The effect of leadership orientations on student achievement

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THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS
ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between and impact of principals’ leadership styles on student achievement as determined by school performance scores (SPS). Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four leadership frames model (structural, human, political, and symbolic) were utilized to identify principals’ leadership styles. The sample for this study consisted of 15 principals from low socioeconomic status (SES) schools and 17 principals from high SES schools located in north and middle Louisiana.

Schools were chosen by searching the Louisiana School Directory, which is based on grade configuration, pre-kindergarten through 12th grade. All schools in selected parishes in north and middle Louisiana were ranked from highest to lowest according to their SES and the top 17 and the lowest 15 in these rankings were chosen. The dependent variable analyzed was SPS. SPS are based on results from the statewide testing programs, LEAP, iLEAP, and LAA (Louisiana Alternate Assessment). The independent variables were school enrollments, SES, and the number of years of experience of the principals. A Correlational Matrix was used to analyze the data. In addition, a Multiple Regression Analysis was used to measure the strength of a linear relationship.

The findings of the present study indicated that of the three independent variables analyzed, years of experience, enrollment, and SES, a significant relationship existed between the years of experience for principals and SPS for principals having the Human
Resource Frame as their preferred leadership style. In addition, analysis of the data revealed that a significant relationship existed between SPS and SES for principals having the Structural Frame as their leadership style. The results of the Multiple Regression analysis indicated that all predictor variables in combination, free and reduced lunch, years of experience, and enrollment were associated with principals that had the Human Resource Frame as their choice of leadership style. A principal’s knowledge of the frames they use can be useful in creating structures that can help to overcome barriers to student achievement presented by demographic variable.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Barth (1991) wrote, “The principal is the key to a good school. The quality of the educational program depends on the school principal” (p. 64). In Louisiana, the accountability movement also identified the role of the principal as one of the essential components of the school improvement process for the improvement of student achievement. Bracey (2000) stated that “leadership is a process that requires the principal to determine an organization’s objectives and strategies, build consensus for meeting those objectives, and the ultimate test, influence others to work toward the objectives” (p. 115). Based on Bracey’s definition of leadership, the more a principal’s behavior is indicative of these actions, the more effective the school will be.

Louisiana Accountability

Currently, the accountability mandates placed on principals in Louisiana demand that all students are educated to their fullest potential based on challenging academic standards (Bush, 2001, p. 8). Accountability in Louisiana stemmed from the realization among educators and other stakeholders—parents, teachers, principals, district superintendents, school boards, community groups, and the business community—that providing students with a quality education must begin by determining those factors that affect learning and then requiring educators at all levels, particularly the principal, to be
responsible for implementing those factors to improve student achievement.

Although the term “accountability” was not used until a decade later (in 1993), widespread reform mandates were first called for in “A Nation at Risk,” a report compiled by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (Golberg, 1983). This report contained recommendations for more rigorous standards for students and higher standards for teachers. Similarly, in the 1990s, the “Goals 2000: Educate America Act” was passed to assist states and communities in self-initiated reform. States that participated were required to raise expectations for students by devising challenging academic standards. In addition, states were asked to develop strategies that would aid students in meeting these standards.

In 1997, this growing concern about education prompted the Louisiana Legislature to form the District Accountability Commission, which was given the task of formulating and recommending to the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education a uniform accountability system to be implemented by all public schools in the state. The Louisiana Progress Profiles State Report (1997-1998) gives an account of this process:

This accountability system developed by the District Accountability Commission consists of three phases:

1. Progress Profiles Program (Inform and educate the public on the status and progress of education in Louisiana).

2. School Effectiveness and Assistance Project or SEAP (Build Louisiana Department of Education’s internal capacity to identify, analyze, and assist schools needing help).
3. Statewide School Accountability Program (Measure school performance and help schools achieve progress towards established goals). (p. 6)

The fall of 1999 marked the implementation of the School Accountability System for Louisiana for grade levels kindergarten through eighth by the Louisiana Department of Education (as cited in the 1998-1999 Louisiana State Education Progress Report). Implementation in grades nine through twelve (9-12) followed two years later in 2001.

The regulations for accountability became even more focused and stringent. On January 8, 2002 President Bush signed into law the “No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001,” expanding accountability to ensure that all children in America are educated to excel to advanced levels of academic standards, particularly the disadvantaged. This law was actually an overhaul of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which monitored the quality of educational programs supported by federal funds. It had last been reauthorized in 1994. President George Bush’s (2001) framework for education reform consisted of the following:

This proposal changes current law by requiring that states, school districts, and schools receiving Title 1 funds ensure that students in all student groups meet high standards. Schools must have clear, measurable goals focused on basic skills and essential knowledge. Requiring annual state assessments in mathematics and reading in grades 3-8 will ensure that the goals are being met for every child, every year. Annual testing in every grade gives teachers, parents, and policymakers the information they need to ensure that children will reach academic success. (p.7)
One of the key components of Louisiana’s School, District and State Accountability System is School Performance Monitoring and Reporting and the subgroup component, as cited in the Louisiana Department of Education Standards, Assessment, and Accountability (2007), as each public school is assigned a SPS (SPS) on an annual basis indicating the academic status of its students. The SPS for each school is a weighted composite index. Each school receives a SPS and a Performance Label based upon the following indicators: Beginning in 2007, in grades 3-8, 90% of the SPS is based on students’ test scores on the state’s criterion-referenced tests: the Louisiana Educational Assessment Program for the 21st century (LEAP 21) and/or the Graduate Exit Exam for the 21st Century (GEE 21), and iLEAP (Integrated Louisiana Educational Assessment Program), or the formerly used norm-referenced test, The IOWA Test of Basic Skills (Hoover, Dunbar, & Frisbie, 2001- Form A; 2003- Form B; 2007- Form C). Ten percent is based on students’ attendance and/or dropout rates.

Also reported in Louisiana’s Accountability Bulletin, in grades 9-12, 70% of the SPS is based on student assessment and 30% on the graduation index (The graduation index is based on a cohort of students tracked for four years from entry as first time 9th graders through 12th grade). Performance Labels designate a school’s status rating determined from its baseline. Each school also receives a Growth Target and a Growth Label. The Growth Target determines how much a school must grow each year to reach the SPS of 120 by the year 2014. The Growth Label indicates a school’s success, or lack of, in meeting its growth target.

The replacement of the IOWA tests with the iLEAP was not the only adjustment made; the Louisiana Alternate Assessment (LAA) was added after federal approval. The
Louisiana Alternate Assessment test is designed to measure the growth of students with significant disabilities who are not assessed by the typical statewide assessments (Louisiana State Education Progress Report, 2003-2004). In addition to this, the Louisiana School, District, and State Accountability System (2007) require that each school be evaluated on a subgroup component.

NCLB included the following subgroups on which the schools could be evaluated: whole school, five racial ethnic subgroups (African American, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Hispanic, and White), Economically Disadvantaged Students, Limited English Proficient Students, Students With Disabilities, and ALL students. A school shall pass the subgroup component provided that each subgroup of students meets the subgroup component, and the school, as a whole, meets the criteria for a status or improvement on the additional academic indicator (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007). The subgroup component consists of the following areas: test participation, academic performance, and attendance rates for elementary and middle schools, and non-dropout rates for high schools (Louisiana Department of Education, 2005).

In addition, students in Louisiana participate in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Not only does the NAEP provide a comparison as to how students in grades 4, 8, and 12 perform nationally, it also shows how these students compare to their counterparts in other states. According to the 2007 NAEP report, for mathematics, 4th grade students in Louisiana ranked 24.4% proficient whereas 8th grade
students ranked 19.0% proficient. In reading, students in the 4th grade ranked 20.4% proficient whereas 8th grade students ranked 19.4% proficient (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Each year, as policy makers and officials at Louisiana’s State Department of Education assess the progress made toward established accountability goals, the pressure builds on the principal. Principals must now assume even more diverse roles, as they are being held accountable for higher student achievement. They are expected to do whatever it takes to achieve sustained school improvement despite the many obstacles they face. Therefore, how principals perceive their leadership role, as well as their practices, has a major impact on the academic achievement of students.

**Leadership Roles**

A preponderance of educational leadership literature (Johannesen & Groth, 2003; Sanders & Harvey, 2002; Somech & Wenderow, 2006; Tarter & Hoy, 2004) has stated that principals’ leadership practices and decision-making depend largely upon the perspectives they bring to their problem-solving endeavors. Often principals lack an extensive knowledge base regarding their role and function.

To assist principals in their efforts to comply with reform mandates, Kelley, Thornton, and Daughtery (2005) investigated the relationship between selected dimensions of leadership and measures of school climate and the principals’ perception of their leadership styles as compared to the teachers’ perception of the principals’ leadership styles. They concluded that for continuous school improvement to be sustained, principals must constantly be tuned into what is going on in their surroundings, particularly as it relates to the behaviors of the teachers and students. Schools are
complex systems in which the members’ actions must be constantly evaluated, re-evaluated, and addressed as the need arises. Therefore, principals’ administrative practices should not be limited to a “one size fits all” approach. If their actions are restricted, organizational growth will be minimal or nonexistent.

Mendel, Watson, and MacGregor (2002) also stated that the focus of school reform must be on the leadership exhibited by the principal. The principal’s leadership can either be conducive or detrimental to the positive development of a school’s overall climate, which, in turn, can impede not only student success but also teacher success. To confirm their beliefs, the researchers conducted a study focusing on three leadership styles they felt were productive in fostering a positive school climate. These styles are collaborative, directive, and non-directive styles of leadership. Also, the researchers wanted to ascertain teachers’ perceptions of their principal’s leadership in comparison to school climate. Results of the study indicated that out of the three leadership styles utilized by the principal based on teacher perception, the collaborative style was the most effective. Thus, these findings gave merit to the fact that a principal’s use of collaborative leadership does indeed generate a positive school climate.

Tate (2003) indicated that the key to a principal’s effectiveness rests with his or her ability to use effective listening skills. The researcher interviewed and surveyed teachers to collect information regarding the listening skills of principals. The results of these data collection processes indicated that principals’ listening skills fell into five categories:

1. Perceptions of listening styles.
2. Listening to build trust and relationships.
3. Keeping up with what was going on in the building.

4. Listening to make decisions.

5. The need of teachers to be listened to by their principals.

In 2002, Leech and Fulton also identified principal leadership as a key factor for creating a positive school climate. Teachers in this study were given Kouzes and Posner’s Leadership Practice Inventory in which they were asked to rate their principal based on a 10-point scale on the following leadership practices:

1. Challenging the process.

2. Inspiring a shared vision.

3. Enabling others to act.

4. Modeling the way.

5. Encouraging the heart.

Although the results of the study indicated no significant differences between the perceptions of middle and high school teachers in regard to these five indicators, the behaviors that were most apparent in successful principals’ leadership practices were enabling others to act and modeling the way. The behavior that was seen the least in their leadership practices was encouraging the heart.

Lambert’s (2002) theory of leadership proposed that principals involve all stakeholders: teachers, as well as parents, students, and the community. The researcher emphasized that part of the definition of leadership for a principal was the responsibility for the continued education of his or her colleagues. To further a dynamic professional community of continual learning, the principal, teachers, parents, and students must
collaborate as mutual learners and leaders in study groups, action research, vertical learning communities, and learning-focused staff meetings.

Marsh (2000) expressed his thoughts about what the role of a principal should encompass over the next decade if he or she is to be viewed as an effective leader in his or her quest for high student expectations. He envisioned that the role of the principal should be facilitative in nature if commitment and a higher level of performance were to be attained from the staff. He referred to this leadership behavior as transformational. Burns (1978) defined transformational leadership as the "focus on higher-order thinking, intrinsic and moral motives, and the needs of individuals" (p.134). In essence, a principal serves as the catalyst that provides the spark of inspiration and then channels the resulting energies into a network of conductors who will transform the motivation and enthusiasm into measurable outcomes of student learning.

However, Marsh (2000) asserted that transformational leadership alone was not enough. With the focus of school reforms geared toward school performance and customer satisfaction, principals must also assume diverse leadership roles. Of course, these "new hats" that the principal must do will automatically result in additional job responsibilities, which, in turn, will require new skills. Because the role of the principal cannot be specifically defined due to the magnitude of changes that accompany reform mandates, Marsh stated that principals should couple their transformational leadership style with a strategic/results-driven perspective and link management to educational improvement.

The results of the studies previously discussed confirm the obvious. If principals in Louisiana are to meet the challenges of the 21st century, they must develop strategies,
skills, and dispositions not necessarily taught in traditional preparatory programs in order to lead schools effectively and increase student learning.

**Conceptual Model**

Bolman and Deal (2003) provide a Conceptual Framework which principals can use that should increase their effectiveness when working with individuals or groups in educational settings (see Figure 1). This model was used to investigate the relationships among and the impact of principals’ leadership frames on school performance. The primary independent variable for this current study was principals’ leadership frames and the dependent variable was SPS. In addition, the independent variables years of experience, SES, and school enrollment were included in this study.

Bolman and Deal (2003) chose the label “frame” to characterize different viewpoints of principals’ leadership styles. The four frames are structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Bolman and Deal (2003) define these four frames as follows:

*Structural Frame:* The structural frame emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relationships.

*Human Resource Frame:* The human resource frame, based particularly on ideas from psychology, sees an organism as much like an extended family, made up of individuals with needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations.

*Political Frame:* The political frame sees organizations as arenas, contests, or jungles.
Symbolic Frame: The symbolic frame sees organizations as cultures, propelled more by rituals, ceremonies, stories, heroes, and myths than by rules, policies, and managerial authority. (pp. 14-15)

One can conclude that for principals to be successful in today’s schools, they must not only use their existing knowledge, but also be able to brainstorm and propose a variety of solutions to problems, thus making decisions based on a variety of frames. Most importantly, principals must adjust their leadership practices to meet the demands of a unique environment. Whatever frame a principal embraces may drive a school to the cutting edge of reform and achievement or place a school in a holding pattern of only maintaining the status quo in academic improvement.
Principal’s Leadership Frames

Human

Political

Structural

Symbolic

School Performance Scores

Figure 1. An investigation of the relationship among principal’s leadership frames and School Performance Scores.

