building Vision as the least important leadership behavior for influencing school performance. This finding relates to the negative correlation found between school performance groups and principals’ perceptions that Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work. Schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through team work influences school performance tend to come from lower performing schools (Tables 27 and 28).
Table 27  
*Teachers' Beliefs About the Influence of Leadership Dimensions on School Performance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additional Leadership Behavior</th>
<th>Most Important</th>
<th>Least Important</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building Vision</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Group Goals</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Support</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Stimulation</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modeling Behavior</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holding High Expectations</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28  
*Principals’ Beliefs About the Influence of Leadership Dimensions on School Performance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Additional Leadership Behavior</th>
<th>Most Important</th>
<th>Least Important</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building Vision</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting Group Goals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Support</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing Stimulation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modeling Behavior</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holding High Expectations</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary of Findings**

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. This quantitative study focused on the relationships as well as the differences between teachers and principals for low, middle, and high performing schools. This chapter reported the data analysis procedures that were used to address each of the research questions and the results in relation to the research questions. Several statistical tests were used in this study, including independent sample *t*-tests, one way ANOVA, and Pearson product-moment correlation. A total of 800 participants were invited to participate in the study;
185 individuals submitted valid survey responses. The examination of differences between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance resulted in two significant findings. Principals agree more than teachers that challenging teachers to reexamine basic assumptions they may have about their work in schools is beneficial. Principals also agree more than teachers that stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students is good practice. These differences in beliefs could influence school performance when principals challenge teachers to think differently and to change practice.

The investigation of differences in beliefs about leadership based on teacher or principal position for high, middle and low performing schools resulted in no significant findings. Although there were no statistically significant findings, some differences were found. Teachers and principals from higher performing schools held stronger beliefs that Providing Vision or Inspiration, Providing Individual Support, Providing Intellectual Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations influences school performance. Teachers and principals from middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that Modeling Behavior influences school performance in comparison to beliefs of teachers and principals from higher and lower performing schools. Overall, the teachers and the principals from higher and middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that the leadership practices of the school principal influence school performance when compared to lower performing school teachers’ and principals’ beliefs.

In addition to examining differences, this study also investigated possible relationships between what leadership practices teachers and principals believe influence school performance. Two additional significant findings were revealed. Schools in
which teachers feel that using teacher expertise influences school performance tend to be higher performing schools. This finding suggests that helping teachers with their individual needs and tapping into their areas of expertise may have a positive influence on school performance. Schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through team work tend to be lower performing schools. This finding suggests that communicating a shared vision about what is possible could negatively influence school performance. Exciting teachers with a vision of what is possible may not be effective if groups of teachers within the organization do not believe they have the ability to reach the goals.

Upon further analysis, teachers and principals were asked to rank the six leadership dimensions in terms of importance. Teachers and principals alike selected Providing Individual Support as the most important leadership behavior for influencing school performance and Providing Intellectual Stimulation as the least important for influencing school performance. While both the teachers and the principals feel Providing Support is important, only the principals believe Building Vision is important. These differences in beliefs between teachers and principals further relate to the finding that principals who believe Building Vision is important tend to come from lower performing schools. These similarities and differences in the beliefs of teachers and principals may be explained by Bandura’s (1977) work regarding collective efficacy. Bandura patterned the dynamics of working groups. Through his observations, he noted that groups who had more confidence in their abilities were associated with greater success. When the members of a team are assured of their role as team members, the team is more likely to reach greater success (Bandura, 1977). Although all of the leadership behaviors examined
are believed to be important by teachers and principals, some leadership behaviors may influence the collective efficacy of teachers more than others. The results for each research question are further discussed in Chapter V along with the implications of the results and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION

Introduction

Schools with similar demographics located in rural Western Pennsylvania vary in their performance, as measured by School Performance Profile scores (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015). Questions remain as to what accounts for these differences in performance and how leadership practices influence a school’s ability to facilitate student learning and performance at higher levels. Peter Senge’s (1990) theory of learning organizations explains how individuals within an organization create structures to help them learn and adapt to changing conditions. Team learning rather than individual learning is the focus within a learning organization. Organizations with individuals who learn together are more likely to perform at higher levels than organizations with individuals who learn in isolation (Senge, 1990). In complement to Peter Senge’s theory of learning organizations, Jantzi and Leithwood (1995) identified six dimensions of leadership associated with school improvement. The effectiveness of the leadership behaviors within the framework were reinforced through further studies. Principals who reserve their role as an instructional leader and create incentives for learning and quality teaching are better able to provide meaningful and encouraging feedback to teachers and raise student achievement (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Gale & Bishop, 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood, Patten & Jantzi 2010; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Ozdemir, Sezgin, & Kilie, 2015; Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, & Brown, 2013; Ward, 2013). Within both these frameworks, the need for personal motivation also exists,
and questions remain as to what leads individuals to act in a particular way toward a specific outcome.

In 1977, Bandura theorized self-efficacy as the idea that behavioral changes are the result of people’s beliefs in their ability to reach a goal. Individual motivation is related to how a person cognitively represents the outcomes he or she desires. Each individual has to believe he or she has the ability to carry out the behavior that is necessary to reach the outcome. In addition to studying self-efficacy, Bandura patterned the dynamics of working groups. Through his observations, he noted that groups who had more confidence in their abilities achieved greater success. When the members of a team are assured of their role as team members, the team is more likely to reach greater success (Bandura, 1977). In 1993, Bandura concluded that higher levels of student achievement result when teachers believe their combined abilities have influence over student outcomes. Bandura called this notion “collective efficacy.” Further study and analysis is needed regarding how school leadership practices may influence self-efficacy and collective efficacy within schools that learn and perform at higher levels. This chapter presents the findings and the conclusions from this research study as well as implications and recommendations for future research.

