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Vickie Tantee Randolph-Robinson

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LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO TEACHER MORALE

by

VICKIE T. RANDOLPH-ROBINSON

(Under the Direction of Linda M. Arthur)

ABSTRACT

In this era of increased accountability and increased pressure to improve our public schools, elementary school leaders, working to meet the provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, are focusing on developing effective leadership behaviors as they face the complex challenges of meeting organizational goals within their elementary schools and maintaining or increasing staff satisfaction. Leadership behavior has long been of interest in industry, business, military, and the government; on the whole, research shows that focusing on social factors such as morale, group interaction, and supportive relationships has a strong effect on productivity and success.

The literature suggests that a relationship exists between leadership behavior and staff morale and job satisfaction. It hypothesizes that principals who consciously practice transformational leadership behaviors have a positive impact on the morale and productivity of their teachers. This study explores the soundness of the hypothesis and provides data for school leaders who strive to develop innovative leadership styles that will empower their teachers and improve morale.

This study was conducted to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between the principals' perceived leadership behaviors and teachers' morale. The two questionnaires used were the Excellent Principal Inventory and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire.

Leadership behavior clearly impacts teacher morale, and a positive relationship between leadership behavior and teacher morale is evident in several areas. These findings support that teacher morale can be predicted on the basis of the leadership style asserted by the principal. Principals who use a participatory style of leadership are more likely to have more satisfied and productive teachers than principals who use an autocratic style of leadership.

INDEX WORDS: Leadership, Teacher Morale, Leadership Behaviors, Leadership Style

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in

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DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to the following people for their encouragement and support. To my husband, Christopher, and my daughter, Kristen, in the beginning without their patience and understanding I would not have started or completed this degree. To my riding comrades, Mistye, Katie, and Ernestine, to and from Augusta on Saturday mornings without our interesting conversations, complaining about work, and course work; I would have preferred to lie in bed instead of getting up for a year at 6 in morning. To my best friend and dependable babysitter, Lisa, who would spend her Saturdays babysitting, going to parks, and going to Chuckie Cheese to entertain Kristen. Thanks, for being Mom when I could not. To my parents for instilling the internal drive and motivation to never give up until the goal is complete and knowing that no goal is too high to attain. And I can not forget the most important person in my life GOD for keeping me sane and being there when no one else could or would.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As long as America has had schools, leaders have sought ways to improve them. The current conversation about school reform began with the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, and intensified when MacNeil (1992) asserted that the schools of the 1990s were not meeting the demands of changing society. Recent presidents have utilized education reform as part of their election platforms and subsequently enacted legislation when they reached office, as President Ronald Reagan did with his Goal 2000 and President George W. Bush did with his No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. On the state level, Georgia enacted the Quality Basic Education Act (QBE) in 1983 and followed it with Governor Barnes's A Plus Education Reform Act in 2000 (<http://teachservices.doe.k12.ga.us/report>).

The A-Plus Education Reform Act of 2000 was implemented to address concerns of accountability in the Georgia School Systems (HB 1187). Governor Roy Barnes appointed committees to address the needs of public education in Georgia, and the findings of that commission informed the provisions of the reform act (HB 1187). The committees were made up of business leaders and legislative leaders, plus a very few educators. They explored issues of accountability, funding, school climate, and seamless education. The accountability committee's primary task was to address the following question: "How should school systems, schools, and personnel be held accountable for student achievement?" The other committees were charged with answering questions such as, "What changes are needed in the QBE funding formula and associated categorical grants?"; "How can we make the school environment a place where teachers

and students can perform and achieve at their best?"; and "How can coordination and cooperation among local systems and between school systems and Pre-K be improved?" (Georgia Education Reform Commission, Governor Roy Barnes's Charge 1999). All of the committees attempted to address the weaknesses of Georgia's schools globally.

It is commonly asserted that today's principals directly influence teachers' job satisfaction, and research conducted to define the qualities of an effective school has shown that all effective schools have strong principals (Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1992). Based simply on the number of studies conducted, one could reasonably conclude that current school leaders influence the basic skills achievement of students through their behavior or approach to leadership and/or actions. In other words, transformational leaders have a marked effect on many of the people around them (Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins).

Understanding and applying the principles of transformational leadership would greatly benefit Georgia school leaders as they strive to address the "school climate" portion of Georgia's Reform Act. Transformational leadership focuses on the charismatic and affective elements of leadership, and it is concerned with values, ethics, emotions, standards, and long-term goals (Northouse, 2004). It stresses the need to assess followers' motives, satisfy their needs, and treat them as human beings (Northouse). Transformational leadership relies on the strong influence of visionary, charismatic leaders who move followers to accomplish objectives above and beyond what is usually expected (Northouse). Siegrist (1999) states that if leadership is vital to the schools, preparation of those leaders is very serious business indeed, and graduate

programs must move beyond the training of efficient managers to the preparation of visionary, moral, and transformational leaders.

Burns (1978) identifies two basic types of leadership behaviors: transactional and transformational. With transactional behaviors, the leader approaches followers with the idea of exchanging one thing for another, e.g. jobs for votes. Transformational behaviors, on the other hand, recognize and capitalize on an existing need or demand of the follower. Transformational leaders engage followers by forming personal relationships, understanding motivation, and seeking to satisfy needs.

One key attribute of most transformational leaders is charisma. Weber (1947) provided the most well-known definition of “charisma” as a special personality characteristic that gives a person superhuman or exceptional powers, is reserved for a few, is of divine origin, and results in the person being treated as a leader. House (2004), who has developed theories of “charismatic leadership” over the past thirty years, published a theoretical description of charismatic leadership in 1976. House’s theory differs from other theories of transformational leadership only in the sense that the word “charismatic” focuses on the personality of the leader, while the word “transformational” focuses on the results of that (charismatic) leader’s engagement with others. House (2004) suggested that charismatic leaders act in unique ways that have specific transformational effects on their followers. He listed the personal characteristics of a charismatic leader as being dominant, having a strong desire to influence others, being self-confident, and having a strong sense of one’s own moral values. The transformational results of successful charismatic leadership include followers’ trust in the leader’s ideology, a similarity in belief systems among the followers and the leaders,

acceptance of the leader, expression of warmth, obedience, and identification, emotional involvement with goals, and follower confidence in goal achievement (House).

In 1985 Bass provided an expanded definition of transformational leadership based on, but not entirely consistent with, the works of Burns (1978) and House (1976). Northouse (2004) states that Bass extended Burns' work by focusing more intently on followers' rather than leaders' needs, by suggesting that transformational leadership could apply to situations in which the outcomes were not positive, and by describing transactional and transformational leadership as a single continuum rather than mutually independent continua (Yammarino, 1993). Bass also extended House's work by further exploring the emotional elements of charisma and suggesting that charisma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for transformational leadership (Yammarino, 1993). Bass (1985) has argued that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than the expected by: (a) raising followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals; (b) motivating followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team or organization; and (c) moving followers to address higher-level needs.

Bass has further described a transformational leader as someone who serves as a coach and mentor and embodies four factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Northouse, 2004). Idealized influence describes a leader who acts as a strong role model: followers identify with such leaders and want to emulate them. Inspirational motivation describes a leader who communicates high expectations to followers, inspiring them to become a part of a greater vision. Intellectual stimulation describes a leader who models and supports a

culture of curiosity, investigation, and lifelong learning, and individualized consideration describes a leader who provides a supportive climate in which he or she listens carefully to followers.

House's charismatic theory has been revised by Conger (1999), Conger and Kanungo (1998), and an earlier single revision to the theory was made by Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993). Together, they postulate that charismatic leadership transforms followers' self-concepts and seeks to link the identity of followers to the collective identity of the organization. They define charismatic leaders as leaders who emphasize the intrinsic rewards of work, de-emphasize the extrinsic rewards, express high expectations, and help followers gain a sense of confidence and self-efficacy (Northouse, 2004).

According to Northouse (2004), individuals who exhibit transformational leadership behaviors often have a strong set of internal values and ideals, and they are effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater good rather than their own self-interests (Kuhnert, 1994). Yukl (2002) describes transformational leadership as an approach in which "followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward a leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do" (p. 253). He stresses that transformational leaders are needed in this time of critical administrative challenges and the widespread implementation of school reform (p. 253).

Servgiovanni (1999) looks at the core power dynamics of transformational leadership by describing transformational leadership as "meaningful" leadership: leaders who are transformational know how to distribute power among others and know the difference between "power to" and "power over." "Power to" is more concerned with

what people are accomplishing as opposed to what people are doing. “Power over” emphasizes the dynamics of controlling people and events. Servgiovanni (1999) states that the overall goal of a transformational leader is to help people become more successful by defining the objectives that they value the most and supporting them in accomplishing those objectives.

Leithwood and Steinbach (1991) found that personal qualities of transformational leadership were stronger among creative school principals than among noncreative school principals. They demonstrate that it is becoming increasingly imperative that administrators who wish to be successful cultivate transformational leadership behaviors, and describe how more and more administrators are now being encouraged to “think outside the box” or “be risk takers” in order to improve student achievement and effect adequate yearly progress (Leithwood & Steinbach).

Hallinger and Heck (1996) conducted a study spanning the years 1980-1995 concerning the principal’s role in an effective school; they found that a principal’s leadership does indeed affect student learning. Pagano (1989) looked at 116 middle school teachers from randomly selected Pennsylvania middle schools and asked the teachers to complete a survey assessing the leadership behavior of the principal. The results of the study describe two different components of leadership style: concern for production and concern for people. Pagano (1989) found that in schools that adhered to the middle school model, the teachers perceived more freedom to make decisions and a greater willingness of the principal to make changes.

Ubben, Hughes, and Norris (2001) observe that even though a successful principal is in essence a manager, he or she manages with a leadership perspective.

“These principals use their perceptions of changes that are needed to work both inside and outside the organization to map new directions, to secure new resources and refocus existing resources, and to respond to the realities of a very unstable present and, at times, an unforeseeable future” (p. 13).

Garvin (1986) found that effective middle school leaders have strong skills in human relations, management, and technology. These leaders are able to work effectively with others, to organize time, personnel, and other resources, and are knowledgeable about different approaches to pedagogy for learners.

Many researchers, including Anderman (1991), Leithwood, et al. (1992), and Stiles (1993), have documented how a statistically significant principal’s leadership behavior affects overall teacher satisfaction and commitment. As Goodlad (2004) stated, there is no doubt that teachers will experience greater work satisfaction and higher morale when they are viewed by their principals as the professionals they perceive themselves to be.

Burns (2003) states that empowerment is the process wherein people transform themselves so that leaders empower followers who then empower leaders. Bogler (1999) found that teachers report greater satisfaction in their work when they perceive their principal as someone who shares information with others, delegates authority, and keeps open channels of communication with the teachers. Woods and Weasmer (2002) have noted that giving teachers a voice in defining and moving toward organizational goals increases their commitment to the district and enhances their job satisfaction.

By examining different facets of leadership, all of the above authors have extended a conversation that is vital to the effort to reform schools in a meaningful and

lasting way. By not only describing but also validating leadership behaviors that were formerly overlooked, misunderstood, or dismissed, they have raised consciousness about leadership roles that traditionally followed rigid pre-set paradigms that were largely not discussed or evaluated. Some of the studies focus more intently on the internal mindset of transformational leaders, while others focus more on their skills; some of the studies examine the effects of transformational leadership, while others examine the more difficult-to-define causes; and some of the studies look to the influence of a higher calling, if not a higher power, while others avoid exploring that “non-scientific” dimension. The studies may differ in which aspect of the complex array of transformational leadership traits they focus on, but all of the studies seek to precisely define the qualities of successful transformational leadership and stress that schools need to shift to transformational leadership behaviors in this time of critical administrative challenges and the widespread implementation of school reform.

Clearly, the traditional autocratic leadership paradigm is disintegrating, and in order to face the challenges of the modern age, school leaders need to take an honest, extensive inventory of not only their external actions, but also of their internal intentions and motivations. The more leaders can develop a meta-awareness of their leadership behaviors, the more they can work to change or improve those elements of leadership that seem deficient, the more they can inspire those they lead. In other words, they need to look after both their inner and their outer worlds as they strive to explore, validate, and cultivate the myriad qualities of an authentically successful transformational leader.

Statement of the Problem

In this era of increased accountability and increased pressure to improve our public schools, elementary school leaders, working to meet the provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, are focusing on developing effective leadership behaviors as they face the complex challenges of meeting organizational goals within their elementary schools and maintaining or increasing staff satisfaction. Leadership behavior has long been of interest in industry, business, military, and the government; on the whole, research shows that focusing on social factors such as morale, group interaction, and supportive relationships has a strong effect on productivity and success.

As Georgia's principals and leaders work to cultivate qualities of effective leadership, it is important to evaluate the real-world effects of their leadership behavior on teacher morale. A major finding in recent research affirmed that the principal, as the person who lays down the ground rules for the school, is directly responsible for developing and maintaining teacher morale, and studies have linked high teacher morale to high productivity and high student achievement. Given the current focus on leadership behaviors, along with the clear need to increase teacher morale, the researcher proposes to investigate the effect different characteristics of leadership have on teacher morale.

Research Questions

1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale?
2. To what leadership characteristics do teachers respond most positively/negatively?

Significance of the Study

This study responds to the need to identify effective leadership behaviors that Georgia school leaders can employ to improve teacher morale in order to meet the parameters of current reforms including student achievement. Previous education reform in Georgia, such as the Quality Basic Education Act (QBE) of 1985, tied school finance to changes in educational achievement, and current federal and state reforms follow suit. Georgia's A-Plus Education Reform Act was passed in anticipation of NCLB (2001) in an effort to diminish the achievement gaps of minorities and students with disabilities. This study hopes to support school leaders in implementing federal and state reforms by identifying specific leadership behaviors and techniques that will increase the job satisfaction of personnel and have a positive influence on their performance. Faculty constitutes the largest cost and human capital resource for a school, and it is imperative to develop a deeper understanding of how leadership behaviors motivate and encourage teachers to do their best work in order to have a successful school (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997).

Procedures

This study was conducted to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between the principals' leadership behaviors and teachers' morale. The two questionnaires used were the Excellent Principal Inventory and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire. The first questionnaire is an assessment model which attempts to identify an individual's mode of behavior in leadership roles, and the second was used to evaluate teacher morale and job satisfaction. Administrators and staff can also use this questionnaire as a tool to determine perceived leadership behavior. Since no names were

required, the confidentiality of the teachers was ensured; the only identifying factor requested was the name of the teacher's school.

The study was based on the belief that a significant relationship exists between leadership behavior and teacher morale and job satisfaction; the data analysis sought to ascertain if this relationship truly exists, and if so, to what extent.

Population Sample

The samples used for this study consist of teachers of four elementary schools in the Public School System located in a rural county south of metro Atlanta. The research site was well grounded, with little turnover in teachers. The teachers surveyed had at least 1 year experience. Each of the four elementary schools had at least 40-88 certified staff members.

Data Collection

The researcher communicated with the principal of each school and asked permission to attend one faculty meeting to distribute the survey instrument, explain the purpose and significance of the study, and assure the participants that no information would be identifiable from specific individuals. Data were collected from at least 250 teachers within the county from each of the five elementary schools by administering two different confidential questionnaires. The researcher delivered the questionnaires during a planned faculty meeting and collected them before the meeting ended.

Data Analysis

The data were collected from the tabulated results of the questionnaires. Tests were conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant correlation between leadership behavior and teacher morale using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation

test with one dependent variable (teacher morale) and one independent variable (principal's leadership behavior). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was also used to analyze the collected data.

Limitations

The limitations of this study stem from the fact that it is based on results gathered from four elementary schools in Happy Valley County, Georgia. Thus, the findings may not necessarily be generalizable to other school districts due to differences in size, geographic location, student composition, and faculty composition. With respect to the instruments, a limitation of the Excellent Principal Inventory is that it has not been tested for reliability and validity; a limitation of the Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire is that its validity testing was based on the responses of high school teachers as opposed to elementary school teachers.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study include the limited geographic boundaries in which the study took place. Because it was not feasible to survey all elementary school teachers in rural Georgia, respondents were chosen from one rural Georgia school district. All conclusions may not be relevant to all schools in Georgia.

Definitions of Terms

Morale: The degree of personal fulfillment and job satisfaction a teacher feels in relationship to his or her job performance (McNitt, 2003, p. 8).

Satisfaction: The classic definition of job satisfaction states that it is a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental conditions that results in a person feeling satisfied with his or her job. Satisfaction is also viewed as a component of a

larger integrated model of motivation and is focused on the fulfillment acquired by experiencing various job activities. (Sherman, 1986, p. 13).

school climate: “A school’s personality” (Roach & Kratochwill, 2004, p. 13).

school culture: “Assumptions, interpretations, and expectations that drive an individual’s behavior within the school context” (Roach & Kratochwill, 2004, p. 13).

Summary

The literature suggests that a relationship exists between leadership behavior and staff morale and job satisfaction. It has been hypothesized that principals who consciously practice transformational leadership behaviors have a positive impact on the morale and productivity of their teachers. This study explores the soundness of the hypothesis and provides data for school leaders who strive to develop innovative leadership styles that will empower their teachers and improve morale.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature on leadership behavior and teacher morale.

The rationale for studying the relationship between rural elementary teachers' perception of their principals encompasses both leadership behavior and teacher morale

Bass (1990, p. 3) describes leadership as “one of the world’s oldest preoccupations.” From Aristotle to St. Paul to Machiavelli, writers and thinkers have analyzed the behavior of leaders, and this interest has prompted extensive studies about topics such as the importance of leadership, the ingredients of a good leader, typologies of leaders, and methods of cultivating effective leadership skills (Short & Geer, 1997).