Statement of the Problem

The mandates of NCLB have brought to light that the effective leadership of the principal is one of the essential components necessary if students are to excel academically. The enactment of this mandate commanded that principals’ actions be very different from those of the previous century. In order for principals to be the facilitators of the kind of change needed to meet higher academic expectations, they need to be cognizant of leadership styles and the potential impact of leadership behavior on school improvement and student success. The question then becomes what leadership practices and skills should principals employ to accomplish the goal of increased student success? Because school systems are surrounded by external forces, (e.g., community demands
for quality education and federal, state, local mandates) leadership practices that emphasize looking at specific parts of the picture as opposed to looking at the whole are inadequate. Principals must be able to operate from multiple perspectives as they fit the pieces of the picture together to turn these external forces into positive outcomes for students.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between and impact of principals’ leadership styles on student achievement as determined by SPS. Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four leadership frames model: (structural, human resource, political, and symbolic) were utilized to identify principals’ leadership styles. Slater, Garcia, and Gorosave (2008) used Bolman and Deal’s four leadership frames model to assist them in examining the challenges presented by organizational change in a politically charged environment. The purpose of using the frames model in this context was to assist the researchers in helping principals pinpoint which direction to take when surveying the needs of their staff based on the four frames. For instance, a young faculty that needs inspiration and direction may need a principal with a strong symbolic frame to focus on shared values and implicit understandings about the culture of the school. On the other hand, a school that lacks management procedures would need a principal with a strong structural approach to assist with the coordination of the school’s organizational configuration to determine how individuals within the school are held accountable for their assigned responsibilities. The premise is that principals who understand these frames are better able to provide the type of leadership a particular school needs.
Finney and Yvette (2008) also acknowledged the importance of principals using Bolman and Deal's leadership frames model. In this particular study, the researchers concluded that principals needed to consider themselves as key agents who draw from all four frames to create a supportive environment necessary for the successful induction of new teachers. Finney and Yvette (2008) affirmed that principals must operate from a multi-frame perspective to facilitate teachers to be proactive when implementing regulatory mandates and policies of the school system.

Likewise, Tarter and Hoy (2004) concurred that the implementation of Bolman and Deal's frames (1984; 2003) to control for the political, social, and economic forces that impinge on a school's environment could lead to improved school performance. For example, instead of viewing structures as barriers to student success, principals should use them as opportunities to remove obstacles that prevent teachers from being empowered to meet the school's achievement goals. These researchers concluded that if teachers are made to feel that the structures in place are there to support them in their efforts, then they are more motivated to work within the structures to improve student achievement.

**Current Research**

The research using Bolman and Deal's (1984; 2003) distinguished leadership model contributes to the scholarly and professional literature in several ways. First, data collected provides professional practitioners in the educational world with information as to how school principals in districts, despite the obstacles they face, create an environment in which students experience academic success. Second, findings from this research are useful for training principals who are currently practicing, as well as for
providing ideas for educational leadership preparatory programs for those considering entering the principalship. Last, data collected adds to the body of research literature pertaining to how principals’ practices affect the academic performance of students in K-12 schools.

**Research Questions**

The following research questions regarding principal leadership and school performance guided this study:

1. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Structural Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

2. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Human Resource Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

3. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Political Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

4. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Symbolic Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

5. Is there a relationship between leadership styles and different years of experience for principals for both high and low SES schools?

6. Is there a relationship between leadership styles for principals and size of schools for both high and low socioeconomic schools?
Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between a school's performance score, enrollment, SES and the principal's years of experience for principals having the Human Resource Frame Leadership style.

2. There is no significant relationship between a school's performance score, enrollment, SES, and the principal's years of experience for principals having the Structural Frame Leadership style.

3. There is no significant relationship between a school's performance score, enrollment, SES, and the principal's years of experience for principals having the Political Frame Leadership style.

4. There is no significant relationship between a school's performance score, enrollment, SES, and the principal's years of experience for principals having the Symbolic Frame Leadership style.

Variables

The dependent variable was schools' performance scores. SPS are based on the results from the statewide testing programs that use the LEAP, iLEAP, and LAA (Louisiana Alternate Assessment). These data were available from reports published by the Louisiana State Department of Education; thus, data from the school districts came from this report. The independent variable was the leadership style of the principal. Other independent variables analyzed were principal's years of experience, school enrollment, and SES of students.
Data Analysis

This study used a combination of a bivariate correlational and a causal comparative design to examine the relationship between SPSs and leadership styles. The difference in leadership styles, across years of experience for principals, across sizes of schools and the SES was studied using a causal comparative research design.

The causal comparative design was used to determine if the leadership style of the principal affected SPSs. This design was chosen because the “groups under investigation have already been formed according to the values associated with a variable of interest before the researcher has begun the study” (Crowl, 1996, p. 13). The causal comparative design identified principal’s leadership styles across four frames described in Bolman and Deals’ (1984; 2003) work. Each of these frames was compared to the SPS to see what relationships existed.

Instrumentation

The Leadership Orientations Survey published by Bolman and Deal (1984; 2003) was used to collect data. This instrument was chosen because of its capability to measure principals’ leadership styles.

The survey is divided into four sections. For the purpose of this study, principals were asked to complete all four sections: Section I (Leader Behaviors), Section II (Leadership Styles), Section III (Overall Rating), and Section IV (Background Information).

In Section I, principals used a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1, never to 5, always to rate their leadership behavior based on 32 items in a consistent frame sequence. The Structural Frame emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relations. The
Human Resource Frame sees an organization as much like an extended family, made up of individuals with needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations. The Political Frame sees organizations as arenas, contests, or jungles. The Symbolic Frame treats organizations as tribes, theaters, or carnivals. In Section II, respondents ranked themselves on phrases that described their leadership style from 1 to 4. For instance, the number 4 was used to denote the leadership style that best described them; the number 3 was used to denote the next best leadership style and so on. Each one of the choices selected represented one of the frames. In Section III, the respondents compared themselves to other principals with regard to levels of experience and responsibility. Section IV required principals to respond to items in regard to demographics such as school enrollment and number of years of experience in his/her present position.

A copy of the Leadership Orientations Survey is available in Appendix A. Permission to use this survey was obtained from L.G. Bolman & T.E Deal through two separate email messages (personal communication, October 14, 2004 & April 4, 2005). Copies of these letters are in Appendix B.

**Definition of Terms**

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

**Criterion Referenced Tests**

Criterion referenced tests produce a score that tells how individuals/schools perform in achieving established criteria (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.102).
Graduate Exit Exam (GEE)

The GEE is a component of Louisiana’s criterion referenced testing (CRT). It measures how well a student has mastered the state’s content standards (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.104).

Growth Target

Growth Target represents the progress schools must make every year to reach the state’s 2014 goal of 120.0 (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.105).

Growth Label

Growth label is the narrative label that describes the level of growth achieved by a school. This label is based on the school’s success in attaining its Growth Target. (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.104).

High Socioeconomic Status (SES)

High SES is any school or school attendance area in which no more than 35% of the children are from low-income families as cited in The New Title I: Balancing Flexibility with Accountability (Cowan, T.K., Manasevit, M.L., Edwards, J.C., & Sattler, L.C., 2002. p. 65).

LEAP Alternate Assessment Level I (LAA1)

Alternate Assessment Level 1 (LAA1) is Louisiana’s assessment for students with significant cognitive disabilities who do not participate in the typical statewide assessments (the CRT and NRT) (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p. 106).
LEAP Alternate Assessment Level 2 (LAA2)

LEAP Alternate Assessment, Level 2 (LAA2) is Louisiana’s assessment for students with academic disabilities. It allows eligible students to participate in an academic assessment sensitive to measuring progress in their learning.

Louisiana Educational Assessment Program (LEAP)

LEAP is a component of Louisiana’s criterion referenced testing (CRT). This test measures how well a student has mastered the state’s content standards. LEAP is administered at grades four and eight (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p. 106).

Low Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Low SES is reflected by any school or school attendance area in which the students are at 75% poverty or below as cited in The New Title I: Balancing Flexibility with Accountability (Cowan et al., 2002, p. 64).

Norm Referenced Tests

Norm referenced tests produce a score that tells how individuals, schools, districts, and the state perform in comparison with individuals at the same grade level in the national norm group (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.107).

School Performance Label

A performance label is a school’s status rating determined from its baseline. A school with a baseline of 60.0 is labeled as academically unacceptable (Louisiana Department of Education, 2007-2008, p.109).
School Performance Score (SPS)


Limitations of the Study

There were three limitations to this study:

1. The scope of this study was limited to the exploration of educational leadership as elementary and secondary principals understood it. The perceptions of teachers, students, and parents were not included.

2. This study was limited to schools throughout north and middle Louisiana that have achieved varying growth labels. Thus, generalizations to other settings were limited or delimited, and an accurate representation of principal leadership style may not be attained.

3. The sample was limited to public schools that contained Pre-K-12th grades, and did not include alternative schools.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Educational administration evolved because of several developments beginning in the late 19th century and continuing well into the 20th century: the expansion of co-operations, the aftermath of World War I and World War II, and the technological advances and racial upheavals of the 1960s and 1970s (Campbell, Fleming, Newell, & Bennion, 1987, p. 6). As the political, social, economic, and government structures changed, so did societal needs. An evolving population demanded that older paradigms be replaced by more progressive practices in all organizational realms, including school management and student learning.

In the 20th century, principals had little administrative training. To formulate timely responses to these deficits, educational administration theorists modified theories drawn from the business industry and the field of psychology (Campbell et al., 1987, p. 194) that proved to be an imprecise fit for education. Although it may be clear in retrospect that the principles of the business world are not always compatible with the educational environment, these organizational theories did provide an adequate beginning point. Given this circumstance, the researcher will provide an overview of the predominant organizational and leadership theories that have had a great influence on current educational administration and practice. Three theories stand out as the most
influential: Scientific Management, Behavioral Approach, and Situational Leadership or Contingency Theories of Leadership. Next, the literature review examines research that used Bolman and Deal’s Leadership Orientations Instrument. Then, more contemporary research that describes the leadership behavior of the principal and its impact on student achievement will be discussed. Finally, other related variables that may influence principal leadership will be reviewed.

**The Rise of Scientific Management: The Search for the One Best Way**

The first theory to address problems faced in educational institutions was Fredrick Taylor’s *Principles of Scientific Management* (1912), a publication circulating throughout the business world of the early 20th century. A Quaker and a Puritan, Taylor had strong convictions about efficiency and order (Wren, 1972). He believed that a man’s character determined his success or failure. According to Taylor, one must first end loafing on the job to establish a harmonious work environment free of deception between employer and employee (Haber, 1964, p. x). Taylor’s work ethic was based on defining an “honest day’s work,” by establishing what men are capable of doing based on what material and supplies they possess (Wren, 1972, p. 116). Taylor used his “scientific” guidelines to evaluate employees and set wages.

After Taylor (1912) and fellow researchers conducted a lengthy time and motion study of the workers and equipment at the Bethel Steel Company, the first two principles of Scientific Management emerged: the design of each task (managers are to find the shortest and easiest method) and the selection, training, and development of the workman. These principles assisted management in assuming control while
simultaneously masking authoritative supervisory practices. The other two management responsibilities that followed were seeing that the job was carried out according to specifications and ensuring that the workers, along with management, assumed equal responsibility (Fine, 1997). Previously, workers had controlled industrial operations. Plagued by problems with labor due to industrial growth, management applied these new organizational procedures to increase workers’ efficient use of economic resources.

During this same time, reform was needed in the public schools. The growth of factories had resulted in a demand for workers to fill the new jobs created; this demand caused an increase in the number of families from diverse backgrounds settling in urban areas (Fine, 1997). The subsequent increase in student population required additional educational services and facilities. As a result, curricula needed to be revamped to teach students functioning at different academic levels. In addition, principals were not used to dealing with such a large and diversified group of teachers or students. Finally, the rise in education costs—more salaries, more material, and more buildings—caused business leaders in the community to question the management of school funds. For the first time in educational history, the public demanded that administrators be more careful with their budgets and school practices.

Because Taylor's *Principles of Scientific Management* (1912) was accepted by the business world to eliminate waste, and schools were obviously in need of reform, educators quickly adopted business philosophies. Suddenly, Taylor's *Principles of Scientific Management* became the cure-all method that all public institutions were seeking to restore efficiency. Cubberley (1916) stated the following:
The scientific purpose of the movement has been to create some standards of measurement and the units of accomplishment that may be applied to school systems...substituting these for that personal opinion that has, in the past, constituted almost the only standard of measurement of educational procedure. (pp. 326-327)

Because these developments happened at a time when the economy of the country was of prime concern to the American public, the community needed visible proof that schools were being managed efficiently.

Educators of the time gladly listened to current gurus such as Frank Spaulding (former superintendent of Newton public schools) and Franklin Bobbitt, who had used Taylor’s *Scientific Management Theory* to address the problems of overcrowded schools, outdated curricula, diverse student populations, and depleted funds (Fine, 1997). Spaulding’s application of scientific management centered on indicating how educators could get more “bang for their buck” by determining the amount of money needed for instruction based on student membership and the instructional benefit of subjects taught. Analyses of cost from this perspective led Spaulding to conclude that for schools to be more efficient, administrators must double teachers’ work loads as well as the number of students they taught without increasing their salaries (Callahan, 1962). They must also cut down on the number of classes offered at their school sites. (Callahan, 1962)

Spaulding felt that these methods could be used by all school administrators as models of “best practices” to achieve school efficiency.