**Summary and Discussion of Results**

The focus of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about the extent to which leadership practices influence school performance. Differences between teachers’ and principals’ perceptions were also studied. Teachers’ and principals’ perceptions about the extent to which they believe particular leadership behaviors influence school performance were collected and
analyzed. Jantzi and Leithwood’s (1996) six dimensions of leadership were used in this study. These dimensions include Building Vision, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, Modeling Behavior, and Holding High Expectations. Teachers and principals rated how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. The teachers’ and principals’ ratings of the extent to which they believe each leadership practice influences school performance were correlated to each school’s School Performance Profile score to see if relationships existed. Differences between teachers and principals for higher, middle, and lower performing schools were also examined. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?
2. What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?
3. What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance?
4. What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?

Finding answers to these research questions helped to suggest the relationship between the influence of leadership practices and school performance. The results of this study do not determine a causal relationship between the influence of leadership practices
and school performance, but rather suggest that a relationship exists between the two variables.

Summary of Research Methodology

This quantitative study sought to focus on differences and relationships between variables. The survey instrument used was developed from the six dimensions of leadership determined by Jantzi and Leithwood (1996). The Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) was developed in 2000 by Jerry Valentine and Stephen Lucas based on the work of Jantzi and Leithwood (1996). The survey consisted of 24 questions asking teachers to rate how much they believe each of the leadership practices influences school performance. The survey questions focused on the six dimensions of leadership: Building Vision, Modeling Behavior, Setting Group Goals, Providing Support, Providing Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations. Survey responses, along with demographic data, were analyzed to determine if relationships and differences existed between the variables. Teachers and principals from 12 small rural school districts in Western Pennsylvania were invited to participate in the study. A total of 185 participants (N = 170 teachers and 15 principals) submitted completed surveys to the researcher.

A variety of statistical tests were used in this quantitative study. Independent sample t-tests were used to determine if differences existed between the ratings of teachers and principals for the leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. One-way ANOVA was used to determine if differences existed for lower, middle, and higher performing schools regarding what leadership practices teachers and principals believe most influence school performance. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) were used to determine if statistically significant correlations
existed between the teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of what leadership behaviors they believe most influence school performance and the actual school performance.

Summary of Findings

The following section outlines the analysis of the findings from each research question in this study.

Research Question #1) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?

The researcher designed this question to examine whether differences exist between teachers and principals regarding leadership practices they believe influence school performance. The 24 items from the Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) (2000) were used to determine the teachers’ and the principals’ perceptions about which leadership behaviors they believe most influence school performance. The scores for each of the 24 items range from a minimum of one to a maximum of five. Results of the independent sample t-test revealed two findings. A significant difference was found based on position regarding the belief that Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school. Principals (M = 4.60, SD = .51) agree more than teachers that challenging teachers to reexamine basic assumptions they may have about their work in school is beneficial (t(174) = -2.96, P<.01). A second finding revealed a significant difference based on position regarding the statement Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students. Principals (M = 4.75, SD = .46) agree more than teachers that stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students is good practice (t(174) = -2.63, P<.01). Therefore, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis that no differences exist
between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance.

The two findings outlined above fall under the leadership dimension of Providing Intellectual Stimulation. The optional responses included at the end of the survey revealed the highest number of teachers selected Providing Intellectual Stimulation as the least important leadership behavior for influencing school performance. These results support the finding above, which indicates that principals view this practice as more important than teachers do.

One explanation of these differences could involve the feelings that come from being led. Leadership behaviors that fall under the dimension of Providing Intellectual Stimulation are likely to result in followers feeling some sense of pressure from the leader. Feeling any kind of pressure is generally associated with negative feelings. These more negative associations may have influenced the teachers’ perceptions of how Providing Intellectual Stimulation influences school performance. Having less positive feelings about being led when being challenged on an individual basis is supported by Ladkin’s (2013) phenomenological work. This study examined how individuals know they are being led or when they are leading. This project was based on Maurice Merleau-Ponty’s understanding of perception, which is based on the idea that perception is a full-body experience and that it is reciprocal. The more we perceive, the more we are aware of being perceived. Not all members of an organization may like the leaders, but they may still feel a duty to respond to the leader. Followers always feel the presence of the leader, and not all perceptions have to be positive to create a strong feeling of containment. The leadership practices included in the leadership dimension of Providing
Intellectual Stimulation often leave followers with a duty to respond. Therefore, the feelings documented in this study as a result of being led support the teachers’ overall lower ratings for leadership behaviors under the dimension of Providing Intellectual Stimulation.

Principals, on the other hand, had higher ratings for how much they believe leadership behaviors under the dimension of Providing Intellectual Stimulation influence school performance. This could be because most principals receive more leadership training in their academic programs. Principals tend to recognize the necessity of providing intellectual stimulation to empower others even if it is uncomfortable at times for the followers. Good principals recognize the need to offer support and encouragement when implementing change in order to combat negative feelings associated with being led. In support of this notion, psychological empowerment has been found to be significantly related to behavioral support for change within organizations (Hairon & Goh, 2015; Lai, 2014; Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Wood & Govender, 2013). These findings suggest the importance for school leaders to continually reassure all stakeholders and to offer time and support for adjustments throughout change processes (Lamm & Gordon, 2010; Wood & Govender, 2013). Good principals recognize the discomfort change will bring and offer intermittent support and encouragement along the way.