There are many different definitions of leadership as there are different kinds of leaders. Kahn’s (1978) definition states that “the essence of organizational leadership (is) the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.” Some definitions of leadership reflect current organizational paradigms, and many recognize the importance of interpersonal influence over position titles or other formal status. Stogdill (1974) presents seven different categories for summarizing the various definitions of leadership that occurred in the voluminous research he reviewed, and he found that “the consistent theme is that leadership involves a social phenomenon in which a person may exert power, persuade, direct a group or individual behavior, facilitate goal achievement, or otherwise influence other people” (p. 22). Stogdill (1974) further defines leadership as a social influence process that includes at least two individuals acting in interdependent roles: one individual acts as a follower, and one acts as an influential leader. Pearce and Conger

(2003) describe leadership as broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralized in the hands of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior. As Bass and Avolio (1993) have astutely noted, the field of leadership often reinvents itself without regard to previous theory.

In the early 1980's, the United States started to become increasingly aware of critical issues facing its schools such as declining academic performance, poor student motivation, and attrition (Ulriksen, 2000). The primary responsibility for addressing most of the problems falls on the principal, who is accountable for everything from student performance on standardized tests to teacher morale. Seriovanni (1999) states that the growing body of research on effective schools has consistently pointed to the importance of responsible, assertive, and visible in-school leadership for school success.

Goodlad (2004), however, believes it would be a mistake to identify the principal as the main factor influencing teacher satisfaction; rather, he feels that the principal's leadership style is one of many factors which influence teacher job satisfaction. Bass and Avolio (1994) has observed that there is no single leadership style that is appropriate for every situation, but some are more effective than others in bringing about change in teachers' morale. Burns (2003) has stated that "leadership is not only a descriptive term but a prescriptive one, embracing a moral, even a passionate, dimension" (p. 2).

Principals are expected to be strong instructional leaders as well as to embody other facets of leadership. This strong instructional leadership has been found to be a common factor in research into what makes effective schools successful (MacNeil, 1992).

Avolio's Full Range Leadership Model (1999) describes leadership as a system that considers inputs (people, timing, and resources), processes (interaction with people and

resources over time), and outcomes (levels of motivation and performance). In this theory, each aspect of the system incorporates and interacts with each of the other aspects.

Leadership theories have been developed and revised many times in the United States. In the 1800's, Taylor's scientific management theory addressed improving the efficiency of work processes. This theory did not work well in schools because it focused on factories and products, not people (Keith & Girling, 1991). In the 1940's and 1950's, many leaders based their interactions on the trait theory, which suggests that certain traits make a leader effective (see Table 2.1). Though it has shortcomings, this theory led to behavioral theories, which state that a person's behavior as a leader makes a difference in the organization. Behavioral theories led in turn to the development of situational leadership theories, in which different ideas and situations determine the style of leadership.

In the U.S. in the 1960's and 1970's, popular human-resource leadership theories focused on the leader's belief in the people (workers). Human-resource leadership theories evolved into organizational leadership theories which stressed openness, empowerment, and participation that would lead to success within a company. Recent organizational leadership theories stress the importance of having a shared vision, meeting human needs, and empowering staff (Palestini, 2003). These theories explore the qualities of transactional and transformational leaders.

Palestini has described trait theories which evaluate personality traits, social traits, and physical characteristics in an effort to define the complex combination of traits found in leaders. Trait theories state that leaders have certain characteristics and take on

responsibilities such as setting tasks and standards for the employee, telling the employee how to perform a job, and either inspecting or appointing an inspector. Leaders were also seen to use coercion when employees would resist work, and the leaders and employees were usually adversaries. The vast responsibilities and the number of employees needing supervision did not allow leaders of schools to be strong instructional leaders. These events led to the birth of school systems, system theories, and bureaucracy (Keith & Girling, 1991).

In systems theory, the organization is seen as one large system comprised of smaller systems, where a change in one part of the system causes change in other parts of the system (Keith & Girling). Leaders work on the system while employees work in the system and are part of the whole. One of the drawbacks of systems theory is that the individual within the organization is sometimes overlooked: this shortcoming led to the development of human relations theories. (Keith & Girling).

The outgrowth of the Hawthorne studies, along with the social climate of the country following World War II, stimulated the beginning of the human relations movement. (The terms “human relations theories” and “human resource theories” are interchangeable.) This movement stressed the central importance of both the supervisor and the work groups in determining job satisfaction and productivity (Ulriksen, 2005). Human relations theory focuses on productivity and effectiveness in social terms, with the primary emphasis on the leader’s style of interacting with workers. Human relations leaders believe in “productivity through people” (Palestin, 2003, p. 10.)

Three of the better-known human relations researchers have been Herzberg, Likert, and McGregor. Herzberg’s hygiene-motivation theory explored why workers do

their work. Herzberg has described hygiene factors as “dissatisfiers,” extrinsic items such as conditions and supervision that are considered to be lower order factors. When these items are engaged, the workers then move to the higher order concerns, or “motivators.” Motivators satisfy workers and are intrinsic in nature; they are not limited solely to recognition and achievement. When leaders are aware where their workers fall on this continuum, they can utilize this information to encourage workers to strive for better performance (Bogler, 1999).

Likert’s Systems theory has broken the progress of leadership into four systems, which range on a continuum from the first system, where leaders are considered to be authoritarian and follow a bureaucratic organization, to the fourth system, where leaders rely on teamwork and cooperation between themselves and subordinates while working toward high performance goals (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996).

McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y concentrate on general management philosophies. Theory X states that people dislike work and avoid it, and that people need to be directed, coerced, and sometimes threatened in order to do work because of their natural aversion to work. Theory X also holds that people want to be directed by a leader. Theory Y, on the other hand, holds that work is as “natural as play or rest; and commitment to objectives is a function of rewards for achievement; and under proper conditions, people accept and seek responsibility” (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996, p. 30.) Theory Y is not centered on organizational structure, but rather on arranging an organization in order to best fit the occasion. McGregor’s Theory Y led to the development of organizational theories of leadership (Keith & Girling, 1991).

Organizational theories are based upon the set-up of an organization, and they encompass many different practices and ideas. One practice is site-based management, which represents a change in how a school district is structured. This paradigm concerns the way in which responsibility and authority are shared between schools and the district (Lunenburg & Ornstein). Site-based management usually includes all stakeholders involved in the school, and focuses on creating teams with different responsibilities.

Site-based management, one of many management tools that began in industry and was transferred to the school systems, is based on Deming's Total Quality Management model (TQM). Lunenburg and Ornstein (1996) stated that TQM is "based on the assumption that people want to do their best and that it is management's job to enable them to do so by constantly improving the system in which they work" (p. 38). Bass and Avolio (1994) state that "TQM is effective management plus effective leadership which is built over time" (p. 131). TQM began from a Japanese premise that employees of an organization are important in determining the success and/or failure of an organization. This contrasts with the scientific management movement, which argues that increases in productivity are dependent on improved technology (Sherman, 1986).

Theories of participative management have been derived from the implementation of TQM in schools. "Participative management is characterized by school-level planning and decision-making linked to professional accountability" (Keith & Gurling, 1991, p. 16). In participative management, employees are involved in all levels of decision-making in the organization. Participative management has been shown to be successful in corporations and businesses, so it has been incorporated in the practice of educational management. Participative management is built on the bureaucratic model which stresses

a top-down and bottom-up flow of communication. Lunenburg & Ornstein (1996) have stated that “participatory management stresses the importance of motivating employees’ needs, which will in turn result in higher worker productivity” (p. 30). Bass and Avolio (1994) believe that efforts to achieve total quality stress a return to reliance on the individual worker or teams of workers in order to ensure quality in all aspects of the organizational functioning.

Deming’s model of TQM closely parallels models of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Palestini (2003) defines a transformational leader as someone who “changes an organization by recognizing an opportunity and developing a vision, (then) communicating that vision by motivating organizational members” (p. 10).

According to Palestini, “Charismatic, or transformational, leaders use charisma to inspire their followers. They talk to them about how essential their performance is, how confident they are in their followers, how exceptional the followers are, and how they expect the group’s performance to exceed expectations” (p. 10). Researchers agree that transformational leaders motivate their workers to do more than was thought possible. Setting high expectations and informing the employees of the importance of the reaching those goals allows employees to focus on overall goals for the group and the school, and it also supports employees in developing awareness of their personal needs and goals. Burns (2003) states that the interaction between transformational leaders and their employees is a “powerful causal force for change” (p. 25) within any organization.

Motivational leaders often support their followers into developing into leaders (Avolio, 1999). Sosik and Godshalk (2000), citing a study of mentors and their protégées’ perception of mentoring and job-related stress, agree, stating,

“Transformational leadership involves forming a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (pp. 369-370). Sosik and Godshalk have found a correlation between transformational leadership and the effectiveness of the subordinates, observing that “organizations should couple mentoring programs with transformational leadership training for mentors to maximize reductions in protégé job-related stress (and its associated costs)” (p. 381).

Bass and Avolio (1994) have stated that transformational leadership is present when leaders:

- stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives;
- generate awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization;
- develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential;
- and
- motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group. (p. 2)

Strong transformational leaders have been found to listen effectively and encourage two-way communication. Bass and Avolio describe four key characteristics of transformational leaders: Individual consideration, Intellectual stimulation, Inspirational leadership, and Idealized influence (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

1. Intellectual stimulation: The leader encourages creativity, does not publicly criticize, and encourages followers to solve old problems in new ways.
2. Inspirational leadership: The leader demonstrates that a problem can be solved and everyone has a voice in solving that problem (Bass & Avolio).

3. Idealized influence: The leader acts as a role model and shows concern for the problem and a need for a solution. Bass and Avolio describe this third point as a more concrete method for redirecting and redefining a problem with others (1994).
4. Individualized consideration: The leader provides a supportive climate in which he or she listens carefully to followers.

A transformational leader allows followers to “disengage and dis-identify with the past” (Palestini, 2003, p. 10), which makes room for developing “ideological explanations that link their follower’s identities to the collective identity of their group or organization” (Jung & Avolio, 2000, p. 950). This new sense of identity and purpose empowers the followers, which explains how, as Palestini states, the charismatic leader empower(s) others to help achieve the vision.”

Jung and Avolio (2000) cite evidence that indicates “transformational leadership affects followers’ performance in ways that are quantitatively greater and qualitatively different from the effects of other leadership styles” (p. 949). In a study of 194 undergraduates, Jung and Avolio determined that transformational leadership has a statistically significant different relationship with followers’ trust and value congruence than other leadership styles such as transactional leadership. They found that “transformational leadership had both direct and indirect effects on followers’ performance. However, transactional leadership mainly had indirect effects on performance mediated by followers’ trust and value congruence” (p. 959).

Jung and Avolio state that “several leadership researchers have argued that developing a shared vision is one of the most integral components of the transformational

leadership process” (p. 950). Van Engen, van der Leeder, and Willemsen (2001) add that while both democratic and transformational leadership value active participation in decision-making, transformational leadership should not be confused with democratic, participative leadership. “It often may be so, but at times it can also be directive, decisive” (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p. 6-7). Trott and Windsor (1999) observe that “staff members who value a more participative long-term outlook generally prefer the transformational leader” (p. 1).

Silins (1992) has concluded that transformational leadership is effective in initiating change and also has noted that “reliance on given procedures, rules, or reward systems is less effective” (p. 318) than transformational leadership. Silins has also observed that “the success of a transformational leader is demonstrated both by increased performance outcomes and the degree to which followers have developed their own leadership potential and skills” (p. 318). Silins’ study focused on the relationship between school leaders and school improvement outcomes. His study concentrated on the transformational and transactional leader and “supported the view of the principalship as a major source of leadership contributing to the school improvement process, although not always the sole source” (p. 318).

Bass and Avolio (1994) and Jung and Avolio (2000) have all defined the transactional leader as one who emphasizes the transaction among leaders, colleagues, and followers. Silins (1992) has shown that “transactions are at the heart of the interchange between leaders and followers” (p. 318). Bass and Avolio have observed that transactions are “based on the leader discussing with others what is required, and specifying the conditions and rewards these others will receive if they fulfill those

requirements.” Avolio (1999) has stated that these interchanges focus solely on the interest of the people involved, and the rewards offered often satisfy only the people engaged in the interchange. In transactional leadership, the followers enter a transaction “because of the expectation to fulfill self-interest, and it is the role of the leader to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the followers” Bogler (1999). Jung and Avolio (2000) found that for trust to be gained by the leader, he or she has to be consistent in rewarding followers. They also note that “followers may need extra incentives, time and/or motivation before they are willing to go beyond the call of duty to engage in extra-role behavior” (p. 959).

There are four types of transactional leadership that fall along a continuum of effectiveness:

1. Contingent reward leadership: Followers receive a reward when a task is completed.
2. Management by exception active leadership: Leaders actively monitor problems and take actions only when needed. (This is less effective than contingent rewards leadership.)
3. Management by exception passive leadership: Leaders wait for problems to arise and then try to correct them. (This is slightly more effective than laissez-faire leadership.)
4. Laissez-faire leadership: The leader does either nothing or stresses “error detection, monitoring, and correction” (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Sosik and Godshalk (2002) have stated that the most effective form of transactional leadership is contingent reward leadership wherein the leader “sets goals,

clarifies desired outcomes, provides both positive and negative feedback, and exchanges rewards and recognition for accomplishments when they are deserved.” (pp. 369-370).

Although transactional leadership can be quite effective, it “does not involve a leader’s commitment toward follower’s personal development, nor does it involve a strong emotional attachment to the leader” (Jung & Avolio, 2000, p. 951). A transactional leader is more of a manager than a leader, and is effective in crisis situations where there is a short-term resolution. In contrast, Avolio & Bass (2002) have stated that since the 1980s research has supported the concept that “transformational leadership in more effective than transactional leadership in generating the extra effort, commitment, and satisfaction of those led” (p. 1).

Avolio & Bass (2002) have also noted that no one specific leadership style is appropriate for all situations; each situation may require a different style. “Each leader has a profile that includes some or all of these transformational, transactional and non-transactional behaviors. The better leaders practice both styles, and the best leaders are more transformational than transactional” (p. viii).

Pearce and Conger (2003) define shared leadership as a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead on another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both.

Other prominent theorists that have influenced leadership practice in K-12 educators are as follows:

Table 2.1
Prominent Theorists

| Theorists | Beliefs |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Bennis, W. (2003) | Focuses on the future. Emphasizes the fact that modern leaders must not rely on their personal skills or charisma to produce change. |
| Block, P. (2003) | Sees leadership as an act of effective questioning. Effective leaders are social architects who create a “social space” that enhances or inhibits the effective of an organization. |
| Buckingham, M. & Clifton, D. (2001) | Identifies 34 signature “talents” or strengths” that individuals within an organization might possess. They suggest that leader should spend a great deal of time selecting the “right people” up front. |
| Collins, J. (2001) | Is highly influential in the businesses that have gone from “good to great.” He suggests that Level 5 leaders are more interested in building a great company than they are in drawing attention to themselves. |
| Covey, S. (1989) | Suggests that there are seven behaviors that generate positive results in a variety of situations. He also addresses the concept of time management. |
| Elmore, R. (2000) | Provides perspective on the role of leadership. He promotes instructional leadership in that he emphasizes the importance of understanding effective practices in curriculum, instruction, and assessment and the ability to work with teachers on the day-to-day problems related to these topics. |
| Fullan, M. (1993) | Maintains a theory that is expansive but focuses on the process of change and leadership for change. |
| Heifetz, R. & Linksy, M. (1994) | Emphasizes the need to adapt leadership behavior to the requirements of the situation. |
| Spillane, J. (2001 & 2004) | Focuses attention on the concept of distributed leadership. |

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) have stated that the general conclusion from the school effectiveness literature of the 1970's was that educational leadership was an important characteristic of effective schools. According to Hoyle, English, & Steffy (1985), no single theory of leadership accounts adequately for all the leadership dimensions of successful performance, and no single set of administrative or supervisory skills will solve each and every problem facing school leaders today.

Table 2.2

Historical Bases of Shared Leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003)

| Theory/Research | Key Issues | Representative Authors |
|---|--|--|
| Law of the situation | Let the situation, not the individual, determine the "orders" | Follett (1924) |
| Human relations and social systems perspective | Pay attention to the social and psychological needs of perspective employees | Turner (1993) Mayo (1993) Barnard (1938) |
| Role differentiation | Members of groups typically assume different types of roles | Benne and Sheats (1948) |
| Co-leadership | The leadership role is divided between two people—primarily in a research relationship | Solomon, Loefefer, and Frank (1953) Hennan and Bennis(1998) |
| Social exchange theory | People exchange punishments and rewards in their social world | Festinger (1954) Homans (1958) |
| Management by objectives and participative goal setting | Subordinates and superiors jointly set performance expectations | Drucker (1954) Erez and Arad (1986) Locke and Latham(1980) |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| Emergent leadership | Leaders can “emerge” from a leaderless group | Hollander (1961) |
| Mutual leadership | Leadership can come from peers’ expectation states | Bowers and Seashore (1996) |
| Theory and team member exchange Seers (1989) | Team members develop models of status differential between various team members | Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch (1972) Seers (1989) |
| Participative decision making | Under certain circumstances, it is advisable to elicit more involvement by subordinates in the decision-making process | Vroom and Yetton (1973) |
| Vertical dyad | Examines the process between linkage/leader and followers and the member exchange creation of in-groups and out-groups | Graen (1976) |
| Substitutes for leadership | Situation characteristics (e.g., highly routinized work) diminishes the need for leadership | Kerr and Jermier (1978) |
| Self-leadership | Employees, given certain conditions, are capable of leading themselves | Manz and Sims (1980) |
| Self-managing work | Team members can take roles formerly reserved for managers | Manz and Sims (1978,1993) |
| Followership | Examines the characteristics of good followers | Kelly (1988) |
| Empowerment | Examines power sharing with subordinates | Conger and Kanungo |
| Shared cognition | Examines the extent to which team members hold | Klimoski and Mohammed (1994) |

similar mental models about
key internal and external
environmental issues

Connective leadership

Examines how well leaders
are able to make
connections to others
both inside and outside the
team

Liman-Blumen

Teacher Morale

Definition of Morale

Webster's New World Dictionary (1994) defines morale as "the moral or mental condition with respect to courage, discipline, confidence, enthusiasm, willingness to endure hardship, etc., within a group, in relation to a group, or within an individual." "While this idea is not foreign to many school administrators and teachers, it is generally not included in the literature on morale, except from authors writing on military morale and leadership, who recognize that this "willingness" is one, if not the major, criterion for assessing morale" (Andrew, Parks, Nelson, & the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Teacher/Faculty Morale, 1985, p. 7). Viteles (1953) has also emphasized willingness as a crucial component of morale, defining morale as a "willingness to strive for the goals of a particular group" (p. 12). According to Dinham and Scott (1996), and Wetworth (1990), the consequence of an employee's willingness on a job, or lack thereof, is associated with commitment and satisfaction.