Now that school administrators had been shown how to achieve cost efficiency, the next area of concern was how to apply Taylor’s (1912) system to school
administration and the supervision of the workers. The person who provided such information to principals was Bobbitt. Like Taylor, Bobbitt (1913) believed that for organizational effectiveness to be maximized, management must focus on the regulation of the workers. Bobbitt devised a set of universal principles by coordinating the methods employed by teachers to produce a product [the student] according to a standard. In his book, Bobbitt (1913) provided a summation of these principles. They are listed as follows:

**Principle I.** Definite qualitative and quantitative standards must be determined for the product.

**Principle II.** Where the material that is acted upon by the labor process passes through a number of progressive stages on its way from the raw material to the ultimate product, definite qualitative and quantitative standards must be determined for the product at each of these stages.

**Principle III.** Scientific management finds the methods of procedure that are most efficient for actual service under actual conditions, and secures their use on the part of the workers.

**Principle IV.** Standard qualifications must be determined for the workers.

**Principle V.** Management must train its workers previous to service in the measure demanded by its standard of qualifications, or it must set up entrance requirements of so specific and detailed a nature as to enforce upon training institutions the output of a supply of workers possessing the desirable qualifications in the degree necessary for entrance into service.
Principle VI. The worker must be kept up to standard qualifications for his kind of work during his entire service.

Principle VII. The worker must be kept supplied with detailed instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the appliances to be used.

Principle VIII. It is a function of management to discover and to supply the tools and appliances that are the most effective for the work in hand.

Principle IX. Responsibility must be definite and undivided in the case of each task to be performed in the total series of processes.

Principle X. Incentives must be placed before the workers so as to stimulate the output on their part of the optimum.

Principle XI. In a productive organization, management must determine the order and sequence of all of the various processes through which the raw material or the partially developed product shall pass in order to bring about the greatest possible effectiveness and economy; and it must see that the raw material or partially finished product is actually passed on from process to process, from worker to worker, in the manner that is most effective and most economical.

In Bobbitt’s eye, if educational institutions were to overcome the challenges facing schools of this era, governing officials must assume greater control over teacher work processes. Student learning was something that should not be left to chance: what students learned and how they learned must be predetermined for teachers. Therefore,
administrators must take on a more autocratic role through the use of scientifically determined methodologies.

Unfortunately, Taylor's *Principles of Scientific Management* produced unfavorable consequences: One was the establishment of "one best way of doing a job" (Taylor, 1912, p. 29). Although, standardization did show great promise for increased production, a problem arose: how could one assume that the norm was the one best way to practice because no two situations were alike? Without the use of other information to inform practices, "a one size fits all" approach led to inappropriate labeling of practices as "scientific." Another unfavorable consequence was the establishment of systematic standards to regulate teacher performance. The industrialization of the teacher was essentially taking authority away from teachers and placing it in hands of administrative officials who were felt to be the most competent. This practice did not adequately prepare teachers to be well rounded in all aspects of their duties.

Fortunately, as time progressed, the principles of Taylor and his advocates became less relevant. It became evident that management in the educational and business arena needed to be knowledgeable about more than just the technical processes of manufacturing. Management must possess other, equally essential skills, if industrial growth and human development were to be promoted. The awareness of these needs arose because of growing dissatisfaction among the workers regarding the practices utilized by management. This need to understand the nature of the leadership process itself motivated theorists to study leadership behavior in groups as opposed to looking at individuals. As a result, empirical research began to challenge personal traits and other un-dimensional views of leadership.
Research efforts in the 1940s focused on how a leader's actions influenced the behaviors of the members of the group (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1997). Leadership was viewed as a process of directing the activities of an established group for the purpose of achieving the goals of an organization. This new focal point marked the beginning of the behavioral approach. Instead of focusing on what a leader is, the area of concentration now shifted to what a leader does. Two noted research efforts on leadership behavior were the Ohio State Studies and Michigan Studies (Baack & Wisdom, 1995).

The Ohio Leadership Studies examined two types of leadership that impact effectiveness: consideration behavior and initiating structure. The Michigan State Studies also indicated that there were two patterns of leadership behavior that effective leaders displayed: job-centered and employee-centered behavior (Baack & Wisdom, 1995). These two studies proved to be beneficial not only from an industrial standpoint but from an educational one as well. The author of these studies recognized that the leader must focus on employees' interpersonal welfare as well as the production requirements of the job.

A third behavioral approach to leadership was the Managerial Grid Theory. In 1954, Blake and Mouton proposed a model of leadership in which a leader's style could be either task or person-oriented (Moorehead & Griffin, 1989). How much emphasis one gave to each was based on the needs of the employees.

As time passed, it was realized that a behavioral approach to the study of leadership was not sufficient to account for all the leadership styles needed when dealing with numerous and diverse situations. Consequently, the contingency approach to
leadership emerged. This approach charged leaders to assess a situation and then decide which leadership style to implement.

Other proponents of this approach devised several theories that reflect this particular leadership practice. They are Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Theory (Gibson et al., 1997) Fiedler’s Contingency Model (Moorehead, & Griffin, 1989) Vroom’s and Yetton’s Model, and Jago’s Leader-Participation Model (Baack, & Wisdom, 1995). Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Theory recommended that the leader adapt his or her style according to the situation and the needs of the followers. In order to do this, a leader must first determine the maturity level of his followers in regard to specific task and then implement the appropriate leadership style or behavior (Gibson et al., 1997). There are four types of behavior or leadership styles that leaders must employ once the employee’s aptness has been ascertained. They are telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Another situational approach to leadership was a model developed by Vroom and Yetton in 1973 (Baack & Wisdom, 1995). The Vroom and Yetton model helps the leader to decide to what extent followers will participate based on a set of questions that require a “yes” or “no” response. The model that Vroom and Yetton developed to help determine the amount of follower participation was called the Decision Tree Model. To assist the leader in determining the extent of follower participation, there is a set of questions that require a “yes” or “no” response to assist in decision-making efforts (Baack & Wisdom, 1995). The overall goal of this model is to ensure follower participation but also to ensure that quality decisions are made on the part of the leader.
The final situational approach to leadership is the Path Goal Theory devised by Robert House (Baack, 1998). House felt that the behavior of the leader was the key ingredient when it came to the performance and satisfaction of the followers in various situations. House suggested that leaders or managers were in unique positions to guide the paths of followers in the direction that was needed to meet their personal goals as well as those of the organization (Baack, 1998). In order to fulfill this role, House recommended the leader exhibit one of the following leadership styles: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented. In addition, House also suggested that whatever style is implemented should be specific to the demands and nature of the situation.

In the 1980s, the trend was to look at the interpersonal skills of managers and employees. It was believed that the effectiveness of a leader could be judged by determining the way employees view themselves in terms of the organization and what is required of them. This framework required leaders to focus on fulfilling the psychological needs of the employees, thus causing the role of the leader to become transformational in nature. When leaders or managers use their personal attributes as a source of authority for getting others to comply, it often leads to increased levels of commitment and performance. Leaders with good interpersonal skills have proven to be effective managers over employees.

Also in 1983 (as referenced in Chapter 1), “The National Commission on Excellence Report” caused a stir in the educational arena. The message communicated in this report, entitled “A Nation at Risk,” was that if America’s schools were going to be effective, standards for students, as well as for teachers, would have to be more rigorous.
This era marked the beginning of the Effective Schools Movement, which was based on empirical research that emphasized academic excellence for all children.

Researchers in the field of education, such as Ronald Edmonds and William Brookover specifically sought to determine the characteristics of those schools that were able to soar academically despite the obstacles they faced. Brookover (1981) studied the “total learning environment (ideology, social structure, and instructional practices) of secondary schools and how it impacts the learning outcomes for all students” (p. 13). This analysis of the total learning environment led Brookover to conclude that the following play an important part in effective schools: the belief that all children can learn, the role of the principal, and instructional practices that have been proven to achieve desired results (Brookover, 1981, pp. 14-16). Edmonds and Frederiksen’s (1979) research focused on finding those schools that were successful in teaching minority students as well as those students that were poor. In addition, Edmonds and Frederiksen also wanted to determine what impact schools had on students from various backgrounds. They concluded that in effective schools “teacher attitudes and characteristics, school characteristics and curriculum, and affluence of the school are key ingredients” (Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1979, pp. 48-51).

As a result of their efforts, the Correlates of Effective Schools emerged: a) strong administrative leadership; b) school climate conducive to learning; c) high expectations for children’s achievement; d) clear instructional objectives for monitoring student performance; and e) emphasis on basic skills instruction. One area that was identified as a must for effective schools was the leadership role of the principal. As a result, researchers in the field set out to determine those characteristics specific to the principal that were
conducive to promoting change and thus increasing student achievement. One theory that emerged during this time that directly examined this particular type of leadership behavior was that of Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal (1984).

**Emerging and Multiple Perspectives of Leadership**

According to Bolman and Deal, four leadership frames or perspectives can help provide leaders with information to improve their practice as well as increase their understanding of the organization in which they work: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. The Structural Frame emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relationships. The Human Resource Frame, based particularly on ideas from psychology, sees an organization much like an extended family, made up of individuals with needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations. The Political Frame sees organizations as arenas, contests, or jungles. The Symbolic Frame sees organizations as cultures propelled more by rituals, ceremonies, stories, heroes, and myths than by rules, policies, and managerial authority (Bolman & Deal, 2003, pp. 14-15).

Bolman and Deal (2003) acknowledged that although one’s actions may be indicative of one frame or a combination of frames, learning to apply all four frames could be beneficial in improving one’s leadership practices. Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four-frame leadership provided a structure for analyzing the leadership practices of principals. It was through the examination of this relationship with other members of the organization, both externally and internally, that the principal could extend the leadership capacity required for the rejuvenation that schools need to excel academically. As a result, the purpose of this present research was to determine whether a particular leadership frame is more effective than another in increasing student performance.
Bolman and Deal (1991) focused on using their own leadership survey to determine what orientations leaders use to make sense of their world. In 1991, these researchers conducted two studies based on these frames or perspectives in search of answers to the following questions: First, “are there patterns in the images or lenses leaders employ? Second, are leaders with multiple frames more effective than those with a singular focus? Three, under what conditions can leaders learn to be more flexible in defining situations accurately?” (p. 510). The sample for this study consisted of 145 higher education administrators from colleges and universities scattered all over the United States: 48 principals from Broward County, Florida, 15 superintendents from schools in Minnesota, and 220 administrators from Singapore.

In this study, Bolman and Deal (1991) employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate their views. In the qualitative study, the researchers sought to determine “how leaders frame their experience” (p. 513). To ascertain this information, the subjects were asked to write a narrative of the “critical incidents” they faced on a daily basis, and based on this information, pinpoint (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 514) how many and which frames they used. The quantitative analysis for this study consisted of the researchers determining how leaders were perceived by their cohorts. In order to do this, the participants were issued the Leadership Orientation Survey that was devised by Bolman and Deal. On this survey, they were to rate themselves in regard to the four frames. Peers were asked to rate them using the same survey.

Based on the analysis of the administrator’s narratives of “critical incidents” (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 514), the results yielded that 75% of the administrators used
more than two frames when reflecting on incidences that occurred. Only 5% of the instances were reported in which they used all four.

Findings in regard to how the administrators perceived themselves in accordance with the four frames and their effectiveness as a manager and a leader and how their colleagues viewed them indicated that “the respondents saw the items for each frame as linked to one another and distinct from those used to measure the other frames” (Bolman & Deal, 1991, p. 528). In addition, the regression analysis revealed that there was a connection between the frame orientations and how the administrators’ peers rated them on effectiveness. The structural frame proved to be the best indicator of management effectiveness with the exception of the corporate sample. In regard to the question that refers to a leader’s flexibility in defining his or her situation, the answer goes back to a leader’s understanding of his or her context in which the situation occurred. Also, it was noted that human resource managers had different interpretations of the frames depending upon personal experience and context.

In 1992, Bolman and Deal once again conducted a similar study. In this study, their purpose was to find out how many frames leaders use, which ones they used, and the outcome of the frames used. The study investigated a principal’s ability to reframe as both a manager and a leader. As with their study in 1991, the sample for this study consisted of principals from the United States and Singapore. Data were collected through the use of narratives. The principals were asked to give accounts of incidences in which the circumstances were problematic. Data were analyzed through qualitative and quantitative means. Qualitative data collection methods centered around two questions: “How many frames do leaders use? and Which frames do they use?” (Bolman & Deal,
Quantitative data collection methods consisted of the principals completing the Leadership Orientation Survey in which they were asked to evaluate themselves. Their associates were also asked to complete this same survey in which they were to rate the principals.

Bolman and Deal (1992) concluded that the symbolic frame was most frequently used by principals in Florida and Singapore, next the human resource frame, then structural, and last, political. For the principals in Singapore, the symbolic frame ranked the highest, followed by structural, human resource, and finally, political.

Other researchers in the 1990s utilized Bolman and Deal’s frames to examine educators’ leadership styles. One research effort that was conducted using Bolman and Deal’s organizational frameworks was that of Goldman and Smith (1991). They sought to identify organizational practices that would help to break down barriers that educational leaders face when teachers are resistant to change. In 1984, the Teacher’s Federation Organization in British Columbia implemented the Program for Quality Teaching (PQT). “PQT was designed as a vehicle for peer consultation, whereby teachers learn strategies for working together to improve one another’s teaching on dimensions of each teacher’s choosing” (Goldman & Smith, 1991, p. 3). The British Columbia Teachers’ Federation wanted a program that had a built-in evaluation and professional development component. Individuals of the Federation realized that if the program were going to be successful, a two dimensional approach was needed. The PQT program began in 1984 and lasted until 1991. This program consisted of teachers in teams observing their peers and providing feedback about their observations in regard to the organizational needs of teachers. Goldman and Smith reported that when the study initially began, the sample for
the study was a total of three districts, 18 schools, and 70 participants. In 1986, the
sample increased to 7 districts, 57 schools, and 252 participants (Goldman & Smith,
1991, p. 6). Goldman and Smith gathered data from three different research projects.
Surveys and interviews were used to collect the data.