Research Question #2) What differences, if any, exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?
This question was included in order to examine whether differences exist between teachers and principals regarding leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools. The 24 items from the Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) were used to determine the teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about which leadership behaviors they believe most influence school performance. The scores for each of the 24 items range from a minimum of one (strongly disagree) to a maximum of five (strongly agree). No statistically significant differences were found for the mean average rating of the leadership behaviors between principals and teachers for lower, middle, and higher performing schools through the one-way ANOVA. These results led the researcher to fail to reject the null hypothesis that no differences exist between teachers and principals in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools.

The lack of findings from question number two could indicate that the perceptions of teachers and principals regarding how much they believe specific leadership practices influence school performance are consistent despite the performance level of their schools. The average mean scores for all 24 leadership behaviors were all above 3.75 on a scale of one to five. These high mean scores indicate that teachers and principals believe each of the 24 leadership behaviors have a strong influence on school performance regardless of the performance level of the schools in which they teach. Since the ratings were fairly consistent among all participants, the differences between lower, middle, and higher performing schools may indicate more about how schools function as learning organizations as a result of the leadership within. This notion is supported by Senge’s (1990) theory of learning organizations, which examines how
individuals within organizations create structures to help them learn and adapt to changing conditions.

Data analysis indicates that teachers and principals from higher performing schools acknowledge the importance of certain leadership behaviors that support a Learning Organization more than teachers and principals from lower performing schools. Although no statistically significant differences exist between the mean scores for teachers and principals with low, middle, and high performing schools, some unique differences were revealed. Teachers and principals from higher performing schools held stronger beliefs that Providing Vision or Inspiration, Providing Individual Support, Providing Intellectual Stimulation, and Holding High Expectations influence school performance. Teachers and principals from middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that Modeling Behavior influences school performance in comparison to the beliefs of teachers and principals from higher and lower performing schools. Overall, the teachers and principals from higher and middle performing schools held stronger beliefs that principals’ leadership practices influence school performance when compared to the perceptions of teachers and principals in lower performing schools.

The following leadership behaviors were viewed as more influential on school performance by teachers and principals from higher performing schools than from teachers and principals from lower performing schools: *Displaying both the capacity and the judgment to overcome most obstacles, Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty, Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work, Making faculty members feel and act like leaders, Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role, Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when
initiating actions that affect their work, Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise, Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school, Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students, Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program, Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty, Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals, and Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty.

Research Question #3) What relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and school performance?

The researcher examined this question to determine what relationships exist between leadership practices teachers believe most influence school performance and actual school performance. The 24 items from the Principal Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) (2000) were used to determine the teachers’ beliefs about which leadership behaviors most influence school performance. The scores for each of the 24 items range from a minimum of one (strongly disagree) to a maximum of five (strongly agree). The School Performance Profile (SPP) score for each of the participating schools was used as the measure for school performance. The SPP scores range from a minimum of 60 to a maximum of 80. The SPP scores for the higher performing schools ranged from 77 to 80; the middle performing schools ranged from 65 to 70; and the lowest performing schools ranged from 60 to 63 for the 2016-17 school year (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015).
The researcher used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($r$) to determine what relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices teachers believe influence school performance and actual school performance. A significant positive correlation was found between school performance and a teacher’s perception that *Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise influences school performance* ($r (159) = .162, P < .05$). Schools in which teachers feel that the use of teacher expertise influences school performance tend to be schools with a higher SPP score. This finding led the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that no relationship exists between what leadership practices teachers believe will influence school performance and school performance. *Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise* falls under the leadership dimension of Providing Individual Support. This finding is further supported by the responses to the open-ended question regarding additional leadership behaviors teachers and principals believe have an influence on school performance. The highest number of participants ($N = 55$) listed a leadership behavior included under the dimension of Providing Individual Support.

Several studies support this finding and highlight the power of a school leader who recognizes teachers as individuals with unique needs. Principals who reserve their role as an instructional leader and know teachers as individuals are better able to provide meaningful and encouraging feedback to teachers and raise student achievement (Crum & Sherman, 2008; Gale & Bishop, 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Ozdemir, Sezgin, & Kilie, 2015; Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, & Brown, 2013; Ward, 2013). Recognizing teachers as individuals with unique needs and expertise is also supported by previous research on teacher leadership. Teacher leadership allows for
open systems and shared leadership. Fostering open systems that support teamwork and collaboration to establish a culture of learning are directly related to higher levels of student achievement (Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, & Sleegers, 2015; Crum, Sherman, & Myran, 2009; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Merchant, Arlestig, Garza, Johansson, Murakami-Ramalho, & Tornsen, 2012; Mulford, Kendall, Ewingtom, Edmunds, Kendall, & Silins, 2008). Leithwood and Mascall (2008) examined the effect of shared leadership on certain teacher variables and student learning. Results showed a significant association between higher levels of student achievement and collective leadership. Findings highlight the importance of school leaders providing teachers with opportunities to learn from their colleagues in a variety of ways.