Bentley and Rempel (1980) have defined morale as "the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a job situation." Smith's (1966) definition noted that it is "a forward-looking and confident state of mind relevant to a shared and vital purpose" (p. 2).

The term “motivation” is derived from the word “motive,” “which is any condition within a person that affects his or her readiness to initiate or continue any activity or sequence of activities--as for example, experiencing a need to work to care for one’s family may be the motive for obtaining and keeping a job” (Towns, 1996). Schunk (1996) observes that when a person accomplishes an objective, learns a new skill, or succeeds in a task, that person is often said to be motivated.

Akinson (1957) defines motivation as a voluntary, goal-directed disposition to strive for a certain kind of satisfaction. Motivation means “an inner state that energizes, activates, or moves, and that directs or channels behavior toward goals” (Berelson & Steiner, 1964, p. 240). Beck (1978) has stated that motivation is broadly concerned with contemporary determinants of choice (direction), persistence, and vigor of goal-directed behavior, and Russell and Black (1981) view motivation as a continuous process of interaction between needs within the individual and the environment. Russell and Black’s definition incorporates the combination of needs (biological, emotional, ego, and social/environment needs) that tend to move an individual in many and often conflicting directions.

Regarding the effective implementation of mandated accountability requirements, Okafor-Ufondu (2005) listed creating a positive school climate and improving teacher morale as one of the most important skills for administrators. Beran (2003) studied teachers’ perceptions of mandated standards and found that “the standards process has led to perceptions of low teacher morale, high stress, and increased workload” (p. i). Hall and Shultz (2003) also studied the effects of mandated professionalism on both teacher and teacher educators and found that “it is important to identify these tensions and define

the intersection between the professional commitments of teachers and teacher educators” (p. 380). They put forth the idea of being able “to identify the institutional realities that constrain practitioners in both roles” (p. 380). Hall and Shultz (2003) have stated that “teacher educators need to exercise discretionary judgment about where compliance with the professionalization agenda needs to play second string to a commitment to maintaining and developing professionalism” (p. 380).

Naylor (2001) have found three key sources that cause stress for educators: “increasing difficulty and complexity of teaching and relating to students,” “the volume of work during a teacher’s day and the expectations that teachers will address a range of tasks and issues,” and “lack of time, resources, support, and respect.” He found that the results of dealing with these stressors include “working excessively,” “quitting teaching,” “becoming sick,” and/or suffering “effects on family life and relationship” (p. 1). Fanning (1997) has stated that similar stressors for teachers when he conducted a quantitative survey. He found a relationship between stress and the number of disruptive students in the classroom, but not with the number of remedial students in the classroom. Fanning found no relationship between stress and gender or ethnic group. He found no correlations between stress and class size.

Harris (1999) also studied stress levels in schools and their effects on teachers and the school environment. This research revealed that “teachers’ stress is a multifaceted problem and principal leadership style is one contributing factor” (p. vii). Doyle (2002) found that school systems reduce stress levels by fostering “a customer focus approach with students and parents” (p. 111). This study also revealed “that because teachers were

generally satisfied and had low levels of work-related stress, they were better able to focus their attention on students” (p. 111).

Davis and Wilson (2000) researched the effects of leadership on the teacher’s quality of life at work. They revealed “the more principals engaged in behaviors that were personally empowering, the more teachers saw that they had choices they could make in completing their work, and the greater impact they perceived they were achieving through their efforts”(p. 352). These intrinsic rewards were found to be more beneficial for motivating teachers, affecting climate, and reducing stress. Davis and Wilson revealed that “teachers motivation had a moderately strong association with both teacher job satisfaction and job stress” (p. 352). Paynter (2004) states “teachers have a significantly higher preference for moral motivators when compared to intrinsic and extrinsic motivators” (p. ii).

Chiang (2003) have revealed that administrators rank building positive relationships with faculty and staff members as the most important skill for building a positive climate. Carsten (2003) researched communication strategies for building positive relationships and defined them as “disseminator/moderator, healer/supporter, symbol, visionary, storyteller, and promoter” (p. ii). This research suggested these leadership activities maintained “high visibility, personal connections with the staff and students, positional influence and holding staff accountable” (p. ii). Carsten suggested providing “community meetings, equal treatment of both classified and certificated personnel, clearly defining core values, and maintaining a full line of communication with teachers who are off track” (p. ii).

Summary

Leadership is defined by this author as the process of providing influential direction for the sake of achieving established organizational goals and objectives. “Because the principal is viewed as the leader of her or his school, considerable attention is being directed to ways to overhaul the principal’s role to facilitate the type of leadership needed to transform teaching and learning” (Murphy & Louis, 1994, p. 7). One of the reform movements in education includes making the teacher and all persons involved stakeholders. Weasmer and Woods (2002) stated that teachers become stakeholders when they play active roles as agents for change in the schools. Weasmer (2002) also explains that for teachers to become stakeholders, they need to know that their contributions to the school culture are honored. Teachers who claim a voice in moving toward organizational goals increase their commitment to the district and enhance their job satisfaction (Weasmer). Brookover, et al. (1982) state that it is essential that the principal provide strong leadership or at least actively support other staff in bringing about the needed changes. An effective leader first identifies needs to be changed, and then shares his or her vision with the followers. McNeil (2000), and Gilman and Lanman-Givens (2001) all state that it takes the entire school to educate a child, and an effective school leader includes the entire school in the change. Bass and Avolio (1994) have stated that during times of change, significant activity takes place in role redefinition and learning alternative roles to support change. “Due to the behaviors exhibited by a transformational leader, Bass’s model has indicated that transformational leaders will be more effective in bringing about change” (Silins, 1992, p. 318).

The literature review revealed that whereas there is empirical evidence supporting a positive relationship between morale, which is defined as the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given job situation (Bentley & Rempel, 1980), and productivity, one cannot assume that there is a direct cause-and-effect relationship. While no one leadership style is effective in all situations, the literature review supports the notion that effective school leaders forge collaborative relationships which have the power to influence school climate and outcomes. However, many studies relate teacher stress to leadership style (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Fanning, 1997; Harris, 1999).

Leadership behavior clearly impacts teacher morale, and a positive relationship between leadership behavior and teacher morale is evident in several areas. These findings support that teacher morale can be predicted on the basis of the leadership style asserted by the principal. Principals who use a participatory style of leadership are more likely to have more satisfied and productive teachers than principals who use an autocratic style of leadership.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter presents the specific steps that were taken to collect and analyze the data: restatement of the problem, research questions, research design, population, participants, instrumentation, data collection, response rate, data analysis, reporting the data, and summarizing the data.

This study was conducted to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between teacher morale and of their principals' leadership style in a rural elementary school setting. This study further sought to determine which specific leadership characteristics teachers respond to most positively or most negatively. Data were collected from two different questionnaires that were completed by teachers during a meeting.

The questionnaires were The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire and The Excellent Principal Inventory. The independent variable of this study was leader behavior as reflected by consideration and initiating structure factors of the Excellent Principal Inventory. The dependent variable, teacher morale, was obtained using the Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire by having the teachers indicate their degree of satisfaction on ten different subscales.

The variables of this study were not susceptible to experimental control and manipulation. In light of this, an ex post facto research design was used since the variables under study were the perception of teacher morale leadership behavior of principals as reported by elementary teachers. Kerlinger (1973) defines ex post facto research as: that research in which the researcher starts with the observation of a

dependent variable or variables. He then studies the independent variables in retrospect for their possible relations to, and effects on, the dependent variable or variables.

Accordingly, since the teachers' perceptions of leader behavior and their expressions of morale were the variables under investigation, it was necessary to implement an ex post facto design.

Research Questions

1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale?
2. To what leadership characteristics do teachers respond most positively/negatively?

Population Sample

The setting used for this study consists of five elementary schools in the Happy Valley School District, located in a rural county south of metro Atlanta.

Happy Valley Public Schools consist of two primary, six elementary, three middle, and two high schools, one alternative school, a performance learning center, and the Career Academy. The total student enrollment for Happy County is over 12,000.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of the elementary school teachers at four elementary schools in the Happy Valley County School System. Each of the elementary schools had at least 40-88 certified staff members. To be eligible for participation, the teachers had to have to at least one year of experience. The general education teachers were defined as all classroom instructors of general education students enrolled in kindergarten through fifth grade. All participating teachers must have been employed at their assigned school for a minimum of five months and must have worked under the direct supervision of the principal during this five month tenure. This stipulation ensured

that the teachers had adequate opportunity to interact and become acquainted with the principal, to interact with their colleagues, and to formulate general impressions of the school environment.

Instrumentation

Two survey instruments were used to conduct this study: The Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire and The Excellent Principal Inventory.

The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire. The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO) was developed to provide a comprehensive measure of teacher morale. The instrument not only yields a total score indicating teacher morale, but it also provides ten sub-scores which break morale into ten corresponding dimensions. Because morale is multidimensional in nature, a one-dimensional perspective is inadequate as a means of identifying and measuring morale (Bentley & Rempel, 1980); consequently, measuring morale accurately calls for a complex analysis of its pertinent components.

Bentley and Rempel define morale as “professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a given situation.” The instrument asks respondents to make qualitative judgments about people and conditions in their environment which have been determined relevant to morale. The factors are as follows:

Factor 1: Teacher Rapport with Principal addresses feelings about the principal: professional competency, interest in teachers and their work, ability to communicate, and skill in human relations.

Factor 2: Satisfaction with Teaching pertains to teacher relationships with students and feeling of satisfaction with teaching. According to this factor, the high

morale teacher loves to teach, feels competent in his or her job, enjoys the students, and believes in the future of teaching as an occupation.

Factor 3: Rapport among Teachers focuses on teacher's relationships with other teachers. The items here solicit the teacher's opinion regarding the cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests, and competency of his or her peers.

Factor 4: Teacher Salary pertains primarily to the teacher's feelings about salary and salary policies. Are salaries based on teacher competency? Do they compare favorably with salaries in other school systems? Are salary policies administered fairly and justly, and do teachers participate in the development of those policies?

Factor 5: Teacher Load deals with such matters as record-keeping, clerical work, "red tape," community demands on teacher time, extra-curricular activities, and keeping up to date professionally.

Factor 6: Curriculum Issues solicits teacher reactions to the adequacy of the school program in meeting student needs, in providing for individual differences, and in preparing students for effective citizenship.

Factor 7: Teacher Status samples feelings about the prestige, security, and benefits afforded by teaching. Several of the items refer to the extent to which the teacher feels he or she is an accepted member of the community.

Factor 8: Community Support of Education deals with the extent to which the teacher feels the community understands and is willing to support a sound educational program.

Factor 9: School Facilities and Services has to do with the adequacy of facilities, supplies and equipment, and the efficiency of the procedures for obtaining material and services.

Factor 10: Community Pressures gives special attention to community expectations with respect to the teacher's personal standards, his or her participation in outside-school activities, and his or her freedom to discuss controversial issues in the classroom (Bentley & Rempel, 1980).

The The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO) asks respondents to complete a survey in which they make qualitative judgments about various factors listed above. The opinionnaire is comprised of 100 items which are appropriately weighted on a scale of 1-4. The four choices for each item are: Agree (A), Probably Agree (B), Probably Disagree (C), and Disagree (D). The survey can be scored either by manual computation or computer software data analysis. Bentley and Rempel specify that item responses are weighted for scoring in the following manner:

- a. When "AGREE" (A) is the keyed response (positive item), the weights are as follows:

| A | PA | PD | D |
|---|----|----|---|
| 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

- b. When "DISAGREE" (D) is the keyed response (negative item), the weights are:

| A | PA | PD | D |
|---|----|----|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

The respective factor scores are computed by summing the weights which have been assigned to the items belonging to that factor. The total morale score is computed by summing the subscores on the ten morale factors (see Table 3.1)

The reliability of the PTO was determined by administering the survey to 3,023 high school teachers in Indiana and Oregon. Sixty Indiana schools and 16 Oregon schools were selected for participation. After the initial administration, Bentley and Rempel waited four weeks and re-administered the opinionnaire. Results indicated that the instrument's reliability is very strong, with a range of .62-.88 for the various factors and a total score of .87.

The validity of the PTO was established by having the principals at the Indiana and Oregon schools report how they thought their respective faculties would respond to the various factors. Median scores were used to compare the teachers' responses with the responses of the principals. Results indicated that the scores were not significantly different (see Table 3.3). Bentley and Rempel (1980) have noted that:

There is no relevant criterion on which to judge the validity of an instrument of this nature, except, to some extent, the relative performance of teachers. Peer ratings, evaluations by administrators, etc., obviously have very limited relevance as a criterion of validity of teacher morale. To the extent that teachers agree with one another, are self consistent in their ratings and content validity is exhibited, at least adequate validity may be assumed.

Table 3.1
Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire: Morale Factor Scores and Total Morale Scores
 (Bentley & Remple, 1980)

| <u>Factor Number</u> | <u>Number of Items</u> | <u>Factor Scores</u> |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Teacher Rapport With Principal | 20 | 80 |
| 2. Satisfaction With Teaching | 20 | 80 |
| 3. Rapport Among Teachers | 14 | 56 |
| 4. Teacher Salary | 7 | 28 |
| 5. Teacher Load | 11 | 44 |
| 6. Curriculum Issues | 5 | 20 |
| 7. Teacher Status | 8 | 32 |
| 8. Community Support of Education | 5 | 20 |
| 9. School Facilities and Services | 5 | 20 |
| 10. Community Pressure | 5 | 20 |
| | 100 | Morale Score 400 |

*Factor scores are based on the maximum weight of 4 points per item.

The Excellent Principal Inventory. The second instrument used for this study was The Excellent Principal Inventory (EPI) (see Appendix C). The EPI was developed under the leadership of Dr. Gerald Bogen, Professor Emeritus of the Department of Educational Policy and Management at the University of Oregon, in 1988.

Three forms of the inventory were developed to assess the principal's behavior: 1) the "self" version, to be completed by the principal; 2) the "other" version, to be completed by professional colleagues; and 3) the "classroom teacher" version, to be completed by the teachers supervised by the principal. All three versions contain the same questions. The third version is the one to be used in this research project.

The EPI contains questionnaire items reflecting the behaviors that constitute the values of effective leadership embodied in five commitments that characterize the

“excellent principal.” These commitments and their 13 corresponding subcomponents are as follows:

I. Commitment to Student Success

A. Demonstrating Respect for Students

B. Pursuing All-Around Excellence

II. Commitment to Teaching and Learning

A. Promoting Teaching and learning

B. Supporting Continuous learning as a Lifetime Goal

III. Commitment to the School Staff

A. Demonstrating Respect for the School Staff

B. Helping Individuals Improve

C. Building a Collegial Staff

IV. Commitment to Innovation

A. Supporting Creativity

B. Supporting Upward Communication

V. Commitment to Leadership

A. Demonstrating Integrity

B. Presenting Ideas

C. Taking Responsibility

D. Relating to External Constituencies

For the purpose of the research, the “teacher” version was administered to the classroom instructors. The wording of the items in all three versions of the inventory are essentially the same. Each inventory contains 89 Likert-scaled items, with the score of

the responses ranging from 1 to 4, with A) denoting Highly Dissatisfied, B) Dissatisfied, C) Neither Satisfied, and D) Satisfied. The administration time ranged from 25 to 30 minutes.

A total score and separate categorical scores were obtained for each of the five sections of the EPI. The highest possible total score on the EPI is 445. The statistical analysis report from this survey provided averages, database averages, and percentiles.

No formal validity or reliability testing has been conducted on the EPI, but a review of the contents of and the feedback on the inventory established that it has good face validity. The EPI has been administered to several school principals in various districts across the United States, and the training evaluation feedback that Keilty, Goldsmith and Company has received has been outstanding. The evaluations have been so outstanding that they led to training requests by other school district principals. It is the company's assessment that the consistency in evaluation feedback, the lack of reported ambiguity of the individual items, and the reported improvement in the leadership skills of principals by various trainees all suggest that the inventory is reliable and valid.

The EPI was selected as a measure of leadership behavior for four main reasons. First, the instrument provides five categories (commitments) and thirteen subcomponents that assess the leadership behavior of principals. Second, the contents of the inventory are contemporary and aligned with the research on excellent schools and excellent school leaders (e.g., Short & Greer, 1997; Starratt, 1995.) Third, whereas formal validity and reliability testing has not been conducted, the inventory has been widely used and assessed to be an effective tool in assessing leadership behavior. Fourth, whereas formal

validity and reliability testing has not been conducted, the inventory has been widely used and assessed to be an effective tool in assessing leadership behavior.

Data Collection Procedures

The researcher communicated with the principal of each school and asked permission to attend one faculty meeting to distribute the survey instruments, explain the purpose and significance of the study, and assure the participants that all information would be held in the strictest confidence. Data were collected from 250 elementary teachers, and the researcher collected all surveys after completion.