Conclusions reached from this research indicated that the bureaucratic-structural
frame was of the utmost importance. To overcome this bureaucratic-structural barrier, it
became apparent that the role of the principal was essential to teachers’ ability to
implement PQT. One thing that helped was that principals from the onset perceived their
roles differently. Some principals in PQT took on the role of colleague observers,
teachers, and facilitators as opposed to being the administrator in charge. These assumed
roles that were instrumental in giving teachers the freedom and support that was needed
for the program to be a success.

Information from the interviews and questionnaires revealed that the most
problematic concern for teachers was establishing time to meet with one another.
Goldman and Smith noted that a number of the principals were so impressed with PQT
that they found ways to incorporate some of the elements of the program into their
schools’ daily operation.

Yerkes, Cuellar, and Cuellar (1992) also carried out a study in which they, too,
were convinced of the benefits of the principals’ awareness of organizational frames (as
they relate to their interactions with other faculty members). As a result, the purpose of
their study was to determine how perceptions of their organizational views coincided
with the five scholastic programs of organizations and the time allocated to
administrative tasks (Yerkes et al., 1992, p.7). The academic fields were “administration,
curriculum, research methodology and evaluation, counseling and human development, and history and foundations” (Yerkes et al., 1992, p.7). To ascertain this information, subjects were asked to fill out Bolman and Deal’s Leadership orientations instrument to gain insight into their views about the four frames: political, symbolic, human resource, and structural frame. A total of 20 surveys were distributed to all school personnel.

Subjects for the study were chosen from six schools located in various parts of the United States. Also included in the study were universities located in the West, Midwest, Southeast, and Southwest parts of the United States. Data analysis consisted of conducting an analysis of variance to investigate the data to determine if a difference existed between the subscores on Bolman and Deal’s leadership orientation survey and the academic field.

Conclusions reached by Yerkes et al. (1992) revealed that results from the survey indicated that the human resource frame was the most widely used by all academic groups with the exception of the history/foundations group. The symbolic frame received the second highest rating among the respondents in the education administration group followed by the political and the structural frames. In curriculum studies, the symbolic frame was perceived by this organized body as the second most important with the structural and political frames of less importance. Subjects in the research methodology and evaluation group revealed that the structural frame earned the second position with the political and symbolic frames deemed less significant. The next choice after human resource that was the most preferred by the members of the counseling and human development group was the symbolic frame, then structural, lastly the political frame.
Although the human resource frame proved to be the dominant frame used for all other academic groups, scholars in the history group found the structural frame to be paramount. The human resource frame was their second choice followed by symbolic and the political frames.

To reinforce the view that the success of a statewide teacher appraisal system is dependent upon the cognitive leadership frames that the principal holds, Bigham and Reavis (2001) conducted a study to determine the best frame to use when making decisions about implementing such a system. The population for this study consisted of 195 principals of all grade levels from rural and multicultural sites located in a state in the southwestern part of the United States. The participants were randomly selected. A descriptive research design was used to carry out this study utilizing surveys to collect the data. Items for the survey were derived from the eight domains of the statewide teacher appraisal system and Bolman and Deal’s four leadership frames. The eight domains were the following: Domain I, active, successful student participation in the learning process; Domain II, learner-centered instruction; Domain III, evaluation and feedback on student progress; Domain IV, management of student discipline, instructional strategies, time and materials; Domain V, professional communication; Domain VI, professional development; Domain VII, compliance with policies, operating procedures and requirements; and Domain VIII, improvement of academic performance of all students on campus (Professional Development and Appraisal System as cited in Bigham and Reavis, 1998). The participants were asked to assign a "4 (high), 3, 2, or 1 (low) to indicate the respondent’s level of preference for that particular survey item in comparison with the other three items listed for that domain" (Bigham & Reavis, 2001, p. 54). Bigham and
Reavis concluded that, overall, the human resource frame was the most preferred among the principals surveyed. The political frame was not evident in any of the principals’ responses.

Another research endeavor by Dorsch (1994) also demonstrated how Bolman and Deal’s leadership frames orientation could be instrumental in helping leaders examine their views as an aid in helping to detect problems and providing strategies for improvement. Dorsch conducted a study at Cedar High School in Southern Ohio that focused on one school’s attempt to implement a pilot program entitled “Connections” throughout the 1993-1994 school terms. “Connections—involved multiple relationships, or connections—between and among teachers, students, parents, administrators, and the surrounding organizational systems. An analysis of these connections, therefore requires a conceptual framework that accounts for their dynamic interaction” (p. 5). In which case, “Dorsch (1994) expressed that Bolman’s and Deal’s (1991) integration of four frames of organizational analysis—structural, human resource, political, and symbolic—offers such a perspective” (p. 5).

Dorsch’s (1994) research was guided by two questions. The first was, “How did the Connections teaching team at Cedar High School organize to implement the Connections Program?” (p. 4). Second, “How did the larger Cedar City school and district organizations influence the Connections program’s implementation?” (p. 4). A qualitative research design was used to carry out the study. Data collection methods encompassed observations, interviews, and document analysis.
Results of Dorsch’s (1994) research indicated that the structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames interlinked all departments. Whereas Dorsch noted that “structures at Cedar High School and Connections contain elements that are both same and different” (p. 10), team members realized that the key to successful implementation and sustenance of the Connections program would depend on the creation of collegial communities and flexibility. Although conflicts did emerge, the team members managed to create common planning and meeting times and student advisory groups to help effectively plan for instruction.

The Cedar City School and district organization influenced the Connections program in several ways. First, the district’s allowance of the implementation of this program created a unique opportunity for the teachers to make the decisions as to how the district’s goals, values, and purposes would be achieved. Second, through this process, the teachers developed a sense of ownership of this program. Because of this “buy in,” teachers and students became more committed to the learning process.

In 1998, Bista and Glassman conducted research to expand on Bolman and Deal’s leadership frameworks. In addition to looking at the four leadership frames (structuralist, human resource, political, and symbolic), Bista and Glassman wanted to look at the nine managerial functions that correspond with these frameworks. The nine managerial functions are “planning, decision-making, reorganizing, evaluating, managing conflict, goal setting, communication, organizing meetings, and motivating” (Bista & Glassman, 1998, p. 27). The purpose of their research was to “determine the extent of administrators’ use or perception of use of each one of the four approaches when
executing each function” (Bista & Glassman, 1998, p. 27). The sample for this study consisted of 300 participants in California. Of the 300 participants, 150 were elementary or primary principals, 75 were junior high or middle school principals, and 75 were high or senior high school principals. Stratified and systematic sampling procedures were used to select the participants for the study.

Participants were given a survey based on questions derived from a table of 36 sets of behaviors devised by Bolman and Deal. The surveys were distributed to the participants by mail during the winter and spring months of 1993. A total of four mailings were sent. The data collected from the 36 behaviors on the survey yielded four scaled variables: structural approach, human resource approach, political approach, and symbolic approach. Results indicated that principals use the human resource and symbolic approaches to a great extent, with structural and political approaches less significantly used. Thus, principals in the study felt that their assessment of the employees was free of political and structural bias.

Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) ideas are termed “frames.” the frames represent framework that is consistent with current literature in regard to organizational change in schools. More recently, however, researchers use terms such as leadership styles, roles, attributes, practices, approaches or characteristics when discussing leadership responsibility (Cranston, 2002; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Huffman, 2003; Jason, 2001; Papa & Baxter, I., 2008; Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007).

In 2002, Quinn conducted a study to affirm the importance of the leadership practices of the principal as an instructional leader and how this relationship impacts teachers’ instructional practices, which, in turn, ultimately improves student performance.
The participants for this study consisted of 24 schools (eight elementary, eight middle, and eight high schools) throughout the state of Missouri that were participating in project ASSIST (achieving success through school improvement site teams), "a systematic school improvement process" (Quinn, 2002, p. 4). Data collection consisted of using two instruments, the staff assessment questionnaire and the instructional practice inventory. In addition, observations were used.

The staff assessment questionnaire was comprised of the following items: “strong leadership, dedicated staff, frequent monitoring of student progress, high expectations, positive learning climate, early identification of learning problems, curriculum continuity, multicultural education, and sex equity” (Quinn, 2002, p. 5). According to Quinn, for the purpose of this study, particular emphasis was placed on the “strong leadership characteristic” (Quinn, 2002, p. 5). On this scale, there were four areas of instructional leadership that described the relationship between principal and teacher. They were the “resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence” (Quinn, 2002, p. 5). Approximately, one-third of the staff completed the questionnaire. Respondents were randomly selected.

The instructional practice inventory measured the extent of teacher and student involvement. The following were the areas identified as teacher-student engagement: “active learning/active teaching, teacher-led conversation, teacher-led instruction, student seatwork/teacher engaged, student seatwork/teacher disengaged, and total disengagement” (Quinn, 2002, p. 6).

Classroom observations were used to collect data regarding teacher’s instructional practices. A total of 100 observations were conducted at each site. Two types of data
analysis were used. The first was a Pearson-product moment analysis, which was used to find out if there was a relationship between four instructional leadership subscales (resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence) and the instructional practices subscales (active learning/active teaching, teacher led instruction, student seatwork/teacher engaged, student seatwork/teacher disengaged, and total disengagement). The four instructional leadership subscales were taken from the Student Assessment Questionnaire (SAQ). Also, a multiple linear regression was used to determine those leadership factors that predicted instructional pedagogy.

Based on the analysis of the data, Quinn (2002) concluded that the leadership of the principal does play a significant role in the achievement of students. In the schools in this study in which active learning, active teaching, and student engagement occurred, principals were rated highly as instructional resource providers. In addition, the principals were able to secure resources and personnel from the district, local level, and the community. Also, communication by the principal brought about high levels of active learning and active teaching.

Another study that confirms that the leadership style of the principal is key to students’ academic success is that of Jacobson, Johnson, Ylimaki, and Giles (2005). To confirm their view, they conducted a study in five distinct vicinities in the state of New York. The school sites selected were deemed as “high need” (Jacobson et al., 2005, p. 611) by New York’s education department. These schools earned this classification based on socioeconomic factors, free and reduced lunch, and school improvement gain. The school sites selected were “five elementary schools (of various grade groupings), one middle school (grades 5-8) and one high school (grades 9-12) from districts of
varying contexts such as urban, small city districts, suburban districts, and one rural district" (Jacobson et al., 2005, p. 609). In all, a total of seven schools participated.

A case study approach was used to collect the data. To assist in analyzing the data, the researchers used Leithwood and Riehl’s three core leadership practices: “setting directions, developing people, and redesigning the organization” (Jacobson et al., 2005, p. 607). Based on the results of their practices, the researchers used this information to come up with three theories they felt were reasons why these principals experienced the success that they did. The three theories were the accountability principle, the caring principle, and the learning principle.

Based on these three principles, the following conclusions were reached. In regard to the accountability principle, the principals in this study viewed the New York State Education Department’s (NYSED) performance standards, particularly when it came to meeting state mandates involving accountability, as golden opportunities to impress upon parents, teachers, and students the necessity of raising the bar for academic expectations. Furthermore, the principals in these case studies valued the importance of using test data for driving instruction, school improvement plans, and professional development. In addition, the case studies revealed that teachers in this study were more influenced by principals whom they viewed as instructional leaders. One result was that teachers set higher expectations for themselves and their students. Based on the data from the caring principle, the researchers found that principals who exhibited a more humanistic approach were able to motivate their staff to excel to higher levels of commitment and dedication. The teachers also had positive reciprocal relationships with other faculty, parents, and students. Last, principals who utilized the learning principle relied on such
actions as de-privatization, modeling and mentoring, and collaborative structures. The utilization of these actions was instrumental in the successful restructuring of their schools. The study concluded that all three principles—accountability, caring, and learning—resulted in improved student performance on New York’s high stakes standardized testing.

Eilers and Comacho (2007), too, viewed the leadership practices of the principal as an essential component for schools that have poor academic outcomes. They discerned that for change to occur, principals must build a school culture that emphasizes evidence based practices, create opportunities for teachers to establish collaborative communities, and use collaborative leadership. The sample for this study was comprised of 32 teachers in a K-5 elementary school of about 350 students. This school was located in a low-income neighborhood within which the population was very fluid. The majority of the student population received free or reduced lunch; almost half of the students used English Language Learners (ELL) services, and 10% received special education. In addition, 91% of the students were either African American or Hispanic American. Last, it was noted that this school had not made adequate yearly progress (AYP) based on state-mandated assessment scores since the school had opened in 1998.

To develop their theory, the researchers used a case-study approach. In addition to qualitative and quantitative methods, researchers used methods such as teacher survey scales, classroom observations and interviews. Focus groups were used to collect the data. Data collection methods, including interviews and observations, took place over a two year period. The survey was designed to measure teachers’ knowledge of their school’s organization, practices, and culture. The researchers noted that these indicators
in particular are all predictors of student outcomes. Also, the survey was designed to measure collaborative leadership, evidenced based practice, and communities of practice. Only teachers in grades one, three, and five were observed. Observations also took place at grade level and staff meetings.

The researcher noted that although this principal was a novice in the field, he demonstrated three essential leadership qualities needed to help face the challenges of a school characterized by low test scores, resistance to change, and a migrant population. The three leadership skills were creating learning communities among teachers, demonstrating his own form of collaborative leadership, and using knowledge of and access to practices based on evidence. Because of these three behaviors, this school experienced a turn-around in school culture that became the standard for setting the direction that the faculty and staff should go.