Subsequently, utilizing teacher leaders is critical for improving teaching and learning (Gigante & Firestone, 2007; Hauge, Noreness, & Veday, 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013). Gigante and Firestone (2007) and Hauge, Noreness, and Veday (2014) revealed the importance of teacher leaders focusing on deepening teachers’ knowledge about instruction. To be successful, teacher leaders need time to interact with teachers to help them learn. They need acknowledgement and reinforcement from their administrators and high levels of trust with teachers. Successful teacher leaders need to be directly involved in the coordination and reinforcement of professional development. Research Question #4) What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and school performance?

The researcher examined this question to determine what relationships exist between leadership practices principals believe most influence school performance and actual school performance. The 24 items from the Principal Leadership Questionnaire
(PLQ) (2000) were used to determine the principals’ beliefs about which leadership behaviors most influence school performance. The scores for each of the 24 items range from a minimum of one (strongly disagree) to a maximum of five (strongly agree). The SPP score for each of the participating schools was used as the measure for school performance. The SPP scores range from a minimum of 60 to a maximum of 80. The highest performing schools received an SPP score between 77 and 80, the middle performing schools received an SPP score between 65 and 70, and the lower performing schools received a SPP score between 60 and 63 for the 2016-17 school year (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2015).

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r) was used to determine what relationship, if any, exists between leadership practices principals believe influence school performance and actual school performance. A significant negative correlation was found between school performance groups and principals’ perceptions that Exciting faculty with visions at what may be accomplished through team work (r (14) = -7.64, P<.05). Schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through team work influences school performance tend to come from schools with lower SPP scores. This finding led the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that no relationship exists between what leadership practices principals believe will influence school performance and actual school performance. Focusing only on exciting teachers with a vision relates negatively to a higher SPP score. When principals focus all their attention on trying to excite teachers with a vision, the outcome results in lower school performance, according to the SPP scores.
In the survey, teachers and principals were asked to rank the six leadership dimensions in terms of importance. Teachers and principals alike selected Providing Individual Support as the most important leadership behavior for influencing school performance. While the teachers and the principals feel Providing Support is important, only the principals believe Building Vision is important. These differences in beliefs between teachers and principals further relate to the finding that principals who believe Building Vision is important tend to come from lower performing schools. These two sets of data may indicate that a primary focus on Building Vision may result in a lower school performance. Exciting teachers with a vision means very little if teachers are not provided with the individual support needed to move forward with the vision.

This finding is further supported by differences found between the perceptions of teachers and principals outlined from research question one. Although both teachers and principals selected leadership behaviors under the domain of Providing Intellectual Stimulation as least important for influencing school performance, principals perceive it as more important than teachers do. Principals believe that providing intellectual stimulation will move teachers forward to raise school performance, but teachers’ perceptions focus more on the need for individual support.

These results may be explained by the work of Bandura regarding collective efficacy. A school principal’s ability to communicate direction toward a vision to influence teaching and enhance community support is critical to successful schools (Garza, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson, & Merchant, 2014; Schulte, Slate, & Onwuegbuzie, 2010). However, a principal also needs to recognize the importance of assuring individuals in an organization that they have the ability to carry out the goals of the
shared vision. As Bandura (1977) theorized, behavioral changes are the result of a person’s belief in his or her ability to reach a goal.

Bandura (1977) also patterned the dynamics of working groups. Through his observations, he noted that groups who had more confidence in their abilities were associated with greater success. In 1993, Bandura concluded that higher levels of student achievement result when teachers believe their combined abilities influence student outcomes. Bandura called this notion “collective efficacy.” When teacher collective efficacy increases, the academic achievement of students increases as well (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004).

Conversely, when teachers lack a sense of collective efficacy, the school culture usually reflects complacency. Teachers who lack a sense of collective efficacy believe they have little influence over student achievement. These negative perceptions result in teachers giving up on trying new approaches and lowering their expectations for student learning (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004).

For leaders to change followers’ behavior, it is not enough to simply share a vision. Principals from lower performing schools may tend to excite their faculty with what may be accomplished through team work, but they may not be successful at convincing them that they have the ability to carry out the goals to meet the vision.

Implications

The focus of this study was to examine the relationship between teachers’ and principals’ beliefs about the extent to which leadership practices influence school performance and actual school performance. Differences between teachers and principals were also examined. Although no differences were found among the beliefs of principals
and teachers from higher, lower, and middle performing schools, some significant findings may shed light on the link between leadership behaviors and school performance.

Principals tend to agree more than teachers that challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work and stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for their students is good practice. Schools in which teachers feel their expertise is used tend to be schools with higher SPP scores, and schools in which principals feel that exciting faculty with visions of accomplishment through teamwork tend to be schools with lower SPP scores. Both sources of data from this study reveal that teachers and principals feel Providing Support is important, but only the principals believe Building Vision is important. These findings highlight the importance of principals being sensitive to how they are challenging teachers’ beliefs and assumptions concerning educational practices as well as how they recognize the needs and expertise of teachers as individuals. This finding leads the researcher to believe that connections exist between principal leadership practices that foster teacher leadership and higher school performance. Based on this research, there are several suggestions for improving school performance.