Data Analysis

The data were collected from the tabulated results of the questionnaires. Tests were conducted to determine if a statistically significant correlation exists between leadership behavior and teacher morale using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation test with one dependent variable (teacher morale) and one independent variable (principal's leadership behavior). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was also used to analyze the collected data.

Summary

Two instruments, the Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire and the Excellent Principal Inventory, were evaluated and found to be effective for collecting and analyzing data to assess the correlation between teacher morale and principals' leadership style in a rural elementary school setting. An ex post facto research design was determined to be the best approach to obtain the most valid results.

CHAPTER 4

REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The data were collected from the tabulated results of the questionnaires. Tests were conducted to determine if a statistically significant correlation exists between leadership behavior and teacher morale using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation test with one dependent variable (teacher morale) and one independent variable (principal's leadership behavior). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was also used to analyze the collected data.

The data used for this study consist of information gathered from teachers from four elementary schools in the public school system located in a rural county south of metro Atlanta. The research site was well grounded, with little turnover in teachers. Each teacher surveyed had at least one year of experience and each of the four elementary schools had at least 40-88 certified staff members.

The researcher communicated with the principal of each school and asked permission to attend one faculty meeting to distribute the survey instrument, explain the purpose and significance of the study, and assure the participants that no information would be identifiable from specific individuals. Data were collected from at least 250 teachers within the county from each of the five elementary schools by administering two different confidential questionnaires. The researcher delivered the questionnaires during a planned faculty meeting and collected them before the meeting ended.

Research Questions

1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale?
2. Which leadership characteristics do teachers respond to most positively and/or negatively?

Research Design

The two instruments used were The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire and The Excellent Principal Inventory.

The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire. The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO) was developed to provide a comprehensive measure of teacher morale. The instrument not only yields a total score indicating teacher morale, but it also provides ten sub-scores which break morale into ten corresponding dimensions. Because morale is multidimensional in nature, a one-dimensional perspective is inadequate as a means of identifying and measuring morale (Bentley & Rempel, 1980); consequently, measuring morale accurately calls for a complex analysis of its pertinent components.

The Excellent Principal Inventory. The second instrument used for this study was The Excellent Principal Inventory (EPI) (see Appendix C). The EPI was developed under the leadership of Dr. Gerald Bogen, Professor Emeritus of the Department of Educational Policy and Management at the University of Oregon, in 1988.

Respondents

Two hundred and fifty surveys were distributed; 118 Excellent Principal Inventories were returned, and 122 Perdue Teacher Opinionnaires completed from each survey. However, some of the returned surveys were unusable, and some were returned blank.

Findings

Research Question 1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale?

There was a survey response rate of 47% (118 of 250 respondents).

Teachers were asked to respond to the 88-item EPI survey by selecting one response from a four-point Likert scale, where 4 represented Satisfied and 1 represented Highly Dissatisfied. Because category responses deviated slightly, the resulting behavior means and rates were interpreted according to the scale below.

Figure 4.1
Teacher Morale and Satisfaction of Leadership Behavior



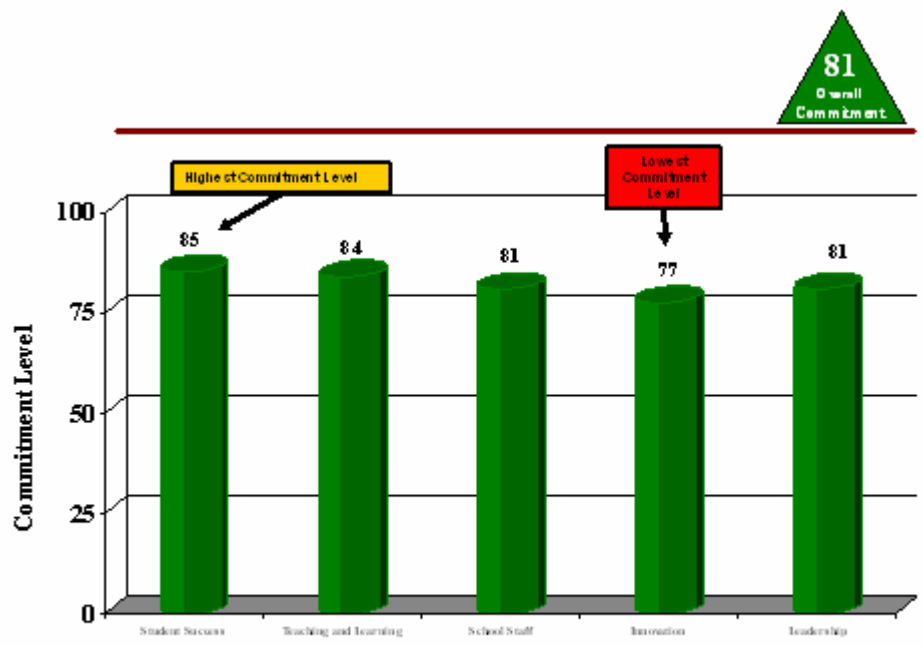
The overall behavior score and 13 associated leadership behavior scores all indicate that teachers are not satisfied with the leadership behaviors of their principals. The overall behavior has a mean response and rate level of 3.26 and 81 respectively, while the mean scores of all the associated leadership behaviors range from 2.89 to 3.44 [See Tables 4.1 and 4.2]. All results fall within the “Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied” scale range as seen above. Although no behaviors were aggregately rated at the dissatisfied level, teachers responded most negatively to Demonstrating Integrity ($\mu = 3.20$), Demonstrating Respect for the School Staff ($\mu = 3.15$), and Supporting Upward Communication ($\mu = 2.89$). [See Table 4.2]. All three leadership behaviors are at a level

below 80. [See Figure 4.1]. These data clearly indicate that the teachers are not feeling supported by their principals and that there is a disconnection between the principals and the teachers.

While no behaviors were found “satisfying” by the respondents, the most positive associated leadership behaviors were Demonstrating Respect for Students ($\mu = 3.44$) and Promoting Teaching and Learning ($\mu = 3.42$). It should be noted that, from the teachers’ perspective, the most positive overall commitment lies in Student Success ($\mu = 3.41$). The data indicate that teachers do not doubt their principals’ commitment to the students or to teaching and learning. [See Table 4.2].

Because there was a significant amount of variability in all commitments and leadership behaviors, the survey data were divided into subgroups (or quartiles) to further determine the teachers’ perception of their principals. The top 25 percent of respondents (or 75th percentile) reported, as a group, Satisfaction (4.00) in every category although there were no mean scores in the “satisfied” range level. The lower 25 percent of the respondents (or 25th percentile) reported neutral (3.00) in all but one category. In this lone category--Commitment to Innovation--this group was dissatisfied (2.00), in particular with Supporting Upward Communication. [See Table 4.2].

Figure 4.2
Excellent Principal Inventory Commitment Levels



From the teachers' perspective, the principals are most committed to Student Success while they are least committed to Innovation – Supporting Creativity and Supporting Upward Communication. The overall commitment level falls short of satisfaction – at a level of 81.

Table 4.1
Excellent Principal Inventory – Leadership Behavior Scores and Levels by Category

| COMMITMENTS AND SUBCOMPONENTS | MAXIMUM POSSIBLE BEHAVIOR SCORE PER RESPONDENT | TOTAL POSSIBLE EPI SCORES (N=118) | ACTUAL TOTAL EPI SCORES (N=118) | BEHAVIOR LEVEL |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|
| I. Commitment to Student Success (14) | 56 | 6608 | 5628 | 85.2 |
| A. Demonstrating Respect for Students (6) | 24 | 2832 | 2434 | 85.9 |
| B. Pursuing All Around Excellence (8) | 32 | 3776 | 3194 | 84.6 |
| II. Commitment to Teaching and Learning (12) | 48 | 5664 | 4753 | 83.9 |
| A. Promoting Teaching and Learning (6) | 24 | 2832 | 2421 | 85.5 |
| B. Supporting Continuous Learning as a Lifetime Goal (6) | 24 | 2832 | 2332 | 82.3 |
| III. Commitment to the School Staff (23) | 92 | 10856 | 8771 | 80.8 |
| A. Demonstrating Respect for the School Staff (7) | 28 | 3304 | 2602 | 78.8 |
| B. Helping Individual Improve (7) | 28 | 3304 | 2680 | 81.1 |
| C. Building a Collegial Staff (9) | 36 | 4248 | 3489 | 82.1 |
| IV. Commitment to Innovation (16) | 64 | 7552 | 5848 | 77.4 |
| A. Supporting Creativity (10) | 40 | 4720 | 3814 | 80.1 |
| B. Supporting Upward Communication (6) | 24 | 2832 | 2034 | 71.8 |
| V. Commitment to Leadership (23) | 92 | 10856 | 8764 | 80.7 |
| A. Demonstrating Integrity (5) | 20 | 2360 | 1886 | 79.9 |
| B. Presenting Ideas (7) | 28 | 3304 | 2672 | 80.9 |
| C. Taking Responsibility (5) | 20 | 2360 | 1916 | 81.2 |
| D. Relating to External Constituencies (6) | 24 | 2832 | 2290 | 80.9 |
| Total EPI Score | Behavior Score = 352 | Possible Score = 41536 | Actual Score = 33764 | 81.3 |

Means were based upon a four-point Likert scale with a mean of 1 indicating Highly Dissatisfied, 2 indicating Dissatisfied, 3 indicating Neutral (Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied) and 4 indicating Satisfied.

() = Number of survey questions

Maximum Possible Behavior Score = Number of survey questions x Maximum Possible Scale Response

Total Possible EPI Score = N Respondents x Maximum Possible Behavior Score

Actual EPI Score = Sum of Actual Behavior Scores for all Respondents

Table 4.2
Excellent Principal Inventory – Mean, Standard Deviation, and Percentiles by Category

| COMMITMENTS AND SUBCOMPONENTS | MEAN | STANDARD DEVIATION | PERCENTILE | |
|--|------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | | | 25 TH | 75 TH |
| I. Commitment to Student Success | 3.41 | 0.93 | 3 | 4 |
| A. Demonstrating Respect for Students | 3.44 | 0.96 | 3 | 4 |
| B. Pursuing All Around Excellence | 3.38 | 0.91 | 3 | 4 |
| II. Commitment to Teaching and Learning | 3.36 | 0.91 | 3 | 4 |
| A. Promoting Teaching and Learning | 3.42 | 0.91 | 3 | 4 |
| B. Supporting Continuous Learning as a Lifetime Goal | 3.31 | 0.91 | 3 | 4 |
| III. Commitment to the School Staff | 3.23 | 0.98 | 3 | 4 |
| A. Demonstrating Respect for the School Staff | 3.15 | 1.05 | 3 | 4 |
| B. Helping Individual Improve | 3.24 | 0.93 | 3 | 4 |
| C. Building a Collegial Staff | 3.29 | 0.96 | 3 | 4 |
| IV. Commitment to Innovation | 3.11 | 1.05 | 2 | 4 |
| A. Supporting Creativity | 3.24 | 0.99 | 3 | 4 |
| B. Supporting Upward Communication | 2.89 | 1.11 | 2 | 4 |
| V. Commitment to Leadership | 3.25 | 1.03 | 3 | 4 |
| A. Demonstrating Integrity | 3.20 | 1.04 | 3 | 4 |
| B. Presenting Ideas | 3.24 | 1.04 | 3 | 4 |
| C. Taking Responsibility | 3.25 | 1.03 | 3 | 4 |
| D. Relating to External Constituencies | 3.29 | 1.01 | 3 | 4 |
| Total EPI Score | 3.26 | 0.99 | 3 | 4 |

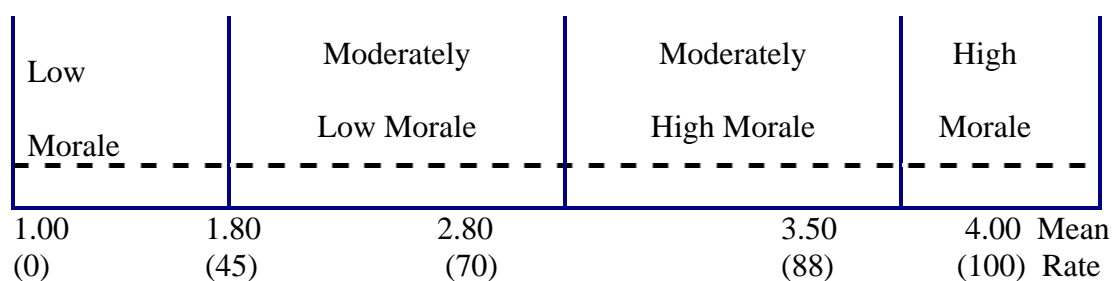
Means were based upon a four-point Likert scale with a mean of 1 indicating Highly Dissatisfied, 2 indicating Dissatisfied, 3 indicating Neutral (Neither Satisfied or Dissatisfied) and 4 indicating Satisfied.

There was a survey response rate of 49% (122 of 250 respondents).

Level of Teacher Morale

Teachers were asked to respond to the 100-item PTO by selecting one response from a four-point Likert scale, where 4 represented high morale and 1 represented low morale. Because category responses deviated slightly, the resulting factor morale means and rates were interpreted according to the scale below.

Figure 4.3
Overall Teacher Morale Scores



The overall morale scores indicate that teachers have moderately low morale with a mean of 2.27 or rate level of 57 [see Figures 4.3-4.4]. The mean scores for the ten associated teacher morale factors ranged from 1.85 to 3.27 indicating that some factors fall into the moderately low morale range and some fall into the moderately high morale. Although the low levels of morale ($\mu < 1.80$) were not found in any of the 10 factors, the lowest morale scores were reported for Rapport Among Teachers ($\mu = 1.85$) and Community Support of Education ($\mu = 1.99$). These factors also had some of the least amount of variability of all ten factors, 0.91 and 0.92, respectively. This shows that most teachers, consistently, feel these factors affect their morale the most. There were also no factors found in the high moral level range, but the more positive morale responses were found in Teacher Load ($\mu = 2.79$) and Community Pressure ($\mu = 3.27$). These factors

have the least effect on teacher morale level. It should be noted that teachers do not feel pressure from the community, but they also do not get community support for education. There appears to be a disconnection between the community and these schools [see Table 4.14].

Because there was a significant amount of variability in all ten morale factors, the survey data were divided into subgroups (or quartiles). The top 25 percent of respondents (or 75th percentile) reported high morale (4.00) in Teacher Load and Community Pressure although there were no mean scores in the High Morale range level. Twenty-five percent of the respondents (or 25th percentile) had overall low morale (1.00). This group had low morale for seven of the ten factors: Teacher Rapport with Principal, Satisfaction with Teaching, Rapport Among Teachers, Teacher Salary, Teacher Status, Community Support of Education, and School Facilities and Services. Two factors, Curriculum Issues and Teacher Load, were reported by the teachers to generate moderately low morale while Community Pressure generated moderately high morale. [see Table 4.3]

Teachers reported that the factor that affects morale the least is Community Pressure. The lower quartile (lower 25%) of respondents fell in the moderately high morale level (3.00) while the upper quartile (highest 25%) of respondents fell in the high morale level (4.00). This contributed to the Community Pressure factor reporting the least amount of variability of all factors at .085.

The overall and specific commitment response continues to show that the leadership behaviors show the most support for student success and teaching and learning while innovation is not perceived in the most positive light. [See Figures 4.5 – 4.11].

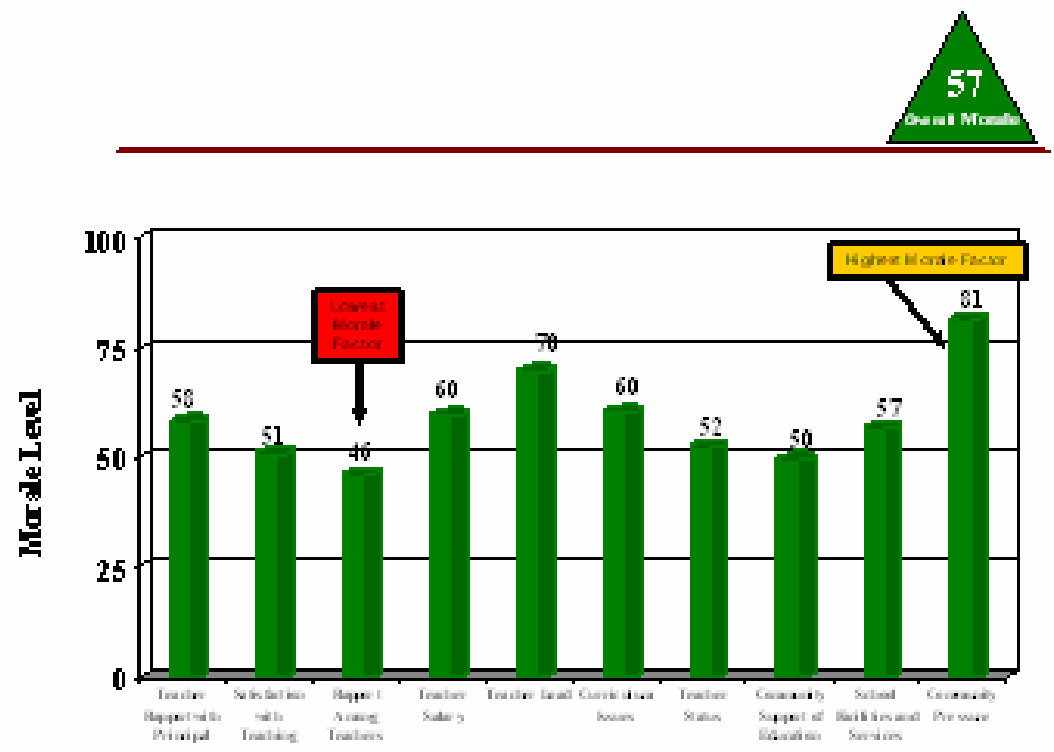
Three subcomponents received “satisfaction” by more than 60% of the respondents: Respect for Students (69.9%), Promoting Teaching and Learning (64.1%), and Pursuing All Around Excellence (61.2%). The majority of the subcomponents were rated “satisfactory” by between 50% to 59%. Only one subcomponent, Supporting Upward Communication, was rated lower; it was rated favorably by less than 40% of teachers [See Figure 4.11].