It was noted that, initially, the staff at Whitman Elementary was at the beginning of the stage of readiness for school reform. Actions of teachers at the beginning stage of readiness are characterized by little teaching collaboration around instruction, some team structure, weak professional community of practice, weak administrative support, and limited district office contact. However, within a two year period, the analysis of the data revealed the teachers at Whitman advanced on three measures: communities of practice, evidence based practice, and collaborative leadership. In addition, students also made improvement on the comprehensive state assessment. At the beginning of the principal’s first year, it was reported that only 23% of the students scored above 1420 (AYP monitoring goal) in math, and fewer than 21% excelled beyond the score of 1420 in reading. During his second year as principal, the students scored 47% in reading, and
51% of the students scored at the proficient level in math, an improvement which enabled the school to shift to the state’s appointment of “safe harbor.” At the end of the study, the school was taken off the state’s list of schools that had been labeled as not meeting AYP.

Likewise, Dinham (2005) also wanted to determine leadership practices that produced favorable educational results, particularly those linked to subject departments. To help determine this, Dinham utilized a case study approach via AESOP (An Exceptional School Outcomes Project). According to Dinham (2005), “AESOP is an Australian Research Council funded to study investigating processes leading to outstanding educational outcomes in years 7-10 in New South Wales (NSW) government (public) schools involving the University of New England, the University of Western Sydney, and the New South Wales Department of Education and Training (NSW DET)” (p. 2). Outstanding educational achievement was based on the following criteria: develop fully the talents of students; attain high standards of knowledge, skills and understanding through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum; and be socially just. It was noted that these criteria were outlined in The Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for (Australian) Schooling in the Twenty-First Century (as cited in Dinham, 2005).

The researcher in this study utilized two types of research sites to collect data: “departments responsible for teaching certain subjects in years 7 to 10 and teams responsible for cross-school programs in years 7 to 10” (Dinham, 2005, p. 2). In all, a total of 50 sites at 38 secondary schools were chosen to participate in this study. This study took place over a period of two years beginning in 2001 and ending in 2003. Quantitative and qualitative means were used to collect the data. Data collection efforts consisted of site visits by the researchers, lesson observations, interviews with the
teachers, principal, other executive staff, students, and community members. Document analysis was also used. Using data entered from 38 AESOP school reports spanning the 50 sites, which entailed open coding, over 300 concepts relating to aspects of principals' leadership behaviors were exposed. Based on the results of these data, a composite set of principal leadership attributes and practices contributing to outstanding educational outcomes were revealed.

Based on the analysis of the data, Dinham (2005) concluded that the number one theme that emerged, which contributed to principal's leadership practices, was the belief that one's main focus and efforts should be geared toward the teaching and learning of the students. The following behaviors should also be evident: external awareness, a bias toward innovation and action, personal qualities and relationships, vision, expectations, a culture of success, teacher learning, responsibility and trust, student support, and common purpose and collaboration.

In like manner, Hayes, Christie, Mills, and Lingard (2004) conducted a research investigation that also focused on the leadership practices of principals. In this case their interest focused on the type of leadership practices that are instrumental in supporting teaching pedagogies that result in improved student learning and social outcomes. The sample in this study embodied 24 case study schools over a three year period that were part of the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study [2] QSRLS. According to these researchers, “the QSRL developed the concept of productive pedagogies to describe approaches to teaching that are linked to improved intellectual and social outcomes for all students” (Hayes et al., 2004).
Data collection began in 1998 and concluded in 2000. Methods used to gather the data were conversations with principals and classroom observations. The instrument the researchers used to collect data contained 20 items that focused on productive pedagogies that lead to increased academic performance.

Data collection efforts revealed the following actions as the most prevalent in principals’ leadership behaviors as evidenced by classroom observations and conversations with principals: promotion of dispersal of leadership, encouragement of the development of positive relationships, taking of responsibility for much of the emotional labour associated with supporting and maintaining these relationships, working to ensure that matters of pedagogy take priority on the school’s agenda and within leadership practices, and awareness of departmental policies and directives as less significant than pedagogy (Hayes et al., 2004). Although principals in this study acknowledge that policies and procedures are an important part of their jobs, they were deemed less significant than pedagogical practices.

Once again, in 2008, the focus remained on the practices of the principals if students are to reach the requirements of the accountability mandates. As a result, Williams (2008) conducted a study to determine those notable features that distinguish the exceptional leadership of urban principals from those that are not. The conceptual framework that Williams utilized as a basis for this study was one that was devised by Boyatzis in 1982. This conceptual framework consists of three factors that lend themselves to productive job performance. They are “individual competencies, job demands, and organizational environment. Boyatzis defined individual competencies as what a person is capable of doing...job demands reveal what a person is expected to
do...and organizational environment reveals how a person is expected to respond to the job demands” (p. 37). The objective of the study was to distinguish the outstanding principals from typical principals based on productive job performance competencies. Because of this purpose, the models of emotional and social intelligence served as key frameworks to provide insight into competency research. The focus of Williams’ study was also guided by another purpose, and that was to find out how these outstanding urban principals perceived the eternal environment and thus carried out the day to day procedures.

The sample for this study was made up of a total of 20 principals: 11 elementary, five middle school, and four high school principals. The principals chosen for study were from urban schools located in the Midwest. Twelve of the 20 principals were labeled as outstanding, and the remaining were labeled as average. The principals having 12 years of experience were selected on the condition of having being nominated by two or more of their peers and supervisors and a minimum of a 2.75 rating from teachers. The principals with 8 years of experience were selected on the basis of having no peer or supervisor nominations and a rating of at least 2.75 from teachers. It was noted that the researcher for the study did not have any knowledge as to which principal was outstanding or which was identified as typical.

Data were collected using behavioral event incident interviews (BEI) in order to gain insight about the principals’ individual competencies and adjustability to the external environment. These interviews consisted of each principal giving three accounts of incidents in which they perceived their behavior as effective and another in which they perceived their behavior as ineffective. In William’s 2008 study, principals were asked to
fill out two Career History and Rotter Locus of Control questionnaires (as cited in Williams, 2008).

Data analysis of the emotional and social competencies was conducted through the use of codes that were attained directly from these two areas. The competencies listed under the Emotional Intelligence clusters were emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-management cluster, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement orientation, and initiative. The Social Intelligence cluster consisted of such behaviors as empathy, service orientation, social skills cluster, developing others, leadership, influence, communications, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork collaboration. In addition, behavioral event interviews were individually analyzed to determine the presence or lack of these competences. These behavioral events were also used by the researcher to characterize and then link the outstanding and typical principals' abilities to understand their environment and respond accordingly.

The results yielded that emotional and social competence were significant factors that distinguish the leadership abilities among urban principals. There were differences found in regard to the emotional intelligence competences for outstanding principals when compared to typical principals. The analysis of the data revealed that in the area of the self-confidence competency, the behavior was found to be evident in all incidences coded by the observers for outstanding principals, with 92% of the outstanding principals coded twice as exhibiting this behavior. For typical principals, this competency was found to be evident in only 25% of their behavior, and only 13% was coded in two
incidences. The outstanding principals of the self-confidence competency held firm to their beliefs, were confident, and were capable of making decisions without input from the local level.

In the area of achievement orientation, the researcher coded this competency on two occasions for all outstanding principals. No typical principals' behavior was coded as evidence of this competency. Principals who exhibited achievement orientation were motivated to do whatever it took to achieve academic excellence.

For the initiative competence, all the outstanding principals were coded on two instances as displaying this behavior. Only one typical principal’s behavior was found to be indicative of this competence. The outstanding principals took the initiative to go above and beyond what was expected, as well as managed the social and political environment of the school to bring about the desired change needed for school reform. They also sought information that would assist in effective decision making.

The researcher coding of the organizational awareness competence indicated that the outstanding principals exhibited this competence at least once, and that 75% of the time they displayed this behavior twice. For the typical principals, this competence was seen in one instance for three out of the eight principals 38% observed. Only one typical principal’s action was suggestive of this competence. This indicated that principals that are mindful of organizational awareness understand the change process in schools. They are able to examine the underlying causes of change and find ways to overcome deterrents.

In the area of leadership, all outstanding principals were noted as having this characteristic, whereas 38% of these principals were seen as having this competence
twice. No more than three typical principals were coded as showing this competence once, whereas 13% of the typical principals’ behavior was coded twice for this area. Principals who exhibited this competence were able to set direction, influence others, and create a mission that communicated the purpose of the organization.

For the teamwork and collaboration competence, all outstanding principals were coded once for their performance in this area, and 10 of the 12 outstanding principals were coded twice 83%. The typical principals were coded as showing this competence only half of the time, and two of the eight 25% typical principals were coded as exhibiting this behavior on two occasions. Principals that utilized teamwork and collaboration realized that in order to improve student achievement, all stakeholders needed to be involved.

In regard to the conceptualization and adaptation to the external environment, the results of the data indicated that outstanding principals realized that no organization can successfully operate in a vacuum. They need the input from the district/school bureaucracy, parents, and community partners if they are going to integrate everyone’s goals into one to get the desired results. In contrast, typical principals operated under a more limited scope because they tended to deal mostly with parents and the district/school bureaucracy.

In Crum and Sherman’s (2008) research, they, too, perceived the need to identify those leadership behaviors that impact student achievement, particularly since the postliminary stages of NCLB. Their methodology consisted of conducting an inductive exploratory study that was designed by Straus and Corbin (as cited in Crum & Sherman, 2008); the study’s purpose was to determine how successful principals generate
successful student outcomes. The sample chosen for this study was 12 high school 
principals from thriving schools across the Commonwealth of Virginia. According to 
Crum and Sherman, “successful schools were defined as meeting both state accreditation 
standards (fully accredited on the Standards of Learning Test) and federal standards 
(meting AYP)” (p. 566). It was noted that the principals who were chosen to participate 
in this study had at least three years of experience in principalship. Data collection 
consisted of hour long interviews as well as semi-structured interviews that were devised 
by Leithwood's core practices of educational leaders. “Core practices” were defined as 
setting directions, developing people, redesigning the organization, and managing the 
instructional program.

The interview procedures consisted of the principals telling of a particular 
program they had implemented at their school site that had proven to be successful. In 
addition, they were asked to give insight about the organizational climate at their school, 
the staff, and other stakeholders. They were also asked to explain how they responded to 
state mandates. Other issues discussed were maintaining a competitive school, staff 
empowerment, designing instruction to meet the needs of all students, and leadership 
practices. These sessions were taped and later analyzed for patterns.

Based on the results, the following themes emerged in regard to the principal 
leadership behaviors that promote student achievement. They were developing personnel 
and facilitating leadership, responsible delegation and empowering the team, recognizing 
ultimate accountability, communicating and rapport, facilitating instruction, and 
managing change.
Successful principals in this study realized that delegating some of the leadership responsibilities to the staff would produce benefits in the end, particularly in the areas of shared goals and purposes of the organization. For instance, in one interview with the principal, he stated, "I want my teachers to know they don’t work for me. We work together" (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 568). In another instance, the interviewee stated, "I’m not an autocratic leader. I believe in sharing responsibilities with good people and giving them credit for what they do" (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 568).

In the area of responsible delegation and empowerment, the analysis of the data indicated that the principals interviewed in this study felt that chain of command played an important factor in deciding upon whom this authority would be bestowed. One principal asserted, "I use an organizational framework and chart, starting with me and my responsibilities, etcetera," (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 570). The researchers also noted that in most cases, the principal’s delegation of authority and empowering staff was often related to a specific structure within the building. For example, one principal declared, “I think our job as administrators basically revolves around facilitating what seems to be the need for the issue du jour in that department. So we rely on the department chair to make a lot of the day to day, nitty-gritty decisions about what has to happen” (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 570). Also within this process, they felt that there was a need to establish teams and make them a part of the decision-making process, especially when it came to things such as the school improvement plan, climate concerns, and instructional design.

In regard to ultimate accountability, all principals acknowledged that although they believed in collaborative decision-making, the buck stopped with them. One
principal said, “I do provide our faculty the opportunity to have a voice in how we do things. They also understand that even though they have a voice, I ultimately make the decisions” (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 571).

As for as communicating and rapport, the results of the data indicated that all principals realize the importance of communication and rapport to achieve state mandates. When staff is informed, administrative decisions are more likely to be supported. In one interview the principal said:

You have to talk to your staff and you have to have staff support. If you do something and I’m out in the front of the conductor of the train, and my staff is still back at the station, that’s no good. I have to get them on board. They don’t have to always agree, but I have to have them understand at least why we are doing this…The expectation no longer exists that the principals’ job is to run the school and the teacher’s job is to teach. Principals are now expected to be facilitators of instruction in order for students to reach academic excellence. An example of this was found in the following principal’s statement. He said, “We go on what is called ‘Smart Walks’.” And that requires an administrator to go into a teacher’s class five times in a nine weeks. You collect data. You’re looking at actual learning and what the students are doing. (Crum & Sherman, 2008, pp. 573- 574)

The last core leadership practice to be discussed is managing change. As we all know, change is inevitable. The principals in this study all agreed that change is not an easy process, but all shared ways in which they were successful in implementing a new undertaking. One principal stated, “I have convinced staff just by continually talking
about it, that they need to make change their friend. We have established a culture of change in this building that does not preclude trying anything. It might not work, but at least we’re willing to give it a try” (Crum & Sherman, 2008, p. 575).

**Related Variables**

Other demographic variables considered in this study that may influence leadership practices of principals are gender, years of experience as a principal, and school enrollment. Evidence from research suggests that these demographic variables have an impact on leadership practices.