If principals want to work toward improving school performance, they need to be sensitive when challenging teachers to reexamine assumptions they have about their work. School leaders should make sure they listen to teachers and approach challenges once there is mutual respect and shared understanding for current educational practices being used in the classroom. Principals also need to have the same level of sensitivity when stimulating teachers to think about what they do for their students. Further,
principals need to listen closely to what teachers are currently doing for individual students in their classroom prior to making suggestions for future interventions. Principals should also know and treat teachers as individuals if they wish to improve a school’s performance. School leaders also need to know each teacher’s strengths and figure out how best to utilize those strengths for the benefit of the students. Finally, principals also need to recognize the specific needs of individual teachers and find ways to address those needs.

School leaders cannot focus exclusively on building vision if they wish to improve school performance; they must provide teachers with the necessary support for teachers to gain confidence in their ability to reach the goals of the vision. One way to provide meaningful support to individual teachers is through the development of teacher leadership. By building teacher leaders, individuals are valued and recognized for their strengths. Teacher leaders can also help to provide support to other teachers in their area of expertise, especially when it is an area of need for the colleague. For teacher leadership to be effective, give and take between school principals and teachers is necessary.

Simply designating effective teachers as teacher leaders is not enough. According to Gigante and Firestone (2007) and Hauge, Noreness, and Veday (2014), teacher leaders need time to collaborate and learn from one another. They need acknowledgement and reinforcement from their administrators and high levels of trust with teachers. Successful teacher leaders need to be directly involved in the coordination and reinforcement of professional development. Moving forward, it continues to be important to study the
relationship between principal leadership behaviors that support teacher leadership and school performance.

Although the results of this study do not show causation, prior research supports the benefits of recognizing the expertise of teachers as individuals (Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, & Sleegers, 2015; Crum, Sherman, & Myran, 2009; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Merchant, Arlestig, Garza, Johansson, Murakami-Ramalho, & Tornsen, 2012; Mulford, Kendall, Ewingtom, Edmunds, Kendall, & Silins, 2008). Using teacher leaders to improve teaching and learning has also been indicated by previous research (Gigante & Firestone, 2007; Hauge, Noreness, & Veday, 2014; Klar & Brewer, 2013). Continued research on principal leadership practices that foster teacher leadership in terms of coordinating and reinforcing professional development is very important. Providing research-driven data to school principals may help them to form effective teacher leadership teams.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

This study determined differences and relationships between the perceptions of teachers and principals in regard to the leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. Further examination on the findings from this study could be performed.

One area worthy of further exploration is considering what makes teachers feel as though they are treated as individuals with unique needs and expertise within higher, lower, and middle performing schools. Further exploration could include a qualitative study that includes interview questions focused on what teacher leadership systems exist within schools of varying performance levels, how teachers are involved in the
established teacher leadership systems, and how the administration includes teachers in
decision-making processes. Since fostering open systems that support teamwork and
collaboration is directly related to higher levels of student achievement, examining how
these open systems function best could be beneficial (Bruggencate, Luyten, Scheerens, &
Sleegers, 2015; Crum, Sherman, & Myran, 2009; Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood & Mascall,
2008; Merchant, Arlestig, Garza, Johansson, Murakami-Ramalho, & Tornsen, 2012;
Mulford, Kendall, Ewingtom, Edmunds, Kendall, & Silins, 2008). Including a qualitative
component could increase the depth of knowledge regarding open systems of teacher
leadership and collaboration in terms of school performance.

Some additional areas worth further exploration include the differences between
beliefs of teachers and principals for higher, middle, and lower performing schools.
Future research could expand the study to include urban districts elementary schools.
Although no statistically significant differences exist among the mean scores for teachers
and principals in low, middle, and high performing schools, some differences do exist
that may be of interest to the study of school leadership and school performance.
Observations and interviews could be used to see if perceptions are reality.

Teachers and principals from higher performing schools have stronger beliefs that
Providing Vision or Inspiration influences school performance. The five leadership
behaviors included under Providing Vision included Displaying both the capacity and the
judgment to overcome most obstacles, Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty,
Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work, Making
faculty members feel and act like leaders, and Giving the faculty a sense of overall
purpose for its leadership role.
Teachers and principals from middle performing schools believe more strongly that Modeling Behavior influences school performance in comparison to beliefs of teachers and principals from higher and lower performing schools. The three leadership behaviors under Modeling Behavior included *Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling,”* *Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education,* and *Providing good models for faculty member to follow.*

Under the dimension of Providing Individual Support, the behaviors of *Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work* and *Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise* were found to be more important to teachers and principals from higher performing schools when compared to teachers and principals from middle and lower performing schools. These differences indicate stronger beliefs of teachers and principals from higher performing schools that taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when making decisions and treating teachers as individuals influence school performance.

Teachers and principals from higher performing schools hold stronger beliefs that Providing Intellectual Stimulation influences school performance. The three leadership behaviors under the dimension of Provides Intellectual Stimulation included *Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in school,* *Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students,* and *Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program.*

Teachers and principals from higher and middle performing schools have stronger beliefs that Holding High Performance Expectations influences school performance. The
three leadership behaviors under the dimension of Holds High Performance Expectations included \textit{Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty}, \textit{Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals}, and \textit{Does not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty}.

Further exploration of these differences within a qualitative study could reveal what is being done in higher performing schools and what is not being done in lower performing schools. The study could include interview questions focused on the differences outlined above. Although examples of successful school reform within the United States as well as abroad exist (Hamann, 2005; Pyhalto, Soini, & Pietarinen, 2011; Ramburg, 2014; Siu, 2008), many schools continue to perform at lower levels due to ineffective school leadership (Guhn, 2009; Hall, 2006; Smarick, 2010; Tienken, 2011). Gaining a deeper understanding of how certain leadership behaviors are used to create positive learning environments for teachers as well as students may help to shed light on what higher performing schools are doing as well as what lower performing schools should or should not be doing.