Table 4.3
Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire – Morale Scores and Levels by Factor

| FACTOR NUMBER | Morale Factor and Total Morale Scores (Bentley & Remple, 1980) | | TOTAL POSSIBLE FACTOR SCORES (N=122) | ACTUAL TOTAL FACTOR SCORES (N=122) | MORAL LEVEL |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------------------|---|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| | NUMBER OF ITEMS | FACTOR SCORES | | | |
| 1. Teacher Rapport with Principal | 20 | 80 | 9760 | 5682 | 58.2 |
| 2. Satisfaction with Teaching | 20 | 80 | 9760 | 4964 | 50.9 |
| 3. Rapport Among Teachers | 14 | 56 | 6832 | 3151 | 46.1 |
| 4. Teacher Salary | 7 | 28 | 3416 | 2039 | 59.7 |
| 5. Teacher Load | 11 | 44 | 5368 | 3738 | 69.6 |
| 6. Curriculum Issues | 5 | 20 | 2440 | 1474 | 60.4 |
| 7. Teacher Status | 8 | 32 | 3904 | 2045 | 52.4 |
| 8. Community Support of Education | 5 | 20 | 2440 | 1211 | 49.6 |
| 9. School Facilities and Services | 5 | 20 | 2440 | 1381 | 56.6 |
| 10. Community Pressure | 5 | 20 | 2440 | 1986 | 81.4 |
| | Total Items =100 | Morale Score = 400 | Possible Score =48800 | Actual Score =27671 | 56.7 |

Means were based upon a four-point Likert scale with a mean of 1 indicating low morale and a mean of 4 indicating high morale.

Figure 4.4
Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire - Morale Factor Levels



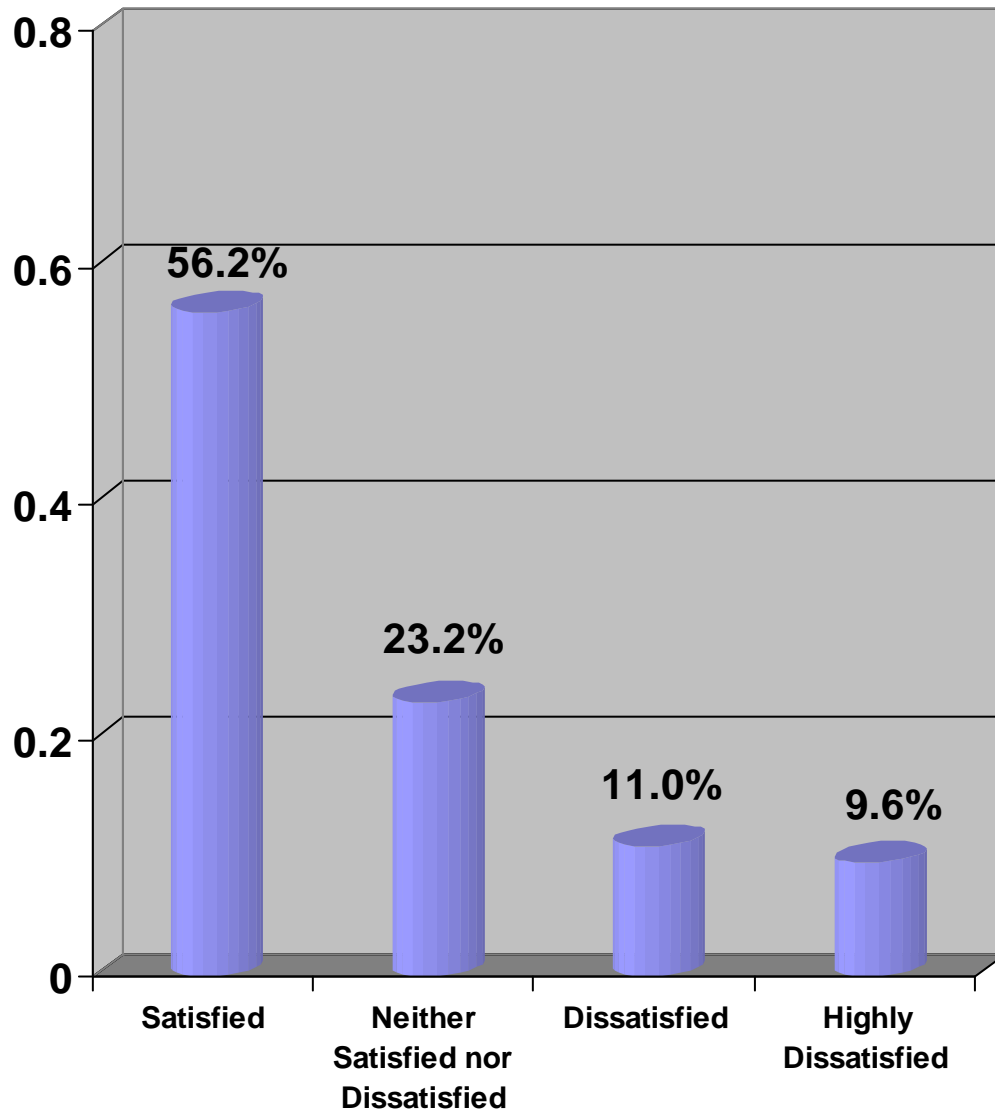
The teachers' overall morale is indicated by a morale level of 57. Teacher morale is least affected by Community Pressure and Teacher Load and is most negatively affected by the Support Among Teachers. Teacher morale is also greatly affected by the Community Support for Education.

Table 4.4
Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire – Mean, Standard Deviation, and Percentiles by Factor

| MORALE FACTOR | MEAN | STANDARD DEVIATION | PERCENTILE | |
|--------------------------------|------|--------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | | | 25 TH | 75 TH |
| Teacher Rapport with Principal | 2.33 | 1.12 | 1 | 3 |
| Satisfaction with Teaching | 2.04 | 1.12 | 1 | 3 |
| Rapport Among Teachers | 1.85 | 0.91 | 1 | 2 |
| Teacher Salary | 2.39 | 1.12 | 1 | 3 |
| Teacher Load | 2.79 | 1.16 | 2 | 4 |
| Curriculum Issues | 2.42 | 1.07 | 2 | 3 |
| Teacher Status | 2.10 | 1.04 | 1 | 3 |
| Community Support of Education | 1.99 | 0.92 | 1 | 2 |
| School Facilities and Services | 2.26 | 1.12 | 1 | 3 |
| Community Pressure | 3.27 | 0.85 | 3 | 4 |
| Total PTO Score | 2.27 | 1.12 | 1 | 3 |

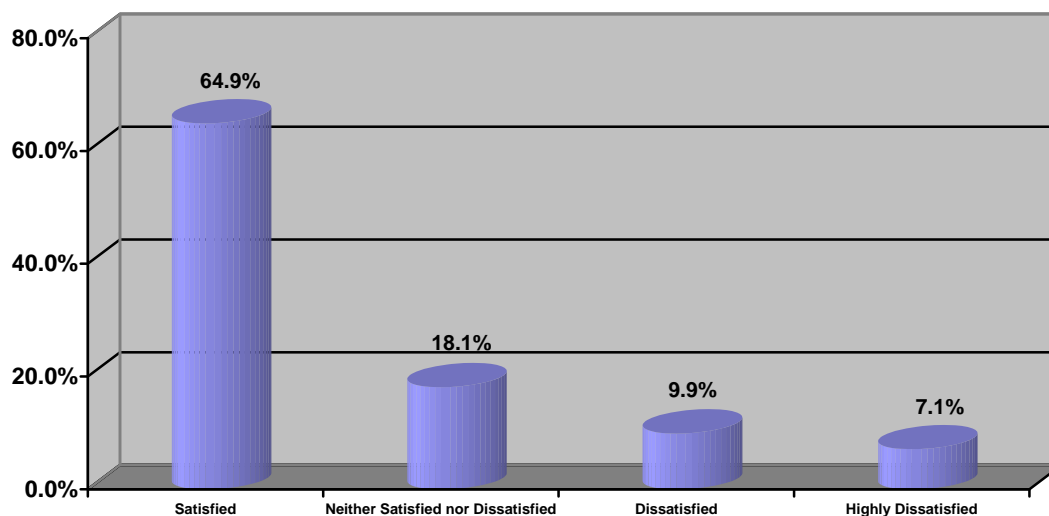
Means were based upon a four-point Likert scale with a mean of 1 indicating low morale and a mean of 4 indicating high morale.

Figure 4.5
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Overall Commitment and Leadership Behavior Results



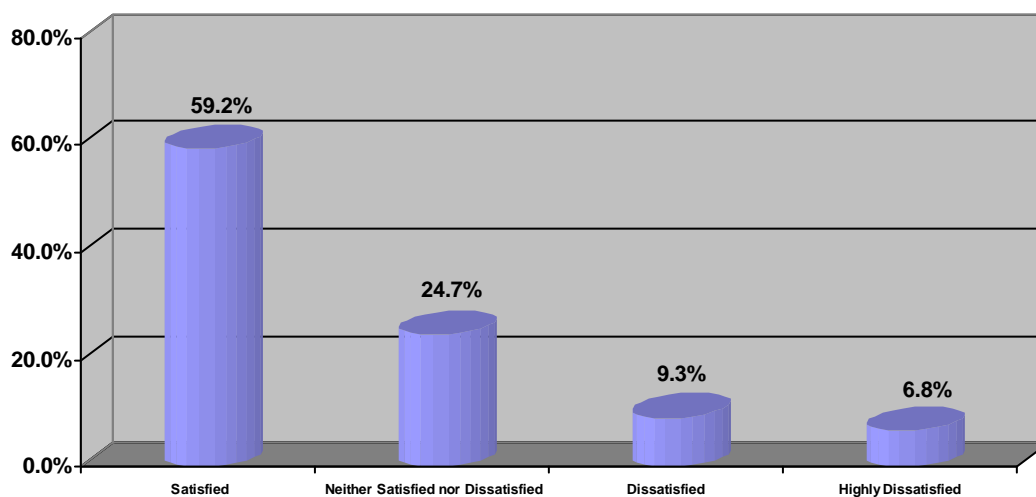
Nearly 56% of teachers responded favorably to the Leadership Behavior while 20% was dissatisfied to some degree.

Figure 4.6
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Commitment to Student Success



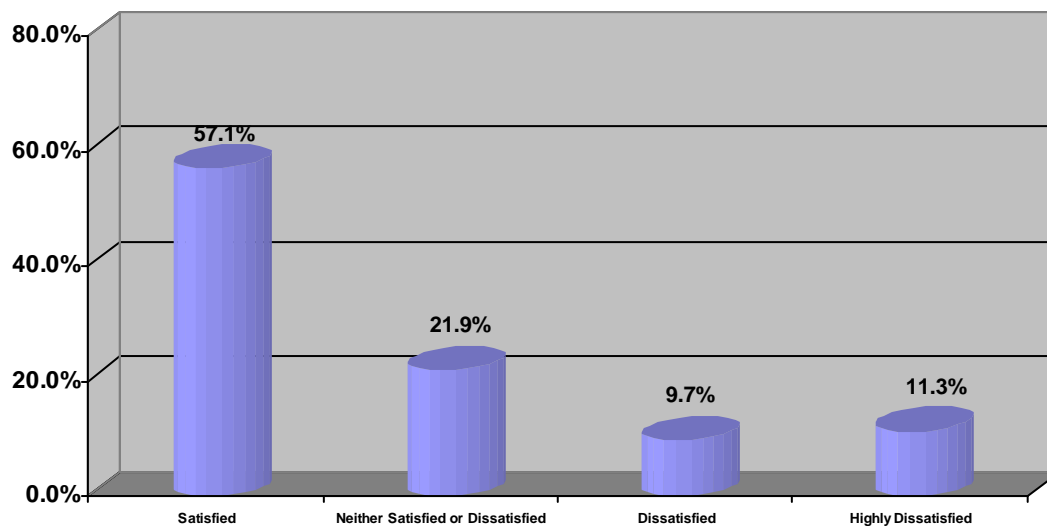
Nearly two-thirds of the respondents are satisfied with the leadership behavior as it relates to a commitment to student success.

Figure 4.7
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Commitment to Teaching and Learning



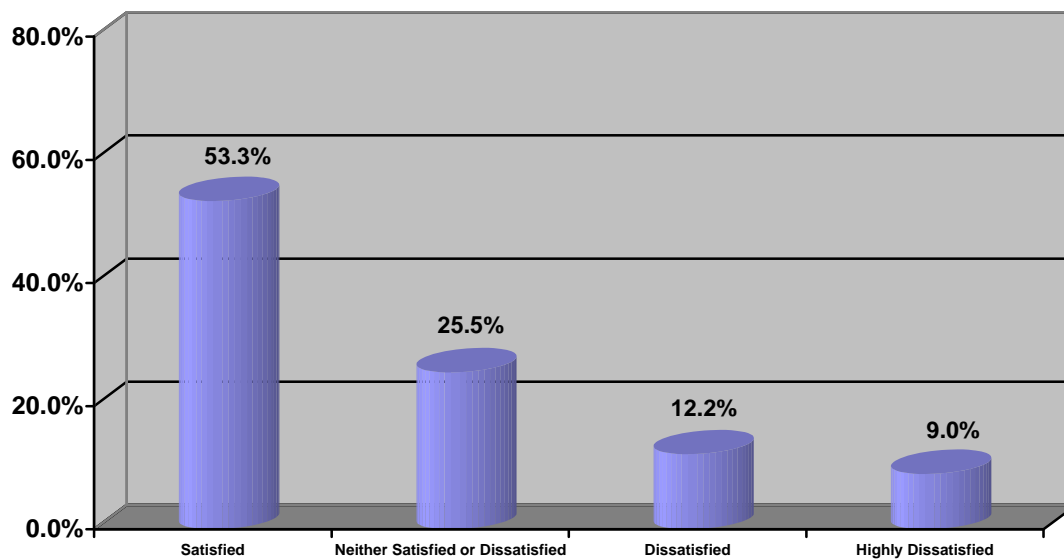
Almost 60% of teachers are satisfied with the leadership as it relates to teaching and learning.

Figure 4.8
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Commitment to Leadership



More than 40% of the respondents are not satisfied with the principal's commitment to leadership.

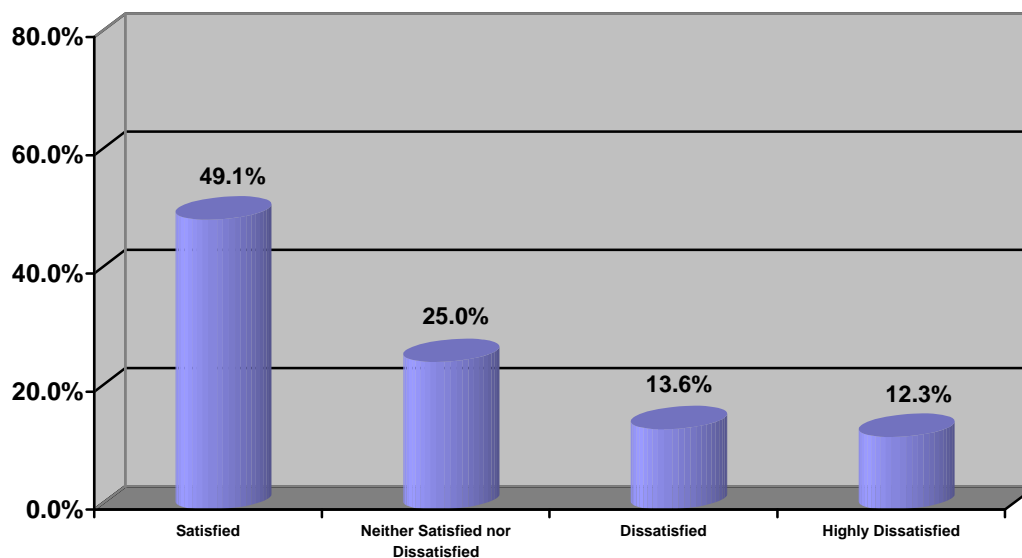
Figure 4.9
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Commitment to the School Staff



While just over 50% of the respondents are satisfied with the principal's commitment to school staff, over twenty percent of the respondents are dissatisfied, to some degree. A quarter is neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