In 2005, Coleman conducted a study to discuss gender and equity issues faced by women teachers in England when seeking the position of school principal or head teachers. The sample in this study consisted of women and men in secondary school principalships. The participants responded to questions based on their perceptions of their “career progress, their experience being a man or woman and a school leader, and their perceptions of their own leadership styles” (Coleman, 2005, p. 6). The researcher in this study expressed that both sides needed to be heard because gender has some characteristics that may cause men and women to receive different treatment when seeking higher positions in the educational arena. Data for this study were obtained through the use of a survey in the late 1990s and in 2004. The results of the 2004 survey indicated that although women are equally capable as men to lead in the educational field, societal preference is still more favorable toward male leadership.

The results revealed that when women and men were asked to describe their management and leadership style, their responses were somewhat similar. The words they used to describe themselves were open, consultative, inconclusive, supportive,
collaborative, and democratic. Even though women tended not to choose the words that were associated with male characteristics such as competitive, objective, and formal, their responses did not indicate that gender played a major role in how men and women lead. The author indicated that firmly held cultural expectations assumed that male teacher's masculine characteristics enabled them to be better at managing and leading schools due to their authoritative practices. On the other hand, women were expected to have a more collaborative nurturing style associated with the traditional roles expected of women.

Kropiewnicki and Shapiro (2001) conducted a study on female principals to determine if the leadership attribute, ethic of care, impacted their behavior and decision making as it extended from their personal being to their professional practice. Therefore, the following questions served as the basis for this research (Kropiewnicki & Shapiro, 2001):

1. How does the ethic of care extend to females working in the male sex-typed career of the public school principal?

2. How is the ethic of care transferred from a personal ethic to a professional ethic by female principals; and how will caring responses and behaviors manifest themselves in the decision and practices of these female principals?

3. How is the ethic of care enacted in the decision making process of female principals working within the administrative structure of a school system—which traditionally maintains a hierarchical chain of command, stresses order and discipline, and focuses on applying the universal principals of rights and justice in the resolution of dilemmas?
4. In the bureaucratic structure of school administration, how are positive relations and connections with others, presented as vital to the female identify, maintained by female principals? (p. 6)

Data were obtained through the use of interviews and hypothetical ethical dilemmas. Based on the results of the interviews with the three principals, several themes emerged in regard to their ethic of care as a leadership attribute: teaching and learning, making a difference, developing and empowering others, doing what is right, listening then deciding, and creating child-centered schools.

In regard to teaching and learning, the leadership attribute, ethic of care, was revealed in each of the principal’s responses. Principals related their success as leaders to the positive impact their own children had on their life and how they used some of the wisdom gained from these experiences to relate to parents as well as students. Each principal expressed the need to make a difference in the lives of students as well as in their communities. Principals’ responses revealed that it is essential that they exhibit leadership behaviors that support a positive and safe school environment if all students are to have the opportunity to learn.

Developing and empowering others through collegial communities was another theme that was evident in their responses. They advocated finding ways to develop leadership potential in their employees through committee participation, presentations at in-services, and the appointment of employees to department head positions. School employee respondents described their principals as “being open,” “having an open door,” “and being willing to listen” (Kropiewnicki & Shapiro, 2001, p. 19).
St. Germain’s and Quinn’s (2005) research efforts focused on determining how novice principals differ from expert principals in their ability to use tacit knowledge to create a more effective practice. A phenomenological and heuristic methodology was used to determine principals’ perceptions and reflective practices in their daily work environment. In addition, a crucial incident approach was also used to examine the complex problems faced by these principals in the study. Data for the study were collected through the use of surveys. A total of three experienced principals and three novice principals were interviewed. According to St. Germain and Quinn, expert principals were selected if they possessed “five years of experience, the possession of complex knowledge and skills, reliable application in actions intended to accomplish generally endorsed goals, and a record of goal accomplishment” (pp. 79-80). Novice principals had only one year of experience and had been employed in other administrative placements. Interviews with the principals took an hour to complete. The respondents’ replies were limited to incidences that influenced their practices.

The novice principal’s ability to use tacit knowledge focused on providing individual support and fostering the acceptance of group goals as opposed to using tacit knowledge to anticipate the after effects or consequences of things unperceived. The results of the study indicated that expert principals’ ability to use tacit knowledge was extensive. The responses to the questions indicated that they handled problems in a composed manner. Their wealth of experience revealed that their approach to problems was based on an “if-then thinking” (St. Germain & Quinn, p. 84) approach. Expert principals knew which solutions to problems needed a top down approach as opposed to a bottom-up approach. They understood the consequences of their actions as well as
demands of the external environment. It can be concluded that the use of tacit knowledge in leadership practices of expert principals is closely associated with the elements of transformational leadership in both embody identifying and articulating a vision, fostering group goals, and providing individual support.

A study was conducted by Wetherell in 2002 to conclude if a relationship existed between principals’ leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction. In addition, Wetherell wanted to ascertain whether or not the demographics of the principal such as age, gender, total years of experience as a principal, principal’s experience at the present school, highest degree completed by the principal, and race/ethnicity also impacted teacher job satisfaction.

The sample chosen for this study was principals from Morris County New Jersey. The researcher in this study focused particularly on principals that had at least one year of experience. Twenty districts were comprised of principals in their second year. After obtaining permission from the superintendent, a total of 23 principals participated. Of this, the researcher was able to use data from only 19 of the 30 schools. In addition, the researcher reported that out of the 396 teachers that participated, just 251 teachers completed the questionnaire.

The research design implemented in this study was a descriptive/correlational design. Leadership style of the principal as discerned by the teachers served as the independent variable in the study. Teacher job dissatisfaction was the dependent variable. Hersey and Blanchard’s Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description-Other (LEAD-Other) was used to collect the data (as cited in Wetherell, 2002). The LEAD-Other instrument was comprised of 12 situations and four behaviors that were indicative
of how a leader may react (a) high task/low relationship, or “telling,” (b) high task/high relationship, or “selling,” (c) high relationship/low task, or “participating,” and (d) low relationship/low task, or “delegating.” Teachers were asked to choose the behavior they thought the principal would select if he or she were in a specific incident.

Teacher job satisfaction was obtained through the use of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). This instrument measured the respondents’ attitudes in regard to their jobs. The areas assessed by this instrument were Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards, Operating Procedures, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. A total of four questions were written for each of the above listed areas. Teachers were asked to rate each question based on the range from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

The results of the study indicated that the leadership style “telling” was linked to rendering extreme levels of teachers’ job satisfaction in the domains of supervision, contingent rewards, operating conditions, communication, total job satisfaction, and style adaptability. Principals who had 15 years of experience were also inclined to have high levels of teachers’ job satisfaction in the areas of pay, promotion, communication and higher style adaptability score. Teachers with lower levels of job satisfaction were associated with principals that had over 10 years of experience under their belt in the areas of operating conditions, communication and total job satisfaction.

In 2000, Keller conducted a case study on a low-performing urban middle school to find out what leadership practices were used by the principal that were instrumental in changing a school from one that was in academic decline to one that met or exceeded the academic standards. In addition, the researcher also sought to determine how the
leadership behavior of the principal influenced the students, staff, and the community to become a part of this transformation.

This study took place in Baldwin Middle School in Orange County, California. Baldwin Middle School was characterized by its high poverty rates and crime levels. It was noted in this study that the student body was represented by students from diverse backgrounds and economic conditions. The total number of students that attended this school was reported to be 1,000 making it the largest middle school in Orange County.

Keller used (2000) several data collection methods such as interviews, student achievement results, attendance data, suspension and expulsion data, and student participation in extended day activities. Interviews served as the main data collection source in this study.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's Continuum of Leadership Behavior and Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory was used as the basis for analyzing the leadership practices of the principal in this case study (as cited in Keller, 2000). According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership theory, a leader's behavior can proceed from being boss-centered on one end or subordinate-centered on the other. Within these boundaries lie five different types of administrative authority and subordinate independence. The leadership behaviors were telling, selling, testing, consulting, and joining. The following research questions were used to guide Keller's (2000) investigation:

1. What was the middle school like when the principal accepted the assignment?
2. What qualities of leadership did the principal exhibit?
3. What was the decision-making process?
4. What were the specific effects of the interventions implemented by the principal?

Based on the results of the study, the answers to the above questions revealed the following. In the beginning of this case study, Baldwin Middle School was at a critical stage. Baldwin was noted for having poor test scores, high absenteeism rates, poor attendance, violence, and polarized staff and community. Based on the results of the interview data, the principal's leadership qualities, that were instrumental in bringing about change in these areas, were being accountable, directive, visible, and promoting positive change. Based on the aggregated data from all respondents, the new principal was rated significantly higher in all areas when compared to the former principal.

This principal's quest for school improvement focused on practices that had begun with a boss-centered approach to leadership. The principal identified the problem and told followers what was expected. This leadership behavior was viewed by the principal as the best approach to take given the level of readiness displayed by the teachers to accept change. As time passed, the leadership of the principal progressed from a top-down approach to a more democratic process. As a result, the new practices implemented, that had to do with teaching, student learning, and curriculum, became institutionalized by the teachers in their everyday management of the school.

Czerkwonka (2005), too, conducted a study to determine if student achievement on state mandated tests in 10th grade mathematics and 11th grade communication arts was influenced by variables such as leadership practices of the principal, enrollment of high school student population, and tenure of the principal. The researcher utilized Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory to determine if there was any variance between
the perceived leadership styles of high school principals and student achievement. The leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner were Challenging the Process, Inspiring a Shared Vision, Enabling Others to Act, and Encouraging the Heart (as cited in Czerkwonka, 2005).

The sample for this study consisted of Missouri high school principals (with total administrative control) in grades nine through 12. A total of 494 principals took part in the study. This study was non-experiential in nature and utilized a quantitative approach to determine the perceptions of practices of high school principals and Missouri assessment index scores in 10th grade mathematics and 11th grade communication arts.

Czerwonka (2005) used the following questions to investigate his research efforts:

1. Does mathematics achievement vary as a function of high school principal’s leadership practices?

2. Is mathematics achievement a function of a combination of high school principals’ leadership practices and high school student population size?

3. Does communication arts achievement vary as a function of high school principal’s leadership practices?

4. Is communication arts achievement a function of a combination of school principal leadership practices and high school student population size? (p. 4)

The results of the study failed to identify a significant variance in student performance and high school principal practices. However, the variance for school size was significant.
This study confirmed that school enrollment did play a significant role in school performance. The researchers concluded that effective leadership practices of the principals were also essential if schools are to be successful.

Summary

This current literature review began by presenting three leadership theories that evolved throughout the 20th century as the most influential in the educational domain: Scientific Management, Behavioral Approach, and Situational Leadership or Contingency Theories of Leadership. Forced to deal with social, political, and economic upheavals, educators turned to these theoretical explanations to meet the educational needs of a changing society. As time passed, an evolving population demanded that these older paradigms be replaced by more progressive practices in all organizational realms, including school management and student learning.

Next, this literature review shifted to the research that focused on the impact of school leadership on school improvement. The era became known as the Effective Schools Movement. During this time, much of the research emphasized academic excellence for all children. Researchers studied the learning environment and its impact on student outcomes. Elements of the learning environment included: (1) ideology, (2) social structure, (3) instructional practices, (4) teacher attitudes and characteristics, and (5) school characteristics and curriculum. (Brookover, 1981; Edmonds, & Frederikson, 1979). As a result of the Effective Schools Movement, the research began to support the importance of the principal’s role on student achievement.

The leadership model of Bolman and Deal (1984; 2003) surfaced as an important theory that sought to examine the effects of leadership practices on organizational
behavior. The four frames of this model provided a basis for analyzing the leadership styles of principals. The purpose of their research was to provide insight into the principal’s use of one frame or a combination of frames as feedback of his or her leadership practices. This information could then be used to influence leadership behavior to help meet the increasing demands of student achievement. Research that Bolman and Deal (1991; 1992) conducted using their own instrument centered on determining how many frames leaders used and identifying which frames they used. Their research revealed that the vast majority of leaders used two to three frames. Findings in the studies revealed that very few administrators used only one frame or all four frames. The frames that were most often used by administrators were symbolic, then human resource, next structural, and last political.

This literature review examined research that showed how principals used the frames to enhance their leadership effectiveness in schools. Some of this research reviewed studies that utilized Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) frames to look at principals' leadership style orientations when implementing newly mandated programs. Results of these studies indicated that the bureaucratic-structural frame and the human resource frame were the most commonly used. Other research focused on which frames educators used and how many were used when relating to other members of the organization. Results of these studies indicated that the human resource frame was the most widely used in two instances. Conversely, findings in the other studies indicated that the structural, political and symbolic frames were intertwined in the educators’ actions.
Next, the literature review shifted to examining newer studies on leadership in the 21st century. Whereas this research may utilize the term "reframing," the concept of the role of the principal in attaining academic excellence can be linked to Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four frame leadership model. Some of the emergent perspectives depict the principal as the instructional leader in an environment where there is active teaching and learning and student engagement. Teachers in schools where students were actively involved in learning and making significant academic improvement rated their principals high as instructional resource providers who placed priority on teacher learning as well as student learning. The principals from these schools emulated behaviors such as external awareness and a culture of success.

Research studies using a case study approach found that effective principals used data-driven, evidence based practices within collaborative communities. The studies emphasized the importance of the responsibility of the principals for the emotional wellbeing of the members of their organization. Another research effort revealed that social and emotional competence was a significant factor differentiating the leadership performance abilities between outstanding principals and typical principals.