The research suggestions above could help guide future research examining specific leadership practices concerning school performance. Uncovering the connections between leadership practices and school performance may provide future school leaders with better direction and focus as they try to elevate school performance.

**Recommendations for Practice**

In addition to fostering teacher leadership, principals should further develop their own social- and emotional intelligence. The interpersonal skills of individual leaders
influence followers’ commitment. Doe, Ndinguri, and Phipps (2015) synthesized existing research to find the link between emotional intelligence and successful leadership in organizational contexts. Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to outperform others in leading organizations toward success. Being able to recognize, understand, and manage emotions in others as well as themselves help leaders connect with others. These connections enhance followers’ overall commitment to the organization. School leaders who work to develop their social emotional intelligence will be better equipped to challenge teachers’ past beliefs and assumptions in ways that are positively perceived by their followers. The development of social and emotional intelligence will help principals to develop positive perceptions of the leadership behaviors they use.

Principals who are positively perceived by teachers in their schools will be better received when they challenge teachers to think about past assumptions they have about their work. Teachers need to continually reexamine their understandings of students, content, and pedagogy. This practice of thoughtful reflection is best done when positive relationships exist between teachers and principals. Perceptions of trust toward school principals positively affect teachers’ actions in the classroom (Pogodzinski, 2015). Principals who have a strong rapport with teachers will also be more effective when asking teachers to think about what they do for students and what else can be done so students meet desired levels of achievement.

Principals who are positively perceived as leaders will also be able to communicate a shared vision while assuring teachers that they have the ability to carry out the goals of the shared vision. When members of a team are assured of their roles as
team members, the team is more likely to succeed (Bandura, 1977). Principals need to continually reassure teachers of their role(s) as team members, and teachers need to believe their combined abilities influence student outcomes (Bandura, 1993).

If teachers lack knowledge or skills, school leaders need to provide support and professional development to help teachers – and their students – achieve success. Principals should rely on and draw from the strengths of other district teachers to provide needed support to their teaching colleagues, when possible. Principals need to acknowledge teachers for the leadership they can offer to their colleagues. Teacher leaders should be directly involved in the planning and coordination of professional development (Gigante & Firestone, 2007; Hauge, Noreness, & Veday, 2014). Utilizing teacher leaders will help to build a school’s collective efficacy. When teacher collective efficacy improves, student achievement improves as well (Adams & Forsyth, 2006; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2004).

**Limitations**

The following limitations were considered:

1. Leadership practices are subjective by nature. The ability of individuals to respond to behavioral statements in the survey questionnaire consistently and accurately can be challenged.

2. Gathering information through the use of a survey instrument has inherent limitations. Survey methods were limited to those who chose to respond. Individuals who did not choose to respond were not represented. The number of responses gathered limited the statistical effects of the study. The electronic survey also did not allow opportunity for interaction between the
researcher and the participants. Information that influences participants’ responses may not have been captured in the survey, and therefore were not analyzed.

3. Conducting a study of high school teachers and principals from rural areas of Pennsylvania was restrictive. The information gathered may not be accurate for other geographic areas, and the results of the study may not represent the general population.

4. Rural junior-senior high schools within Western Pennsylvania with fewer than 800 students were invited to participate in the study. The demographics of schools included in the study were similar in factual information such as percent of enrollment by ethnicity, percent of enrollment for economically disadvantaged, and percent of enrollment for special education. The demographics of schools included in the study were not assumed to be similar in areas such as school culture and climate, instructional programming, and pedagogy.

**Delimitations**

This study did not include the effect of the leadership styles or practices of governing boards on school performance. The infrastructure and organization of school districts were not examined for how school performance was supported. Perceptions of students and student behavior was not studied. The influence of student behaviors, teacher behaviors, or school culture on school performance was also not addressed. No other aspects of school performance were examined other than how teachers and principals perceive leadership practices they believe most influence school performance.
The study did not include judgment about existing leadership within the participating schools.

**Conclusion**

The intent of the researcher was to contribute to the existing body of knowledge for how perceptions of leadership practices may relate to school performance. The results of this study do not determine causation, but the information gathered does reveal that differences and relationships exist between teachers and principals in terms of how much they believe certain leadership practices influence school performance. Principals tend to see challenging teachers’ past beliefs about their work and assumptions about students as a more influential leadership practice concerning school performance. *Treating teachers as individuals with unique needs and areas of expertise* is associated with higher performing schools, and *Communicating a shared vision with excitement about what can be accomplished through team work* is associated with lower performing schools. While both teachers and principals feel that *Providing Individual Support* is important, only principals believe that *Building Vision* is important. Additional research is needed to flesh out each of the differences and relationships of these specific leadership practices concerning school performance.