Figure 4.10

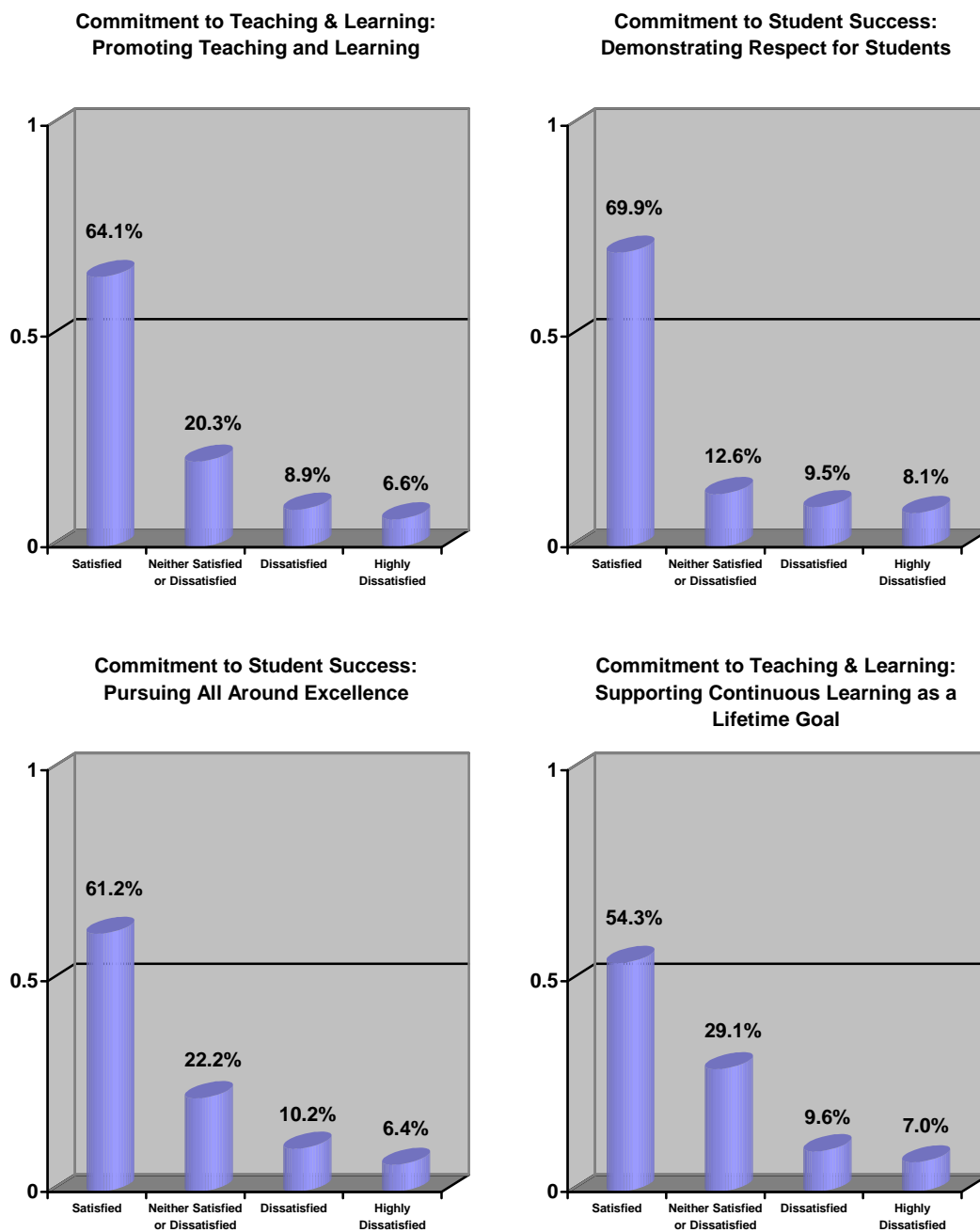
Excellent Principal Inventory – Teacher Survey Results: Commitment to Innovation



Over 50% of the teachers responded unfavorably to a commitment to innovation. Of this group, approximately half was dissatisfied to some degree.

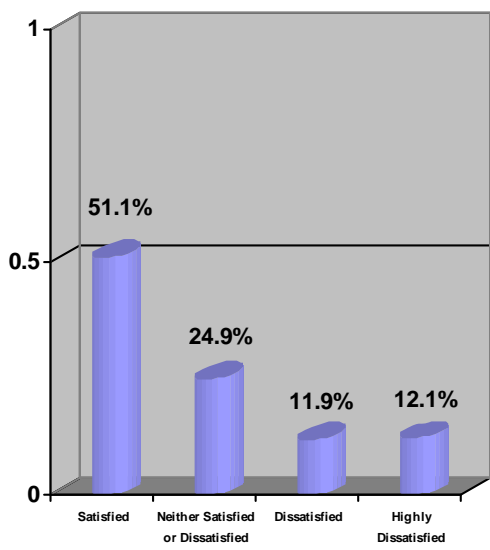
Figure 4.11
Excellent Principal Inventory: Leadership Behaviors

Histograms of the Principal Leadership Behaviors survey data appear in the figures below. There were 118 actual respondents. The survey return rate was 47 percent.

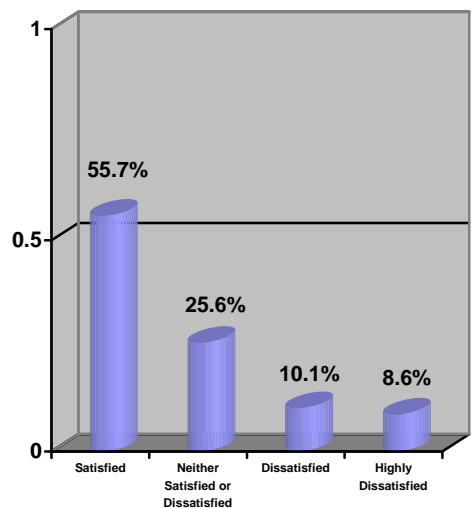


Histograms of the Principal Leadership Behavior subcomponent survey data appear in the figures below. There were 118 actual respondents. The survey return rate was 47 percent.

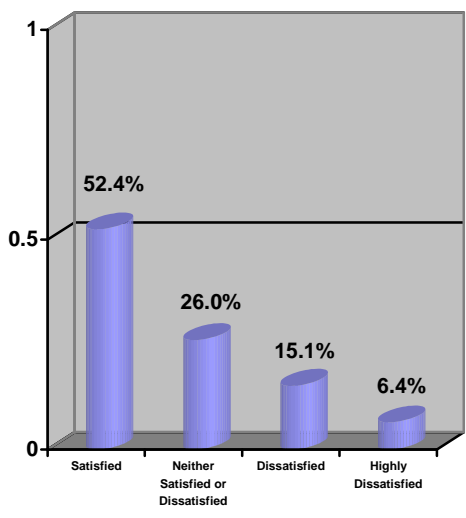
**Commitment to School Staff:
Demonstrating Respect for the
School Staff**



**Commitment to School Staff: Building
a Collegial Staff**

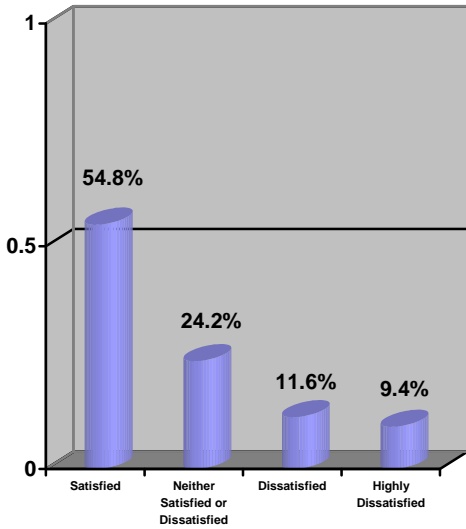


**Commitment to School Staff: Helping
Individuals Improve**

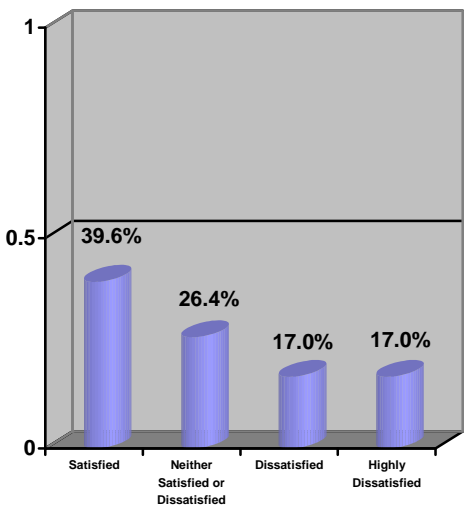


Histograms of the Principal Leadership Behavior survey data appear in the figures below. There were 118 actual respondents. The survey return rate was 47 percent.

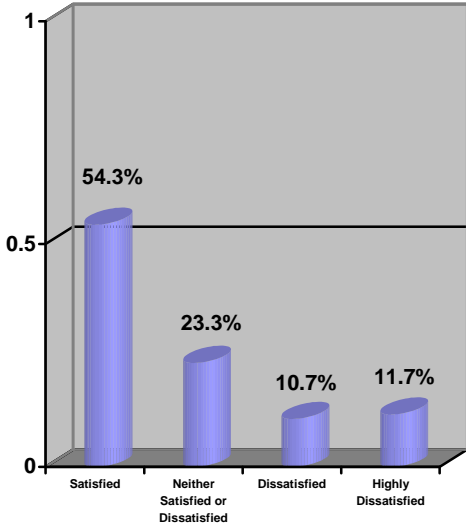
**Commitment to Innovation:
Supporting Creativity**



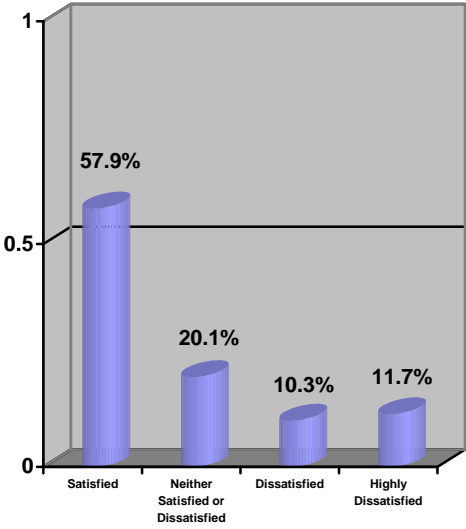
**Commitment to Innovation:
Supporting Upward Communications**



**Commitment to Leadership:
Demonstrating Integrity**

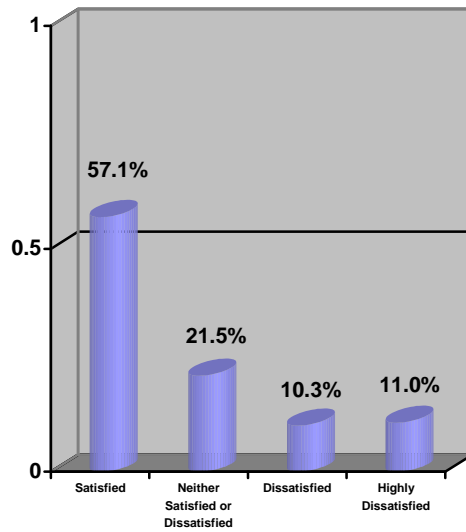


**Commitment to Leadership:
Presenting Ideas**

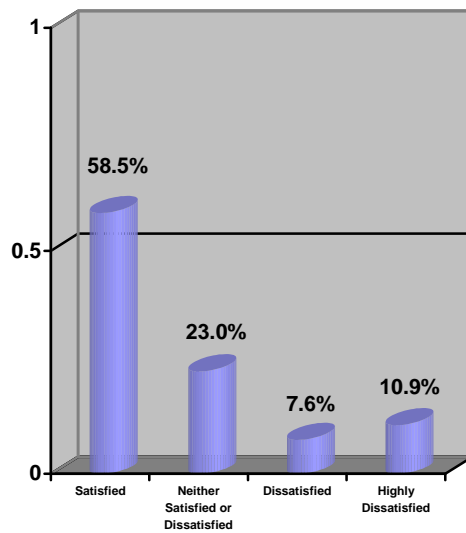


Histograms of the Principal Leadership Behavior survey data appear in the figures below. There were 118 actual respondents. The survey return rate was 47 percent.

**Commitment to Leadership:
Taking Responsibility**



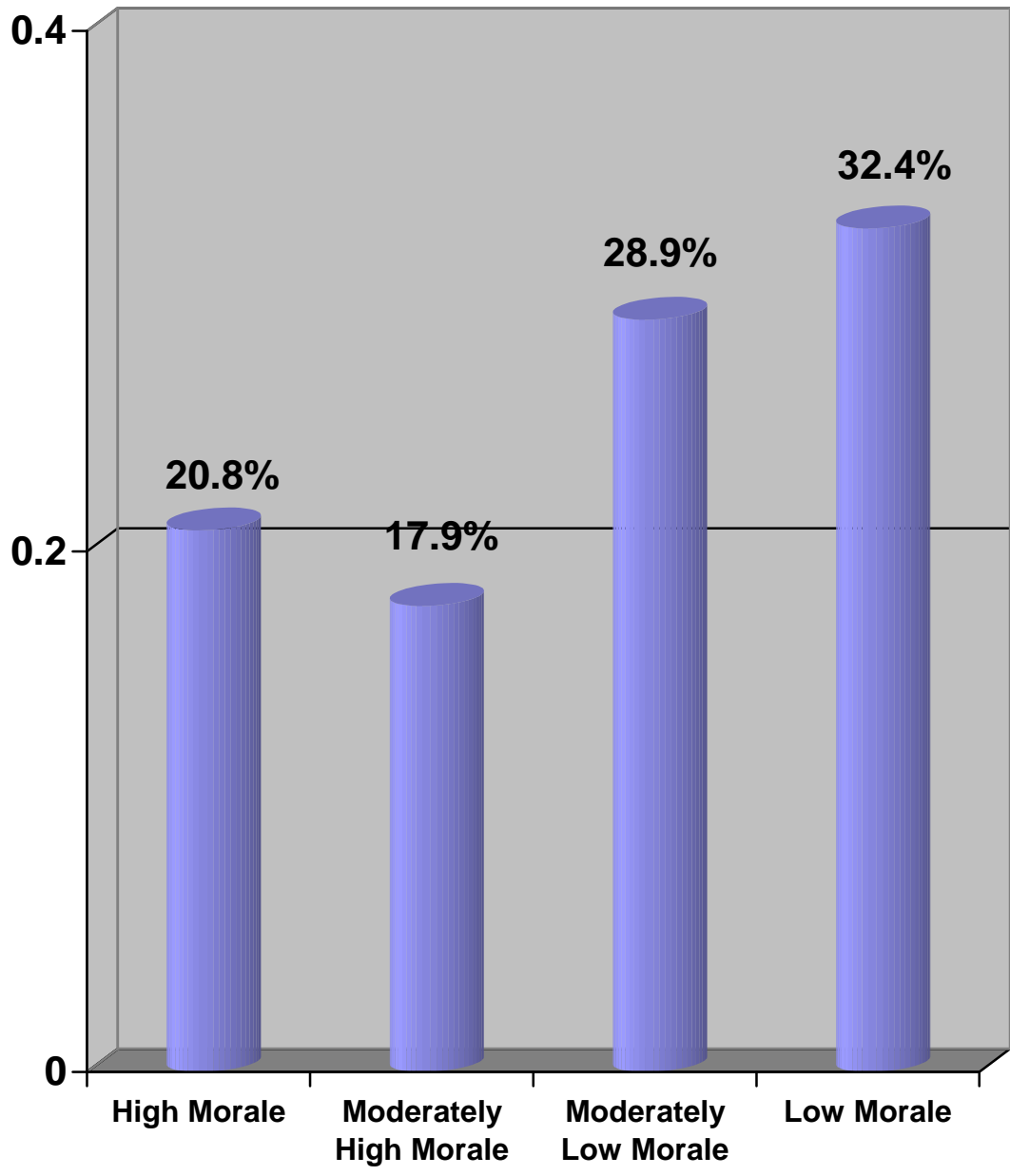
**Commitment to Leadership: Relating
to External Constituencies**



Research Question 2. Which leadership characteristics do teachers respond to most positively and/or negatively?

The overall morale level shows that over 60% of teachers have some degree of low morale [See Figure 4.12]. Specifically, almost 60% of teachers are affected negatively by their rapport with their principal (Factor 1) while over 80% are affected negatively by teacher rapport (Factor 3). The lack of community support for education (Factor 8) also contributes to low teacher morale. Seventy-eight percent reported a low morale level for this factor. Factors 1, 3, and 8 are probably big contributors to the lack of satisfaction with teaching--70% report some degree of low morale as seen in Factor 2. Teacher Status (Factor 7) affects morale negatively with 70% reporting low morale. This factor is directly linked to the leadership behavior related to supporting upward communication. Teacher salary (Factor 4) and Curriculum Issues (Factor 6) are not strong factors in teacher morale, as the responses were proportionally spread. The two factors that are impacting low teacher morale the least are Teacher Load (Factor 5) and Community Pressure (Factor 10), with 63% and 85% responding favorably, respectively [See Figure 4.13].