The literature review then focused on studies that examined how demographic variables such as gender, years of experience as a principal, and school size have an impact on leadership. The result of one study on gender confirmed that society as a whole continues to presume that men are better suited for certain leadership positions in education more than women. Another related study on gender used this same concept to show how traditionally female traits can be helpful in producing quality learning environments for students and staff. In this study, these female qualities were referred to
as the “ethic of care.” The ethic of care behaviors that were found to be common in the female principals were teaching and learning, creating child-centered schools, listening then deciding, doing what is right, developing and empowering others, and making a difference. Studies were also analyzed to determine if a principal’s years of experience strengthened his or her ability to build commitment and relationships among staff to achieve goals. These studies were based on the leadership theories of Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s Continuum of Leadership Behavior and Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Theory (Keller, 2000).

Finally, studies were reviewed to determine what effect school enrollment had on a principal’s leadership practices. Similar to the studies on years of experience, the researchers concluded that the charge of principals had become to provide the leadership needed that would allow followers to excel to different levels of competence and excellence. In these studies, the researcher utilized the theories of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (Keller, 2000) as well as Kouzes and Posner (Czerkwanka, 2005).
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used to test the hypotheses in the study. This chapter includes the research design, instrumentation, research questions, hypotheses, sample, data analysis, and procedural details. The focus of this study was to investigate the leadership style of the principal and its relationship to and impact on school performance. The dependent variable was school performance scores. School performance scores are based on the results from the statewide testing programs, LEAP, iLEAP, and LAA. These data were available from reports published by the Louisiana State Department of Education; thus, data from school districts came from these reports. The independent variables were school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the number of years of experience of the principals.

Research Design

Instrumentation

The Leadership Orientations Survey published by Bolman and Deal in 1984 and again in 2003 was used to collect data. This instrument was chosen because of its capability to measure principals’ leadership styles.
The survey is divided into four sections. For the purpose of this study, principals were asked to complete all 4 sections: Section I (Leader Behaviors), Section II (Leadership Styles), Section III (Overall Rating) and Section IV (Background Information).

In Section I, principals used a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1, never to 5, always to rate their leadership behavior based on 32 items in a consistent frame sequence. The Structural Frame emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relations. The Human Resource Frame sees an organization as much like an extended family, made up of individuals with needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations. The Political Frame sees organizations as arenas, contests, or jungles. The Symbolic Frame treats organizations as tribes, theaters, or carnivals. In Section II, respondents ranked themselves on phrases that described their leadership style from 1 to 4. For instance, the number 4 was used to denote the leadership style that best described them; the number 3 was used to describe the next best leadership style that described them and so on. In Section III, the respondents compared themselves to other principals with regard to levels of experience and responsibility. Section IV required principals to respond to items in regard to demographics such as number of years of experience in his/her present position. Typically, the survey took about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. These surveys were coded to denote the identity of the school.

A copy of the Leadership Orientations Survey is available in Appendix A. Permission to use this survey was obtained from L.G. Bolman & T.E Deal through two separate email messages (personal communication, October 14, 2004 & April 4, 2005). Copies of these letters are in Appendix B.
Research Questions

The following research questions regarding principal leadership and school performance guided this study:

1. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Structural Frame characteristics for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?

2. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Human Resource Frame characteristics for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?

3. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Political Frame characteristics for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?

4. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Symbolic Frame characteristics for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?

5. Is there a relationship between leadership styles and different years of experience for principals for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?

6. Is there a relationship between leadership styles for principals and school enrollment for both high and low socioeconomic status schools?
Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Human Resource Frame leadership style.

2. There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Structural Frame leadership style.

3. There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s year of experience for principals having the Political Frame leadership style.

4. There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Symbolic Frame leadership style.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of public high school principals in Louisiana. The target population was 44 public high school principals of K-12 schools in middle and north Louisiana. Forty-four schools were chosen by searching the Louisiana School Directory. After selecting these 44 public high schools, the schools were ranked according to their socioeconomic status. Low and high SES were defined in the list of definitions in Chapter One. Principals of the top 20 and the bottom 20 high schools were purposefully selected as the sample for this study. Out
of these 40 principals, 32 participated in this study, 17 principals of the highest
ranked schools and 15 principals of the lowest ranked schools.

**Instrument Reliability**

According to Popham (1993), reliability refers to the consistency with which a
measure assesses whatever it purports to measure. There are two basic procedures to
ensure reliability: stability procedure and alternate form method. The stability procedure
or test-retest method entails participants taking a test and then, later retaking the same
test. For tests that have been properly developed, test-retest correlation coefficients often
range between .80 and .95. The alternate form method involves giving two forms of the
same test, one at a time, to the same group of people on the same day. The reliability of
tests with reasonably long length is typically .80.

Reliability for Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) Leadership Orientation
Instrument has already been established. The Coefficient Alpha Reliability for each of the
Leadership Orientations Scales for Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) Leadership
Orientation Survey is listed as follows:

- **Structural Frame (Items, 1, 9, 17, 25, 5, 13, 21, 29),** $r = .920$
- **Human Resource Frame (Items 2, 10, 18, 26, 6, 14, 22, 2, 30),** $r = .931$
- **Political Frame (Items 3, 11, 19, 27, 7, 15, 23, 32),** $r = .913$
- **Symbolic Frame (Items, 14, 12, 20, 28, 8, 16, 24, 32),** $r = .931$

**Instrument Validity**

The validity of an instrument is based on whether or not it measures what its
content intended to measure. According to Popham, “validity focuses on whether a test
yields scores from which valid inferences can be drawn” (1993, p. 120). Two types of
validity are content and criterion-related validity. Content validity indicates if the test itself matches the instructional objectives designed for the test in question. This can be done by having a panel of experts look at the actual test questions and determine if their content matches the overall intent.Criterion-related validity entails the correlation of a measurement with an external criterion (Kubiszyn & Borich, 1990, p. 278). Bolman and Deal (1983; 2004) discussed the validation of their instrument in their 1984 publication of *Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations*. Also, Bigham and Reavis (2001) stated that “face and content validity of Bolman and Deal’s (1983; 2004) leadership instrument was addressed by having educational professionals review the instrument” (p.54).

**Data Analysis**

A Correlation Matrix was used to analyze the data for hypotheses 1 through 4. A Multiple Regression Analysis was also used to measure the strength of a linear relationship.

**Variables**

The dependent variable was schools’ performance scores. School performance scores are based on the results from the statewide testing programs which use the LEAP, iLEAP, and LAA. These data were available from reports published by the Louisiana State Department of Education; thus, data from the 15 school districts were represented in this report. The independent variables were principal’s years of experience, school enrollment, and SES of students.
Procedural Details

1. A request was made to the Human Use Committee Review (see Appendix C) at Louisiana Tech University for approval to conduct the study.

2. The researcher sent a letter to each superintendent requesting permission for the district to participate in the study.

3. Upon consent, a cover letter to the principal explaining the purpose of the study, a copy of the Leadership Orientations Survey and a consent form was e-mailed. The principal was asked to complete the survey electronically within two weeks.

4. To increase response rate, two rounds of follow-up reminder e-mails was sent to participants.

5. Data from surveys were analyzed and prepared for use in the dissertation.

Summary

This chapter described the methodology used to test the hypotheses in the study.

This chapter included the research design, instrumentation, research questions, hypotheses, sample, data analysis, and procedural details.
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between and the impact of principals’ leadership styles on student achievement as determined by a school’s performance score. Quantitative data were gathered using Bolman and Deal’s Leadership Orientation Survey. The variables used in the study were the leadership style of the principal, years of experience, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and school performance scores.

The following research questions regarding principal leadership and school performance guided this study:

1. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Structural Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

2. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Human Resource Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

3. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Political Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?
4. Is there a significant relationship between a school’s performance score and the principal’s leadership practices based on the Symbolic Frame characteristics for both high and low SES schools?

5. Is there a relationship between leadership styles and different years of experience for principals for both high and low SES schools?

6. Is there a relationship between leadership styles for principals and size of schools for both high and low socioeconomic schools?

This chapter contains the analysis of the data collected from Bolman and Deal’s Leadership Orientation Survey and the Louisiana State Department of Education. All data were analyzed using the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 18.0 (SPSS)*.

**Descriptives**

The sample for this study consisted of 15 principals from low socioeconomic schools and 17 principals from high SES schools located in north and middle Louisiana. A request for permission to survey principals was mailed to each of the superintendents (see Appendix D). Superintendents from 15 districts gave their permission for their districts to participate, which contained the 32 schools, configured as pre-kindergarten through high school.

The 32 principals had years of experience ranging from 1 to 36. The mean years of experience was 8.2. The size of the schools in which they administered ranged from an enrollment of 50 students to 820 students.

When the results of the Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) Leadership Orientation Survey were compiled, the leadership styles were distributed primarily in only two categories, Human Resource Frame and the Structural Frame. The Human Resource
Frame had 18 principals and the Structural Frame had 12 principals. The Symbolic Frame had two principals and the Political Frame had none. This distribution of leadership styles was consistent with another study that ascertained that most school principals use the components of the Human Resource Frame and the components of the Structural Frame (Oliff, 2006).

The data in Table 1 show the distribution of SPS across the four leadership frames and whether the scores were from schools designated as high or low SES. The data also show the mean SPS scores for each leadership frame by SES status. As the Symbolic Frame had only one SPS score for each of the high and low SES categories and the Political Frame had none, those columns do not have a calculated mean. As is corroborated with previous research (Cheatham, 2010), the schools with high SES (larger percent of students on free and reduced lunch) have the lower SPS scores, with an average of 84.9. Likewise, the schools with low SES have the higher SPS scores, with an average of 97.9.

**Hypotheses**

Correlational matrices were developed and used to test Hypotheses 1-4. Years of experience, school enrollment, and the percentage of students on free and reduced lunches (SES) were the independent variables. School performance scores served as the dependent variable. These correlations for the 18 schools where the principals had the Human Resource Frame are shown in Table 2. Likewise, the correlations for the 12 schools where the principals had the Structural Leadership Frame are presented in Table 3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High SES</th>
<th>Low SES</th>
<th>High SES</th>
<th>Low SES</th>
<th>High SES</th>
<th>Low SES</th>
<th>High SES</th>
<th>Low SES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>91</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>84</td>
<td>108</td>
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<td>88</td>
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<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\bar{x} = 81.8 \quad \bar{x} = 97.7 \quad \bar{x} = 88.0 \quad \bar{x} = 97.0$

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between a school's performance score, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal's years of experience for principals having the Human Resource Frame leadership style. This hypothesis was rejected for the variable years of experience as the correlation coefficient was -$0.615$ between it and SPS. This correlation was significant at the $p \leq .01$ level (See Table 2).
Table 2

Correlations Among the Dependent and the Independent Variables for the Human Resource Frame for Principals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Yrs. Exp.</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>SPS</th>
<th>SES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.370</td>
<td>-.615**</td>
<td>-.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Enrollment</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.370</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Performance Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.615**</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td>.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.523</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomic Status</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.161</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td>.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>.523</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.070</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Table 3

*Correlations Among the Dependent and Independent Variables for the Structural Frame for Principals*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Yrs. Exp.</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>SPS</th>
<th>SES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>.573</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>-.162</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>-.257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Enrollment</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<td>-.065</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.756**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Performance Score</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.871</td>
<td>.842</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
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<td>N</td>
<td>.573</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socioeconomic Status</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-181</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.756**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Structural Frame leadership style. This hypothesis was rejected for the variable SES as the correlation coefficient was .756 between it and SPS. This correlation was significant at the \( p \leq .01 \) level (See Table 3).

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Political Frame leadership style. This hypothesis was not tested as none of the principals had this leadership style.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Symbolic Frame leadership style. This hypothesis could not be tested as well, since only two principals had this leadership style, and two is not a sufficient sample size for determining a correlation coefficient.

As an extension to the correlational analysis, a Multiple Regression analysis was conducted on the data from the 18 principals having a Human Resource Frame leadership style. As seen in Table 4, the Analysis of Regression ANOVA table shows that all of the independent variables contributed to the prediction of the SPS. The calculated F value of 4.718 was significant at the \( p \leq .05 \) level. The regression equation was

\[
\hat{Y} = -1,103 X_1 + .006 X_2 + 6.245 X_3 + 86.186
\]

where \( X_1 \) was the principal’s years of experience, \( X_2 \) was school enrollment, \( X_3 \) was socioeconomic status, and the constant was 86.186. The \( R^2 \) value of .503 suggests that 50.3% of the variance in the school performance scores can be attributed to the three independent variables in these 18 schools.
Table 4

**Analysis of Regression for the 18 Principals with Human Resource Frame Leadership Style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>907.429</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>302.476</td>
<td>4.718</td>
<td>.018&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>897.520</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>64.109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1804.949</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), SES, YRSEXP, School Enrollment
<sup>b</sup> Dependent Variable: Schperscore

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>86.186</td>
<td>7.101</td>
<td>12.137</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YRSEXP</td>
<td>-1.103</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>-.528</td>
<td>-2.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Enrollment</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>.457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>6.245</td>
<td>4.361</td>
<td>.304</td>
<td>1.432</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Dependent Variable: Schperscore

Similarly, a Multiple Regression Analysis was performed on the data from the 12 principals who identified with a Structural Frame leadership style. As shown in Table 5, the Analysis of Regression ANOVA table shows that the calculated F value of 3.916 was not quite large enough to be significant as the p value of .054 was not less than or equal to .05. It is noted, however; that the Beta coefficient of 16.444 for SES is significant and suggests the finding earlier of a significant correlation between SPS and SES.
Table 5

*Analysis of Regression for the 12 Principals with Structural Frame Leadership Style*

**ANOVA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>728.244</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>242.748</td>
<td>3.916</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>495.926</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61.991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1224.169</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), School Enrollment, YRSEXP, SES

b. Dependent Variable: Schperscore

**Coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>62.126</td>
<td>5.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>16.444</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YRSEXP</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>-.072</td>
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<tr>
<td>School Enrollment</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.130</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Schperscore

**Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R$ Square</th>
<th>Adjusted $R$ Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.771$^a$</td>
<td>.595</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>7.8734</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), School Enrollment, YRSEXP, SES
Bolman and Deal (1984; 2003) advocate the use of multiple frames to enhance leadership effectiveness. The results of this study indicated that the majority of the principals surveyed in north and middle Louisiana preferred the Human Resource Frame as their dominant mode of leadership style. As addressed in Chapter 2, the Human Leadership Resource Frame is based on ideas from psychology and suggests that administrators see an organization much like an extended family, made up of individuals with needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations (pp. 14-15). The second highest number of principals identified with the Structural Frame Leadership Style (n=12). Administrators operating from the Structural Frame would emphasize goals, specialized roles, and formal relationships.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a discussion and conclusions of the findings for the research hypotheses outlined in Chapter Four of this study. Chapter Five also provides recommendations for practitioners and suggestions for further research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between and the impact of principals’ leadership styles on student achievement as determined by school performance scores. Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four leadership frames (structural, human, political, and symbolic) were utilized to identify principals’ leadership styles. Slater et al., 2008 used Bolman and Deal’s (1984; 2003) four leadership frames model to assist them in examining the challenges presented by organizational change in a politically charged environment. The premise is that principals who understand these frames are better able to provide the type of leadership a particular school needs to improve the academic outcomes for students. This study investigated the following areas: (a) school performance scores; (b) principal’s years of experience; (c) school enrollment; and (d) SES of the school.
Analysis of Findings

The research design for this study was a bivariate correlational and a causal comparative design. A sample of 15 principals from low SES and 17 principals from high SES located in north and middle Louisiana was selected for use in this study. Schools were chosen using the Louisiana School Directory, which was based on grade configuration, pre-kindergarten through 12th grade. Approval for use of human subjects was granted by the Louisiana Tech Human Use Committee Review (see Appendix C).