Having knowledge on how to lead others to reach success remains an area of interest for educational research. The use of effective leadership practices is critical to overall school performance (Garza, Drysdale, Gurr, Jacobson, & Merchant, 2014; Ladkin, 2013; Parkes & Thomas, 2001). Therefore, continuing to research perceptions of leadership practices in terms of school performance is important. Providing school leaders with this knowledge of how perceptions of leadership interact and influence
school performance will provide insight for how they can foster the self-efficacy and collective efficacy of their teachers and create effective learning organizations. Organizations with individuals who learn together are more likely to perform at higher levels than organizations with individuals who learn in isolation (Senge, 1990). Building a vision is fine, but it does not work if you do not provide teachers with individual support to learn and move forward with the vision.
References


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Appendix A

Cover Letter Requesting Site Approval for School Participation

July 4th, 2017

My name is Brigette Matson, and I am a doctoral student from Indiana University of Pennsylvania pursuing a degree in School Administration and Leadership Studies. The purpose of this correspondence is to request site approval for participation in a research study which is part of my doctoral dissertation research.

Variability exists in school districts within similar regions of Pennsylvania in regard to school performance. Questions remain as to why some schools are performing at higher levels than other schools in similar regions with similar students populations. The purpose of this study is to examine teacher and principal perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. Teachers and Principals will be asked to rate how much they agree that certain leadership practices influence school performance. The results of what the teachers and principals believe influences school performance will be correlated to the actual school performance to see if a relationship exists. Similarities as well as differences between teachers and principals within schools performing at different levels will be examined.

The intent is to look at different leadership behaviors and the goal is to determine whether teachers and administrators believe the leadership behaviors influence the performance of a school. The intent is not to make judgment about the leadership or to analyze performance scores of school districts. A summary of the results and discussion will be made available to you as well as any faculty that complete the survey.

Since this is such an important topic and more knowledge is needed, we would like to ask for cooperation and participation of the teachers and principals from the _____School in this study. Approval from the Indiana University Institutional Review Board to conduct this study has not yet been received, so this request is asking for participation if the study is approved.

The information you provide will remain confidential and the names of principals and school districts will not be revealed.

The researcher wishes to distribute the survey through faculty e-mail in September/October of 2017. If you are willing to grant site approval for participation in
this study, simply respond to this e-mail and indicate a preferred method for obtaining the list of e-mail addresses for current teachers and principals serving students in grades 7-12. Thank you in advance for your time and considered participation in this study.

Sincerely,

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Appendix B

Email Introducing Survey Completion

Fellow Educator:

You are invited to participate in a web-based online survey on how much teachers and principals believe specific leadership behaviors influence school performance. This is a research project being conducted by Brigette Matson, a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Participants who complete the survey will have the option of entering their name in a drawing to win a one hundred dollar gift card for Amazon. Three gift cards will be given away.

The intent is to look at different leadership behaviors and the goal is to determine whether teachers and administrators believe the leadership behaviors influence the performance of a school. The beliefs of teachers and principals in regard to leadership behaviors are not assumed to be documented leadership behaviors within their schools. The intent is not to make judgment about the leadership or to analyze performance scores of school districts.

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Brigette Matson via e-mail at TBCR@iup.edu or the research supervisor, Dr. David Piper via e-mail at dpiper@iup.edu.

THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN APPROVED BY THE INDIANA UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS (PHONE 724.357.7730).
Appendix C

Survey Instrument

Adapted from Jantzi & Leithwood, Educational Administration Quarterly, (October, 1996) pp. 533-534. Used by authors’ permission.

Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a web-based online survey on how much teachers and principals believe specific leadership behaviors influence school performance. This is a research project being conducted by Brigette Matson, a student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Variability exists in school districts within similar regions of Pennsylvania in regard to school performance. Questions remain as to why some schools are performing at higher levels than other schools in similar regions with similar students populations. The purpose of this study is to examine teacher and principal perceptions of leadership practices they believe most influence school performance. Teachers and Principals will be asked to rate how much they agree that certain leadership practices influence school performance. The results of what the teachers and principals believe influences school performance will be correlated to the actual school performance to see if a relationship exists. Similarities as well as differences between teachers and principals within schools performing at different levels will be examined.

The intent is to look at different leadership behaviors and the goal is to determine whether teachers and administrators believe the leadership behaviors influence the performance of a school. The beliefs of teachers and principals in regard to leadership behaviors are not assumed to be documented leadership behaviors within their schools. The intent is not to make judgment about the leadership or to analyze performance scores of school districts.
PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

Participants cannot be withdrawn from the study once their survey data is submitted, since it is not possible to identify all of the participants from the data.

BENEFITS

There is no direct benefit for participants who chose to participate in this study.

Participants will be asked if they would like to be entered into a drawing for a $100 gift card from Amazon for completing the survey. Three gift cards will be given away to three different participants entered into the drawing. Participants will be asked if they would like to be entered into the drawing at the end of the Qualtrics survey. If participants indicate they wish to be included in the drawing, they will be asked to supply an e-mail address. The researcher will supply the winners of the drawing with an electronic gift card. The researcher will keep the e-mail addresses confidential to protect the privacy of the participants and will not use the e-mail addresses for any purpose other than distributing the gift cards.

RISKS

The identity of participants could potentially be known to the researcher through triangulation of the demographic data including sex, current position held within the school district, and the name of the school district.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your survey answers will be sent using Qualtrics ® where data will be stored in a password protected electronic format. Qualtrics does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. Your responses will remain confidential. The researcher will assure confidentiality by not identifying the participants, aggregating the data, and presenting data only aggregate data that is de-identified. If you supply an e-mail address for the gift card drawing, the address will remain confidential.
CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Brigette Matson via e-mail at TBCR@iup.edu or the research supervisor, Dr. David Piper via e-mail at dpiper@iup.edu.