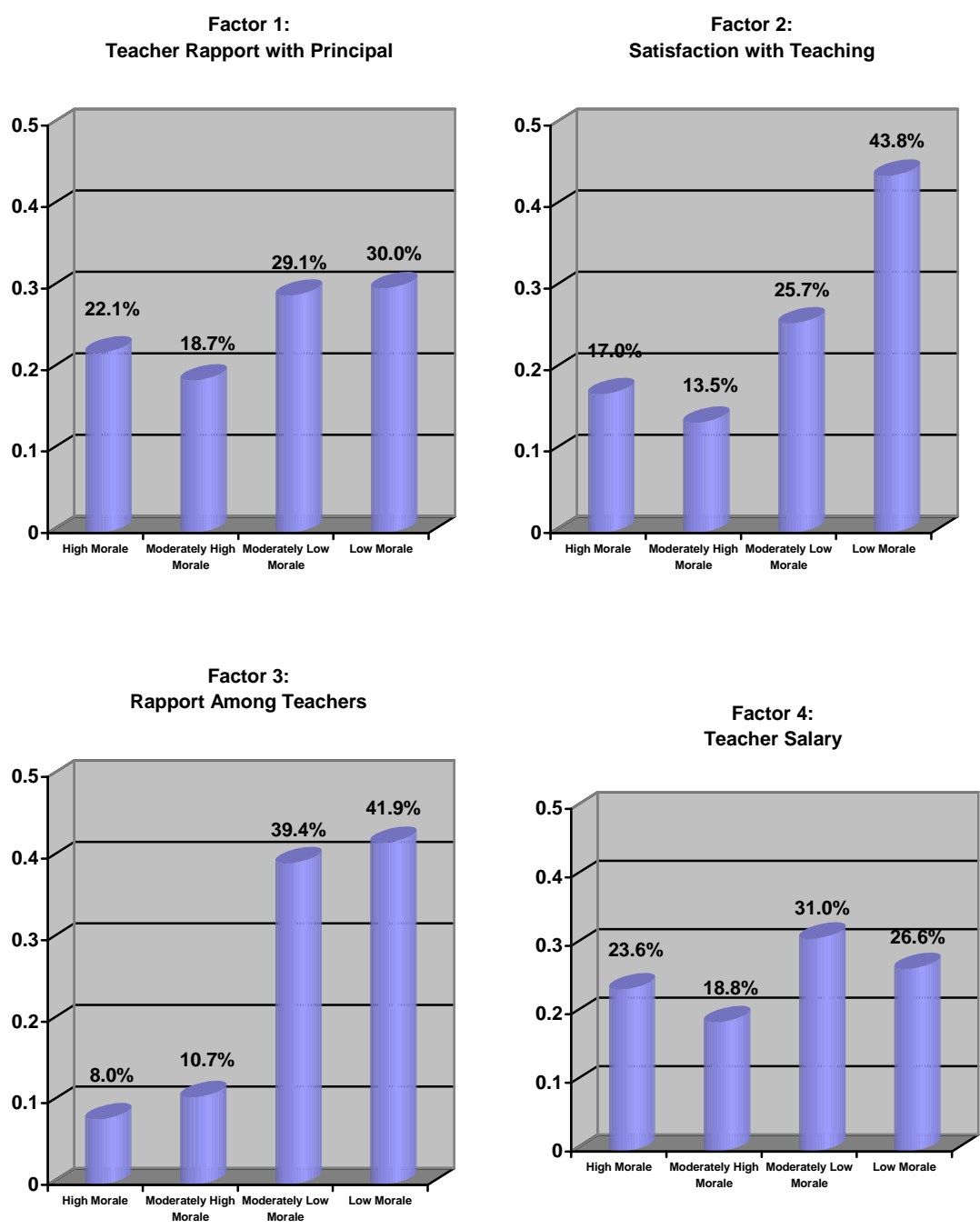
Figure 4.12
Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire – Teacher Survey Results: Overall Teacher Morale Results



Over 60% of teachers have some level of low morale. At the other end of the spectrum, only 20% report high morale.

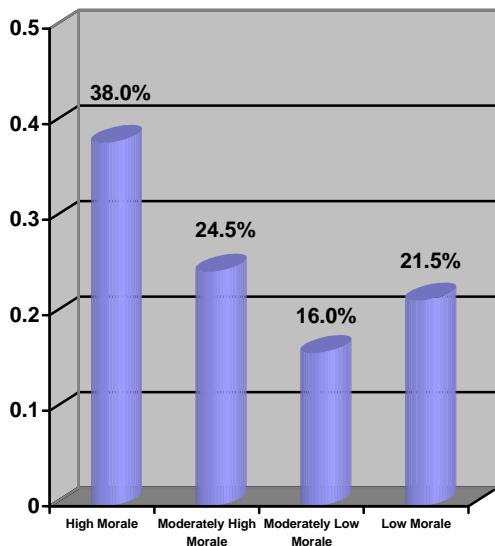
Figure 4.13
Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire – Teacher Morale

Histograms of the teacher morale survey data appear in the figures below. There were 122 respondents. The survey return rate was 49 percent.

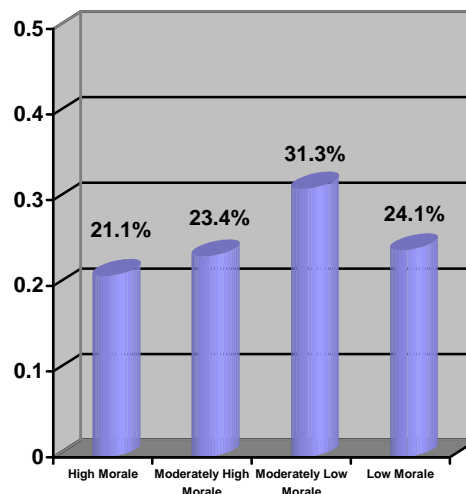


Histograms of the teacher morale survey data appear in the figures below. There were 122 respondents. The survey return rate was 49 percent.

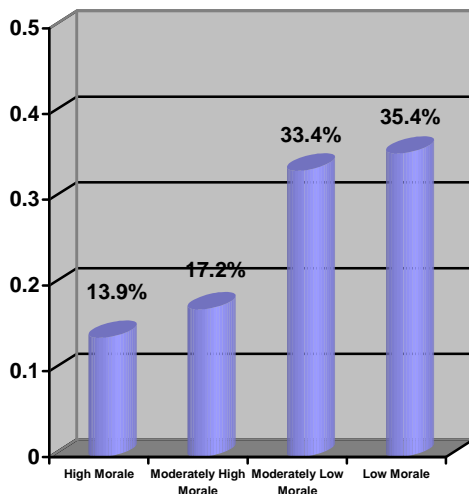
**Factor 5:
Teacher Load**



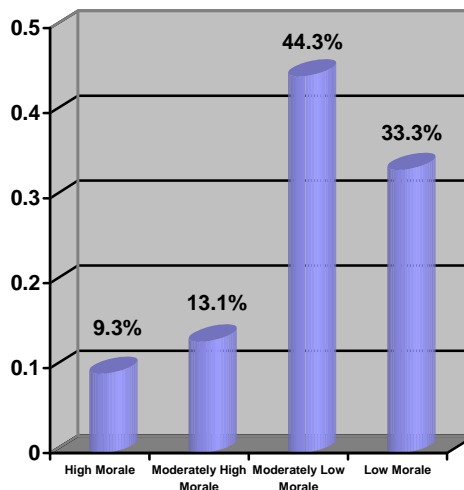
**Factor 6:
Curriculum Issues**



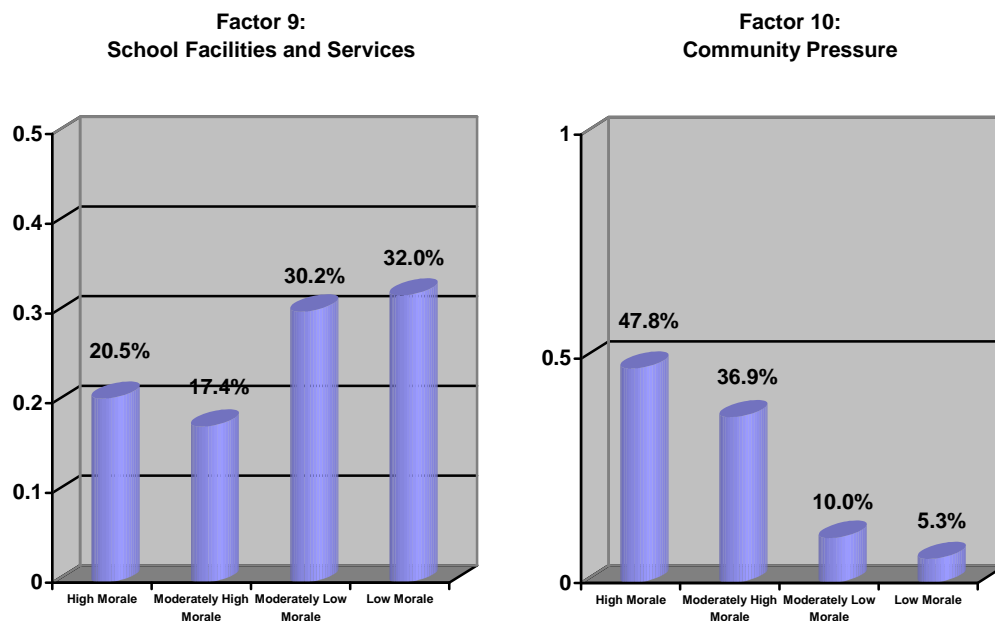
**Factor 7:
Teacher Status**



**Factor 8:
Community Support of Education**



Histograms of the teacher morale survey data appear in the figures below. There were 122 actual respondents. The survey return rate was 49 percent.



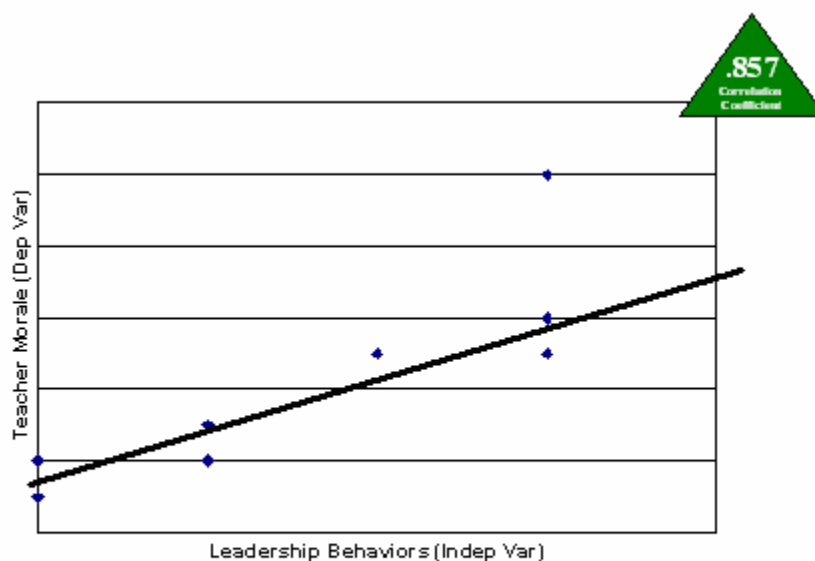
Correlation Data

There is a positive relationship between the leadership behaviors of principals and teacher morale, as depicted in Figure 4.14. As principal leadership behaviors more positive, the morale of teachers also increases. The reverse is also true. When the leadership behaviors are more negative, the spirit and drive for teaching also decreases.

The Pearson correlation coefficient is .857, which indicates a statistically significant relationship between the two variables, demonstrating that principal leadership behaviors and teacher morale are strongly related.

In order to determine which leadership behaviors have the greatest and least influence on teacher morale, an analysis was conducted on the specific leadership behaviors. Further analysis was conducted to determine which behaviors teachers respond to most positively and most negatively.

Figure 4.14
Correlation Between Leadership Behavior and Teacher Morale



There is a strong positive relationship between leadership behaviors of principals and teacher morale as depicted in the graph. The Pearson correlation coefficient is .857 which also indicates a statistically significant relationship between the two variables.

Summary

A total of 118 staff members completed the EPI, and 122 staff members completed the PTO survey for this research. The responses to the survey questions were tabulated, and the Pearson Product-Moment correlation test used one dependent variable (teacher) morale) and one independent variable (principal's leadership behavior). The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used as well to analyze the collected data.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if a significant relationship exists between the leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale, and to determine the specific leadership characteristics teachers respond to most positively and/or negatively. This chapter presents a summary of findings, a conclusion, practical implications, and recommendations.

Leadership has been defined by authors throughout this dissertation as the process of providing influential direction for the sake of achieving organizational goals and objectives. The literature suggests that a relationship exists between leadership behavior and staff morale and job satisfaction, and it has been hypothesized that principals who consciously practice transformational leadership behaviors have a positive impact on the morale and productivity of their teachers. This study explores the soundness of the hypothesis and provides data for school leaders who strive to develop innovative leadership styles that will empower their teachers and improve morale. Principal behavior was defined as the leadership behavior of elementary principals as measured by the Excellent Principal Inventory (EPI). Morale was defined as the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals in a job situation as measured by the Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO).

The literature review revealed that whereas there is empirical evidence supporting a positive relationship between morale, which is defined as the professional interest and enthusiasm that a person displays toward the achievement of individual and group goals

in a given job situation (Bentley & Rempel, 1980), and productivity, one cannot assume that there is a direct cause-and-effect relationship. While no one leadership style is effective in all situations, the literature review supports the notion that effective school leaders forge collaborative relationships which have the power to influence school climate and outcomes. However, many studies also relate teacher stress to leadership style (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Fanning, 1997; Harris, 1999).

Leadership behavior clearly impacts teacher morale, and a positive relationship between leadership behavior and teacher morale is evident in several areas. The findings support the assumption that teacher morale can be predicted on the basis of the leadership style asserted by the principal. Principals who use a participatory style of leadership are more likely to have more satisfied and productive teachers than principals who use an autocratic style of leadership.

The research questions guiding this study were 1) Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale? and 2) Which leadership characteristics do teachers respond to most positively and/or negatively?

The procedures for this study included the use of two surveys: the Excellence Principal Inventory and The Perdue Teacher Opinionnaire, which were completed by teachers in four different elementary schools at a faculty meeting. Validation for the surveys was provided by experts in the field of morale and leadership behavior. Surveys were collected with a 47% - 49% response rate and analyzed using Pearson Product-Moment correlation and the SPSS program.

Analysis and Discussion of Research Findings

The research questions and the findings are as follows:

1. Is there a significant relationship between leadership style of rural elementary principals and teacher morale?

Regarding the effective implementation of mandated accountability requirements, Okafor-Ufondu (2005) listed creating a positive school climate and improving teacher morale as one of the most important skills for administrators. The research revealed that there is a positive relationship between the leadership behaviors of principals and teacher morale, as depicted in the graph. As principals' leadership behaviors increase and are more positive, the morale of teachers also increases. The reverse is also true. When the leadership behaviors are more negative, the spirit and drive to teach also decrease.

Harris (1999) also studied stress levels in schools and their effects on teachers and the school environment, observing that "teachers' stress is a multifaceted problem and principal leadership style is one contributing factor" (p. vii). The Pearson correlation coefficient was .857, which indicates a statistically significant relationship between the two variables, demonstrating that principal leadership behaviors and teacher morale are strongly related. The same information can be seen in the overall response to leadership behavior and teacher morale: 45% of teachers were not satisfied, and more than 60% of teachers are affected negatively by their lack of rapport with their principal. This is further depicted in factor 1: teacher rapport with principal. The data show that, regarding overall commitment and leadership behavior, more than 20% of teachers were dissatisfied with leadership behavior to some degree, while almost 45% responded

negatively. The overall teacher morale results shows that 60% of teachers have some level of low morale.

2) To what leadership characteristics do teachers respond most positively and/or negatively?

Chiang (2003) has observed that administrators rank building positive relationships with faculty and staff members as the most important skill for building a positive climate. Carsten (2003) researched communication strategies for building positive relationships and defined them as “disseminator/moderator, healer/supporter, symbol, visionary, storyteller, and promoter” (p. ii). This research suggested these leadership activities maintained “high visibility, personal connections with the staff and students, positional influence and holding staff accountable” (p. ii). Carsten suggested providing “community meetings, equal treatment of both classified and certificated personnel, clearly defining core values, and maintaining a full line of communication with teachers who are off track” (p. ii). It clearly revealed through the research that only 20% of teachers fall at the other end of the spectrum, exhibiting high morale. Factors 1: Teacher rapport with principal, Factor 3: Rapport Among Teachers, Factor 7: Teacher status, and Factor 9: School and Facilities and services all contributed to low teacher morale as it relates to Factor 2: Satisfaction with teaching. No behaviors were found “satisfying” by the respondents; the most positive leadership behaviors were Demonstrating Respect for Students ($\mu = 3.44$) and Promoting Teaching and Learning ($\mu = 3.42$). It should be noted that, from the teachers’ perspective, the most positive overall commitment lies in Student Success. The data clearly indicate that teachers are not

feeling supported by their principals and that there is a partial disconnection between the principals and their staff.

Conclusion

Although this study represents a small section of teachers in rural Georgia, the findings can be generalized to similar settings and populations. The literature supports the fact that it takes many leadership behaviors to support positive morale and for teachers need to feel supported. To promote positive teacher morale, the leader must exhibit many different leadership behaviors; there is no set list of behaviors that a principal must exhibit, but a collection of behaviors, including empowering others and sharing leadership, are the most important. Above all, the teachers must feel that their feelings and opinions matter.

Implications

The findings in this study serve to further solidify the abundance of research that states that leadership behavior impacts the organization's morale. This implies that the teachers' morale is a direct reflection of the teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership behavior. If teachers assess the principal's leadership behavior as very good, they will generally display high morale; and the reverse of that is also true. In other words, the morale of a school can be predicted on the basis of the teachers' perception of the principals' leadership behavior. Educators could use this information to further train leaders how to support and empower their teachers and make them feel that their opinions matter. School systems will need to develop plans to evaluate principals regarding leadership behaviors or even study those principals who have successful test scores and low teacher turnover. Teachers will similarly benefit from considering this study's

findings, which may help them work more collaboratively with their principals. In addition, policy makers can use this information when creating job descriptions and lists of qualifications.

It can also be implied that it takes a combination of different leadership behaviors to maintain teacher morale, not just one leadership behavior in isolation. True collaboration between the leader and classroom teacher is essential for positive teacher morale.

The underlying implication is that the morale of an organization may operate in either a one-dimensional fashion or in a multidimensional fashion. It is imperative that the school principal assess teacher morale within the building and address it on the basis of its behavioral profile. Further, it is important to remember that managing morale is a process, and cannot be viewed as a set prescription. There is no written diagram for managing morale; rather, it is an ongoing process utilizing a wide array of behaviors.

In the research there is a resonating echo that combinations of different leadership behaviors contribute to effectively supporting school staff. There is not one behavior that stands out as a behavior that will always keep staff morale level at all time high. However, in Happy Valley the teachers are overall dedicated to the students and their education, so test scores reflect their dedication. It takes a combination of leadership behaviors to effectively maintain teacher morale.

The student achievement level of students of these Happy Valley elementary schools has been examined. The figures in the appendices demonstrate the historical achievement level of students in reading, Language Arts, and mathematics on the state-mandated assessment, Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT). All students in

grades 1 through 5 were assessed. Students who failed the test were categorized as “Does Not Meet Standard.” Students who passed and were considered proficient were categorized as “Meets Standard” while advanced proficient students fell into the category referred to as “Exceeds Standard.”

The vertical black bar appearing in each figure indicates the state’s change in curriculum from the Quality Core Curriculum (QCC) to the Georgia Performance Standards (GPS). The performance levels are color-coded in each figure. The “Does Not Meet Standard” category appears red, “Meets Standard” appears in yellow, and “Exceeds Standard” appears in green.

The data clearly support the assertion that leadership behaviors that show the principal’s support for student success and the promotion of teaching and learning are effective--the students succeed, and teaching and learning takes place. Improvement has occurred at every grade level over the course of the last few years. In 2007, more than 90% of students met or exceeded the standards in reading, Language Arts, and mathematics in grades 1 and 2. In grade 3, 88% or better met or exceeded standards in all three areas, while 89% of 4th graders met or exceeded standards. Ninety-percent or better met or exceeded standards in grade 5 in reading, Language Arts, and Mathematics. [See Appendices].

Recommendations

If this study is replicated, it is recommended that a larger population be used, as a larger population would allow for a better generalization of the data. It may also be relevant to see if the socioeconomic status, race, or gender of the students of the school would make a difference in this study. Moreover, it could be helpful to identify each

school with a particular code and to identify the gender of the principal. Further research is needed to explore whether morale is one-dimensional or multidimensional. More research is also needed to explore morale and leadership behavior with a pre and post assessment. The post assessment could follow a specific set of interventions/treatments that seek to improve and enhance principal/leadership behaviors and teacher morale.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
PERMISSION TO USE QUESTIONNAIRE

PURDUE
UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
Office of the Dean

February 1, 2006

Vickie Randolph
311 Timberidge Court
Athens, GA 30605

Dear Ms. Randolph:

In response to your phone call of February 1, 2007, it appears the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire you refer to was developed in the sixties and the copyright for this instrument has expired. Therefore, you no longer need our permission to use or alter this instrument and should feel free to use it in your research.

Sincerely,

Emily Phelps

Emily Phelps
Office of the Dean

College of Education

Date: [Wed, 11 Oct 2006 09:14:09 -0700]
From: Howard Morgan <howardmo@att.net>
To: visor88888@yahoo.com

Subject: RE: The Excellent Principal Inventory

Good Morning Levi:

I provide permission to use the "Excellent Principal Inventory" for your study on the following conditions:

1. The study will not generate any revenue
2. Any reference to the inventory will have the appropriate credits
3. Permission to use the inventory is limited to your study and no extended permissions are granted
4. The Inventory will not be used beyond the scope of your study.

Good luck on the study and let me know the results once you have concluded.

All the best

Howard

Howard Morgan

858-756-6912 Phone

858-756-6913 Fax

howardmo@att.net

www.howardjmorgan.com

APPENDIX B
LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

March 13, 2007

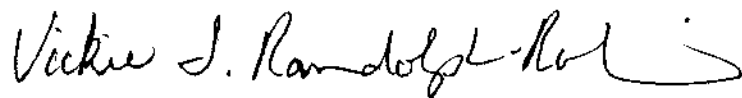
Dear Colleague:

I am a doctoral candidate in the College of Education at Georgia Southern University. The purpose of the study is to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between teacher morale and of their principals' leadership style in a rural elementary school setting. This study further sought to determine which specific leadership characteristics teachers respond to most positively or most negatively.

I am especially desirous of your responses as a teacher because your experiences and instructional leadership in the classroom are critical to the success of this research. It is only with your participation that I can effectively draw conclusions that can be optimally beneficial to schools and the research community. Thus, I kindly request that you complete the two enclosed surveys. The first survey pertains to teacher morale and is named The Perdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO). The second survey pertains to the principal's leadership behavior and is named the Excellent Principal Inventory (EPI). The surveys take about 20 minutes each to complete. It is important that you complete BOTH surveys.

Please turn in the surveys to your Instructional Coach. Be assured that your responses and participation will be held in the strictest confidence. Neither your name nor the name of your school or principal will be mentioned in any of the written results. Your participation, of course, is voluntary. I sincerely hope that you can assist me with this noteworthy study. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the research or completion of the surveys, contact me at 770-554-0172. Thank you for your time, consideration and assistance.

Sincerely,



Vickie T. Randolph-Robinson
Doctoral Candidate
College of Education
Department of Leadership, Technology &
Human Development

APPENDIX C

THE EXCELLENT PRINCIPAL INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS: Please use a #2 pencil. As you complete this questionnaire, please note that each item is preceded by the question, "How satisfied are you with the way the principal..." Your response choices are HD--HIGHLY DISSATISFIED, D--DISSATISFIED, N--NEITHER SATISFIED nor DISSATISFIED, S--SATISFIED. Please indicate your response by completely filling in the answer space. If you change a response, erase the first mark completely. Do not make marks outside of the answer bubbles.

**COMMITMENT TO STUDENT SUCCESS:
DEMONSTRATING RESPECT FOR STUDENTS**

1. Genuinely cares for the student's welfare.
2. Consistently makes student success a top priority.
3. Effectively interacts with students.
4. Encourages and listens to students' concerns.
5. Appropriately promotes and attends varied student activities.
6. Discourages destructive comments about students.

PURSUING ALL-AROUND EXCELLENCE

7. Communicates a belief that every student is capable of learning.
8. Ensures that challenging standards are set for all student performance..
9. Is committed to helping all students achieve their full potential.
10. Emphasizes the relationship of all school activities to achieving student success.
11. Supports a full range of extracurricular activities.
12. Gives positive recognition for student academic achievement.
13. Gives positive recognition for student accomplishment in non-academic areas.
14. Inspires students to be proud of their school.

**COMMITMENT TO TEACHING AND LEARNING:
PROMOTING TEACHING AND LEARNING**

15. Is personally committed to the teaching and learning process.
16. Encourages diverse methods of teaching and learning.
17. Supports opportunities for learning that integrate several subjects.
18. Avoids unnecessary classroom interruption.

19. Effectively facilitates the teaching/learning process.

20. Recognizes successful teaching practices.

SUPPORTING CONTINUOUS LEARNING AS A LIFETIME GOAL

21. Encourages staff development experiences in addition to formal academic programs.

22. Encourages development for teachers outside their specialties.

23. Recognizes and promotes education beyond the classroom for students.

24. Models a commitment to continuous learning in his or her own behavior.

25. Engages in personal development experiences on a regular basis.

26. Participates with staff in personal and professional development.

COMMITMENT TO THE SCHOOL STAFF: DEMONSTRATING RESPECT FOR THE SCHOOL STAFF

27. Demonstrates respect and concern for people as individuals.

28. Helps people feel their work is meaningful and important.

29. Is more concerned with giving credit than taking it.

30. Distributes instructional resources fairly and equitably.

31. Avoids playing favorites.

32. Gives staff members recognition for their outstanding achievements.

33. Discourages destructive comments about staff members.

HELPING INDIVIDUALS IMPROVE

34. Demonstrates a sincere interest in the professional development of staff members.

35. Helps individuals establish clear goals for individual performance.

36. Creates opportunities for individual growth.

37. Assures that training and coaching are provided when needed.

38. Provides development feedback in a timely manner.

39. Gives consistently fair performance feedback.

40. Effectively deals with performance problems.

BUILDING A COLLEGIAL STAFF

41. Encourages individuals to work together.
42. Supports an environment that is conducive to collaboration.
43. Removes barriers to help improve collaboration.
44. Appropriately involves others in decision-making.
45. Is resourceful in acquiring support for the school's program.
46. Provides timely feedback on the school's performance to the school staff.
47. Helps staff members constructively confront and deal with differences.
48. Helps people feel like winners.
49. Inspires staff members to be proud of their school.

**COMMITMENT TO INNOVATION:
SUPPORTING CREATIVITY**

50. Provides a stable and secure work environment.
51. Personally searches for new ways to improve learning.
52. Stimulates creativity in others.
53. Is willing to rock the boat when change is needed.
54. Facilitates changes required to implement new ideas.
55. Works to remove roadblocks to innovation.
56. Takes risks by trying new ideas.
57. Takes risks by letting others try out their ideas.
58. Keeps current with the latest innovative educational ideas.
59. Gives recognition to people who succeed with new ideas.

SUPPORTING UPWARD COMMUNICATION

60. Asks for staff members' ideas on improving teaching and learning.
61. Helps others feel free to express their opinions.
62. Genuinely listens to others' ideas.
63. Works to see the value of differing opinions.

64. Responds to co-workers' suggestions in a timely manner.
65. Seeks information from staff about his or her performance.

**COMMITMENT TO LEADERSHIP:
DEMONSTRATING INTEGRITY**

66. Shows a high degree of personal integrity in dealing with others.
67. Does what he or she believes is right, although it may not be popular.
68. Lives up to personal commitments made to others.
69. Leads by example.
70. Demonstrates sensitivity and respect to those of different social and cultural backgrounds.

PRESENTING IDEAS

72. Articulates a clear vision of the school's direction.
73. Makes sure that the school's objectives are clearly understood.
74. Communicates in an open and candid manner.
75. Presents ideas effectively when speaking.
76. Communicates effectively in writing.
77. Provides effective orientation for new assignments.
78. Avoids talking down to others.

TAKING RESPONSIBILITY

79. Takes responsibility and ownership for his or her decisions.
80. Encourages and accept constructive criticism.
81. Admits to his or her mistakes.
82. Makes decisions in a timely manner.
83. Demonstrates self-confidence as a leader.

RELATING TO EXTERNAL CONSTITUENCIES

84. Keeps parents and the community informed about the school and its programs.
85. Encourages and listens to ideas from parents and community members.
86. Works with dissenting individuals or groups within the community to reach understanding.

- 87. Is willing to challenge the district office when appropriate.
- 88. Does not pass the buck or blame the district office or school board.
- 89. Is sensitive to the interests of different racial and cultural populations.

APPENDIX D

THE PERDUE TEACHER OPINIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: Please use a #2 pencil. Read each statement carefully. Blacken the corresponding space of the respective items in the following manner: AGREE - if you agree with the statement; PROBABLY AGREE - if you are somewhat uncertain, but probably agree with the statement; PROBABLY DISAGREE - if you are somewhat uncertain, but probably disagree with the statement; and DISAGREE - if you disagree with the statement. If you change a response, erase the mark completely. Do not mark outside of the bubbled spaces.

1. Details, "red tape," and required reports absorb too much of my time.
2. The work of individual faculty members is appreciated and commended by our principal.
3. Teachers feel free to criticize administrative policy at faculty meetings called by our principal.
4. The faculty feels that their suggestions pertaining to salaries are adequately transmitted by the administration to the board of education.
5. Our principal shows favoritism in his relations with the teachers in our school.
6. Teachers in this school are expected to do an unreasonable amount of record keeping and clerical work.
7. My principal makes a real effort to maintain close contact with the faculty.
8. Community demands upon the teacher's time are unreasonable.
9. I am satisfied with the policies under which pay raises are granted.
10. My teaching load is greater than that of most of the other teachers in our school.
11. The extra-curricular load of the teachers in our school is unreasonable.
12. Our principal's leadership in faculty meetings challenges and stimulates our professional growth.
13. My teaching position gives me the social status in the community that I desire.
14. The number of hours a teacher must work is unreasonable.
15. Teaching enables me to enjoy many of the material and cultural things I like.
16. My school provides me with adequate classroom supplies and equipment.
17. Our school has a well-balanced curriculum.
18. There is a great deal of griping, arguing, taking sides, and feuding among our teachers.
19. Teaching gives me a great deal of personal satisfaction.
20. The curriculum of our school makes reasonable provision for student individual differences.
21. The procedures for obtaining materials and services are well defined and efficient.

22. Generally, teachers in our school do not take advantage of one another.
23. The teachers in our school cooperate with each other to achieve common, personal, and professional objectives.
24. Teaching enables me to make my greatest contribution to society.
25. The curriculum of our school is in need of major revisions.
26. I love to teach.
27. If I could plan my career again, I would choose teaching.
28. Experienced faculty members accept new and younger members as colleagues.
29. I would recommend teaching as an occupation to students of high scholastic ability.
30. If I could earn as much money in another occupation, I would stop teaching.
31. The school schedule places my classes at a disadvantage.
32. Within the limits of financial resources, the school tries to follow a generous policy regarding fringe benefits, professional travel, professional study, etc.
33. My principal makes my work easier and more pleasant.
34. Keeping up professionally is too much of a burden.
35. Our community makes its teachers feel as though they are a real part of the community.
36. Salary policies are administered with fairness and justice.
37. Teaching affords me the security I want in an occupation.
38. My school principal understands and recognizes good teaching procedures.
39. Teachers clearly understand the policies governing salary increases.
40. My classes are used as a "dumping ground" for problem students.
41. The lines and methods of communication between teachers and the principal in our school are well developed and maintained.
42. My teaching load in this school is unreasonable.
43. My principal shows a real interest in my department.
44. Our principal promotes a sense of belonging among the teachers in our school.
45. My heavy teaching load unduly restricts my nonprofessional activities.
46. I find my contacts with students, for the most part, highly satisfying and rewarding.

47. I feel that I am an important part of this school system.
48. The competency of the teachers in our school compares favorably with that of teachers in other schools with which I am familiar.
49. My school provides the teachers with adequate audio-visual aids and projection equipment.
50. I feel successful and competent in my present position.
51. I enjoy working with student organizations, clubs, and societies.
52. Our teaching staff is congenial to work with.
53. My teaching associates are well prepared for their jobs.
54. Our school faculty has a tendency to form into cliques.
55. The Teachers in our school work well together.
56. I am at a disadvantage professionally because other teachers are better prepared to teach than I am.
57. Our school provides adequate clerical services for the teachers.
58. As far as I know, the other teachers think I am a good teacher.
59. Library facilities and resources are adequate for the grade or subject area which I teach.
60. The "stress and strain" resulting from teaching makes teaching undesirable for me.
61. My principal is concerned with the problems of the faculty and handles these problems sympathetically.
62. I do not hesitate to discuss any school problem with my principal.
63. Teaching gives me the prestige I desire.
64. My teaching job enables me to provide a satisfactory standard of living for my family.
65. The salary schedule in our school adequately recognizes teacher competency.
66. Most of the people in this community understand and appreciate good education.
67. In my judgement, this community is a good place to raise a family.
68. This community respects its teachers and treats them like professional persons.
69. My principal acts as though he is interested in me and my problems.
70. My school principal supervises rather than "snoopervises" the teachers in our school.
71. It is difficult for teachers to gain acceptance by the people in this community.
72. Teachers' meetings as now conducted by our principal waste the time and energy of the staff.

73. My principal has a reasonable understanding of the problems connected with my teaching assignment.
74. I feel that my work is judged fairly by my principal.
75. Salaries paid in this school system compare favorably with salaries in other systems with which I am familiar.
76. Most of the actions of students irritate me.
77. The cooperativeness of teachers in our school helps make my work more enjoyable.
78. My students regard me with respect and seem to have confidence in my professional ability.
79. The purposes and objectives of the school cannot be achieved by the present curriculum.
80. The teachers in our school have a desirable influence on the values and attitudes of their students.
81. This community expects its teachers to meet unreasonable personal standards.
82. My students appreciate the help I give them with their school work.
83. To me there is no more challenging work than teaching.
84. Other teachers in our school are appreciate of my work.
85. As a teacher in this community, my nonprofessional activities outside of school are unduly restricted.
86. As a teacher, I think I am as competent as most other teachers.
87. The teachers with whom I work have high professional ethics.
88. Our school curriculum does a good job of preparing students to become enlightened and competent citizens.
89. I really enjoy working with my students.
90. The teachers in our school show a great deal of initiative and creativity in their teaching assignments.
91. Teachers in our community feel free to discuss controversial issues in their classes.
92. My principal tries to make me feel comfortable when he visits my classes.
93. My principal makes effective use of the individual teacher's capacity and talent.
94. The people in this community, generally, have a sincere and wholehearted interest in the school system.
95. Teachers feel free to go to the principal about problems of personal and group welfare.
96. This community supports ethical procedures regarding the appointment and reappointment of members of the teaching staff.
97. This community is willing to support a good program of education.

98. Our community expects the teachers to participate in too many social activities.

99. Community pressures prevent me from doing my best as a teacher.

100. I am well satisfied with my present teaching position.

APPENDIX E

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER

Georgia Southern University
Office of Research Services & Sponsored Programs

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Phone: 912-681-5465

Administrative Annex
P.O. Box 8005

Fax: 912-681-0719

Ovrsight@GeorgiaSouthern.edu

Statesboro, GA 30460

To: Vickie T. Randolph Robinson
311 Timberidge Ct.
Athens, GA-30605

CC: Dr. Linda Arthur
P.O. Box-8131

From: Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Administrative Support Office for Research Oversight Committees
(IACUC/IBC/IRB)

Date: April 3, 2007

Subject: Status of Application for Approval to Utilize Human Subjects in Research

After a review of your proposed research project numbered: **H07194**, and titled "**Leadership Behaviors that Contribute to Teacher Morale**", it appears that (1) the research subjects are at minimal risk, (2) appropriate safeguards are planned, and (3) the research activities involve only procedures which are allowable.

Therefore, as authorized in the Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, I am pleased to notify you that the Institutional Review Board has approved your proposed research.

This IRB approval is in effect for one year from the date of this letter. If at the end of that time, there have been no changes to the research protocol; you may request an extension of the approval period for an additional year. In the interim, please provide the IRB with any information concerning any significant adverse event, **whether or not it is believed to be related to the study**, within five working days of the event. In addition, if a change or modification of the approved methodology becomes necessary, you must notify the IRB Coordinator **prior** to initiating any such changes or modifications. At that time, an amended application for IRB approval may be submitted. Upon completion of your data collection, you are required to complete a *Research Study Termination* form to notify the IRB Coordinator, so your file may be closed.

Sincerely,

N. Scott Pierce
Director of Research Services and Sponsored Programs