Mrs. Brigette Matson
Primary Investigator
Administration and Leadership Studies
136 Stouffer Hall
Indiana, PA 15705-1087

Dr. David Piper
Professor, Chair, and Advisor
Employment and Labor Relations
432 Davis Hall
Indiana, PA 15705-1087

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or that your rights as a participant in research have not been honored during the course of this project, or you have any questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, you may contact the Indiana University Institutional Review Board at 724.357.7730.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for your records. Clicking on the “Agree” button indicates that

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are 18 years of age or older

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree
Demographics

Select one of the following.

Gender: ___Male ___Female

Select one of the following.

Current Position: ___Teacher ___Principal

Years of experience for position selected____

Years of experience in current school district for position selected____

Name of current school district in which you are employed________________________

The following survey identifies school leadership behaviors. The intent is to look at different leadership behaviors and the goal is to determine whether teachers and administrators believe these leadership behaviors are influential to the performance of a school. The intent is not to make judgment about the leadership or to analyze performance scores of school districts.

To what extent do you agree that the following leadership behaviors influence school performance?

Rating Scale

1= Strongly Disagree
2= Disagree
3= Neutral
4= Agree
5= Strongly Agree
**Provides vision or inspiration**

1) Displaying both the capacity and the judgment to overcome most obstacles  
2) Commanding respect from everyone on the faculty  
3) Exciting faculty with visions of what may be accomplished through team work  
4) Making faculty members feel and act like leaders  
5) Giving the faculty a sense of overall purpose for its leadership role  

**Models behavior**

6) Leading by “doing” rather than simply by “telling”  
7) Symbolizing success and accomplishment within the profession of education  
8) Providing good models for faculty members to follow  

**Fosters commitment to group goals**

9) Providing opportunities for teachers to participate in the process of developing school goals  
10) Encouraging faculty members to work toward the same goals  
11) Using problem solving with the faculty to generate school goals  
12) Working toward whole faculty consensus in establishing priorities for school goals  
13) Encouraging faculty members to evaluate their progress toward achievement of school goals  

**Provides individual support**

14) Providing for extended training to develop teachers’ knowledge and skills relevant to being a member of the school faculty  
15) Providing the necessary resources to support teachers’ implementation of the school’s program  
16) Treating teachers as an individual with unique needs and expertise  
17) Taking teachers’ opinions into consideration when initiating actions that affect their work  
18) Behaving in a manner thoughtful of personal needs
Provides intellectual stimulation

19) Challenging teachers to reexamine some basic assumptions they may have about their work in the school
20) Stimulating teachers to think about what they are doing for the school’s students
21) Providing information that helps teachers think of ways to implement the school’s program.

Holds high performance expectations

22) Insisting on only the best performance from the school’s faculty
23) Showing teachers that there are high expectations for the school’s faculty as professionals.
24) Doing not settle for second best in the performance of teachers’ work as the school faculty

Optional Questions

1) Out of the six dimensions of leadership listed below, which two do you believe are most important in regard to school performance?
   __ Building Vision
   __ Setting Group Goals
   __ Providing Support
   __ Providing Stimulation
   __ Modeling Behavior
   __ Holding High Expectations

2) Out of the six dimensions of leadership listed below, which two do you believe are least important in regard to school performance?
   __ Building Vision
   __ Setting Group Goals
   __ Providing Support
   __ Providing Stimulation
   __ Modeling Behavior
   __ Holding High Expectations

3) What other leadership behavior do you believe most influences the performance of a school?
Appendix D

E-mail Permission to Use and Modify the Measure Transformational Leadership

You are welcome to use those items. Just cite their source. Good luck.

From: Brigette Matson [bmatson@basd.us]
Sent: Thursday, March 30, 2017 7:51 AM
To: Kenneth Leithwood
Subject: request

Dr. Leithwood:

I am currently a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. I am writing to ask for permission to use the Items Used to Measure Transformational Leadership in Appendix A from the attached study. My wish would be to use it as a survey. The survey would ask teachers and principals to rate each of the 24 items in terms of how much they believe each one influences the School Performance Profile Score. My research is look at the following questions.

1. What differences, if any, exist between what teachers and principals value in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?
2. What differences, if any, exist between what teachers and principals value in terms of leadership practices and school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?
3. What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices teachers value and school performance?
4. What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices principals value and school performance?

I am happy to provide you with any additional information about my study upon request. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Mrs. Brigette Matson
Brookville Area School District
K-12 Principal of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment
bmatson@basd.us
Quoting Brigette Matson <bmatson@basd.us>:

Yes you have permission to use these items, which are not under copyright. We would appreciate attribution in any publications.
Best of luck in your research.

Doris Jantzi
Research Associate Emeritus

Dr. Jantzi:

I am currently a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania. I am writing to ask for permission to use the Items Used to Measure Transformational Leadership in Appendix A from the attached study. My wish would be to use it as a survey. The survey would ask teachers and principals to rate each of the 24 items in terms of how much they believe each one influences the School Performance Profile Score. My research is look at the following questions.

1. What differences, if any, exist between what teachers and principals value in terms of leadership practices they believe influence school performance?

2. What differences, if any, exist between what teachers and principals value in terms of leadership practices and school performance for lower, middle, and higher performing schools?

3. What relationship, if any, exists between what leadership practices teachers value and school performance?

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I am happy to provide you with any additional information about my study upon request. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Mrs. Brigette Matson

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