Superintendents from 15 districts granted permission for their district to participate, which contained 32 schools, pre-kindergarten through high school (see Appendix D). A letter was e-mailed to each principal explaining the purpose of the study along with a copy of the Leadership Orientations Survey (see Appendix A). From the sample of the 40 schools, 32 principals returned their surveys, providing an 80% response rate. The Leadership Orientations Survey is divided into four sections: Section I (Leader Behaviors), Section II (Leadership Styles), Section III (Overall Rating), and Section IV (Background Information).

Research Hypotheses

The influence of principal’s leadership styles on student achievement was dependent on the following variables: the principal’s years of experience, school enrollment, SES of students and SPS. The research hypotheses in this study were investigated by using a Correlational analysis and a Multiple Regression analysis. The following research hypotheses were addressed in this study:
Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, socioeconomic status, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Human Resource Frame leadership style.

Of the three independent variables analyzed, years of experience, school enrollment, and socioeconomic status, this study found a statistical significant relationship between the years of experience for principals and school performance. The correlational coefficient between years of experience and school performance was -0.615. This indicated that principals with less experience tended to have higher SPS. As the years of experience for principals increased, their SPS tended to decrease, resulting in a negative relationship between these two variables. Unlike these findings, Power (2006) concluded that a positive relationship existed between a principal’s years of experience and the growth in student performance. In that study, the analysis of the data showed that, as the number of years of experience for a principal increased, there was a weak tendency for greater growth in student achievement. Upon further investigation, the results of the study yielded that while the number of years of experience for elementary principals increased, the same was not true for middle and high school principals. The study found no significant relationship between the number of years of experience of middle and high school principals and growth in student achievement.

Jackson (2004) also examined the relationship between a principal’s years of experience and its impact on student achievement. This research focused on collecting data on the success of North Carolina’s Accountability Model over a 3 year period in conjunction with the demographics of the principal, such as the number of years taught prior to becoming principals, subjects or grade levels taught, and the number of years in
their current position. This model was comprised of a high stakes testing component, incentives for employees, penalties, and a built-in reporting mechanism in regard to the states' performance toward meeting their goals. Principal’s terms of service of 3 to 12 years of service or greater served as the criteria for the sample in this study. In contrast to the results of this research, the researcher in this study concluded that number of years principals had been in their position was not linked to their school’s achievement on North Carolina ABCs Accountability Model, resulting in no relationship among the variables.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, SES, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Structural Frame leadership style. This hypothesis was rejected for the variable SES as the correlation coefficient was .756 between it and SPS.

In regard to the three independent variables analyzed, school enrollment, SES, and the principal’s year of experience, this study found a statistically significant relationship between SPS and SES. The Correlational Coefficient between SPS and SES was .756. This indicates that the principals of schools that have a higher number of students with free and reduced lunches lead from a Structural leadership style.

One of the components of No Child Left Behind focuses on meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) for subgroups. These subgroups include African American/Black, American Indian/Native Alaskan, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, White, students with disabilities, limited English proficiency, and economically disadvantaged (students eligible to receive free or reduced priced lunch). Principals must utilize effective leadership styles to ensure that the subgroups achieve academic success.
Based on the results of this study, the data revealed that these 12 principals surveyed in this study preferred a structural approach to leadership in meeting accountability mandates. The Structural Frame leadership style emphasizes goals, specialized roles, and formal relationships. Contrary to the results of this study, other current research studies indicate a different view of the leadership of the principal if they are to be held responsible for the academic performance of all students. For example, Gamble (2009) conducted a study to determine what principals' leadership styles were associated with student achievement in schools that met AYP as opposed to those that did not on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP). The researcher examined the leadership styles that were presumed to have an effect on student's test scores on the TCAP. The leadership styles were Transformational, Transactional, and Laissez-Faire. The sample for this study consisted of “20 high performing schools exceeding AYP benchmarks, 20 target schools showing improvement, and 20 high priority schools not meeting AYP standards” (Gamble, 2009, p.79). The results of this study indicated that in the 20 high performing and target schools, the principal's leadership style conducive to student achievement was transactional. Also, in the high priority schools, the survey indicated that the leadership style of the principal was transformational.

In 2009, Carnes conducted a study to determine what leadership practices of the principal contribute to the success of high-poverty/high performing schools. Based on the results of the data, the following themes emerged that were indicative of the positive behaviors of the principals that had an impact on student learning: School-Wide Positive Behavioral, Structured Communication, Diverse Learning Opportunities, Culture of
Collaboration, Caring Environment, School of Parent Engagement, and Financial Integrity.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, SES of students, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Political Frame leadership style. This hypothesis was not tested as none of the principals had this leadership style. This is consistent with other studies as very few principals identified with the Political Frame Leadership style.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between a school’s performance score, school enrollment, SES of students, and the principal’s years of experience for principals having the Symbolic Frame leadership style. This hypothesis could not be reported, as well, since only two principals had this leadership style, and two is not a sufficient sample size for determining a correlation coefficient. This is consistent with other studies as very few principals identified with the Symbolic Frame Leadership style.

As an extension to the correlational analysis, a Multiple Regression analysis was conducted on the data from the 18 principals having a Human Resource Frame leadership style. As was noted in Table 4, the Analysis of Regression ANOVA table showed that all of the independent variables contributed to the prediction of the school performance scores.

All three predictor variables in combination, SES, years of experience, and school enrollment were associated with principals that had the Human Resource Frame as their preferred leadership style. In addition, these predictor variables explained 50% of the variance associated with principals having the Human Resource Frame as their preferred leadership style.
Academic outcomes for students are influenced by many factors including the leadership of the principal. Conversely, the leadership of the principal is affected by demographic variables that can impact student growth. In this study it was found that the demographic variables SES, years of experience, and school enrollment contributed to the principals selecting the Human Resource Frame as their chosen leadership style. According to these results, it is evident that principals must adjust their leadership style(s) based on specific contextual factors that can enhance or hinder student growth. In agreement with these results of this study, Felton (2010) too concluded that principals who lead in schools characterized by demographic variables such as poverty, a culturally diverse student body and inadequate performance by subgroups on state tests, must exhibit different leadership practices if these barriers are to be counteracted. In Felton’s study, the following practices were examined: trustworthy, visionary, effective communicator, build relationships, change agent, shared leadership, stakeholder’s involvement, curriculum knowledge, assessment knowledge, professional development, and promote safe climate.

Based on the results of the survey, the average response of the teachers in low performing schools spanned from 3.3 to 4.1. The principals’ leadership practice that received the highest rating was professional development (provides ongoing professional development activities for teachers and other support staff that are consistent with the school’s goals for improved student achievement). The practice that received the lowest rating was promoting a safe climate (works diligently to provide a safe, positive and supporting learning and working environment for students and teachers). The average score for all of the other leadership practices was below 4.0. The results of the survey for
the teachers in the high performing schools indicated that the leadership practice of the principal that received the highest rating was trustworthiness (Builds trust through words, actions, listens to others, and seeks input from all stakeholders). The principals' ability in the high performing schools to exhibit leadership practices that go beyond the traditional roles led Fulton to conclude that principals in high performing schools had more impact on the academic achievement of students as opposed to those in low performing schools.

Likewise, Furda (2009) conducted a study to identify the leadership practices of principals in high performing and high poverty schools that have assisted them in closing the achievement gap between those students from low SES background and those that are not. The researcher in this study utilized Kouzes and Posner's (as cited in Furda, 2009) Leadership Profile Inventory to ascertain these behaviors. The inventory is comprised of the following areas: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the heart, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. The results of the inventory revealed that the leadership behaviors of the principals in high performing and high poverty schools were alike in the following approaches: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and challenging the process.

**Conclusions**

Since the passage of No Child Left Behind (Bush, 2001), there has been a necessity to identify the leadership behaviors of principals that are critical if students are to reach higher academic expectations. Often school demographics are the biggest challenge that principals face in meeting federal and state mandates. As a result, principals must be able to evaluate their leadership styles and adjust accordingly.
The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between and the impact of principals’ leadership styles on student achievement as determined by school performance scores. This study investigated the following areas: school performance scores, principal’s years of experience, school enrollment, and SES of the school. A correlational analysis showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between years of experience for principals and school performance. The principals with the lesser amount of experience tended to have higher school performance scores. Unlike this study, when these results were compared to another study, (Power, 2006) it was found that there was a weak tendency for growth in student achievement in elementary schools as the number of years for principals increased. This was not the case for middle school and high school principals, as no relationship was found between the number of years of experience and student achievement. Selecting the right principal is a serious responsibility and can be an enormous task for school systems. At times, the only candidates are those that have little or no experience in the field. According to this study, and the results of Power’s (2006) study involving middle and high school principals, hiring novice principals may not be a significant factor in the decision making process when tackling the task of searching for an effective principal.

A multiple regression analysis was also utilized to examine the data. All three predictor variables in combination, SES, years of experience, and school enrollment, were associated with principals that had the Human Resource Frame as their preferred leadership style. These contextual factors are no longer acceptable reasons for why students cannot achieve. Research suggested that principals utilize leadership practices
and behaviors that can be used to turn these factors into positive outcomes for students (Gamble, 2009; Carnes, 2009; Felton, 2010; & Furda, 2009).

Thus, principals must be knowledgeable as well as possess the leadership skills necessary to succeed in meeting state and federal initiatives. In addition, principals must be able to overcome barriers that impede school improvement and create a culture that is conducive to change.

**Implications for Practice**

Based on the findings pertaining to principals' leadership styles and the respective impact of leadership on SPS, the researcher offers the following recommendations for practice:

1. School districts should help principals identify their respective leadership styles. By knowing their leadership styles, principals may be better able to lead their schools from multiple perspectives.
2. Based on the data, school districts should provide continuous professional development for current leaders to engage in meaningful life learning opportunities that will keep abreast of emerging best leadership practices.
3. Principal preparation programs should be responsive to the research which suggests that prospective leaders acquire knowledge, skills, and internship experiences to be effective in a variety of school settings which reflect differing demographics and challenges.
4. School districts should require experienced principals to continually reflect on their practice, leadership style, and the impact of their leadership on student achievement.
5. Conduct a qualitative study to determine what motivating behaviors principals’ exhibit that lead to an increase in student achievement.

**Implications for Further Research**

Future researchers may consider the following recommendations:

1. Compare the leadership styles and school performance scores of newly appointed principals (those in their first or second year) and the leadership styles and school performance scores of more experienced principals (three or more years at the same school).

2. Expand the survey to include the responses of teachers, parents, and students when ascertaining the principal’s leadership style. This action may provide a more comprehensive view of the principal’s leadership practices.

3. Replicate this study in school districts in the southern portion of the state by increasing the number of high performing and low performing schools in these areas to further validate the findings of the study.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

LEE BOLMAN AND TERRENCE DEAL’S LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS INSTRUMENT
Leadership Orientation (Self)

The Leadership Orientation Survey (Bolman & Deal, 1984; 2003) contained in this packet is divided into five sections: Section I—Informed Consent Form, Section II—Leader Behaviors, Section III—Leadership Styles, Section IV—Overall Rating, and Section V—Background Information.
Leadership Orientations (Self)

1. Informed Consent Form

This survey is a part of a study on the relationship between principals' leadership styles and student achievement. Survey items ask for your opinion about your leadership behavior and leadership style.

Data collected in this study will be aggregated and will not report individual, school, or district responses.

Your participation in this study is anonymous. You will not be identified in any way. Please do not put your name in any of the comments on the survey.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are not required to participate. You may withdraw from this study at any time, and there will be no consequences.

By choosing to participate in this survey, you attest that you are 18 years old or older.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Louisiana Tech University Institutional Review Board at (318) 257-4609.

If you have any questions or concerns about the survey, please contact Rhonda Davis at (318) 292-4387 or (318) 557-4240 or Dr. Pauline Leonard at (318) 257-4609.

* 1. Please answer Yes to participate in the survey or No to decline.
   - [ ] Yes
   - [ ] No
# Leadership Orientations (Self)

## 2. Behaviors

This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style. You are asked to indicate how often each of the items below is true of you. Please use the following scale in answering each item: 1) Never 2) Occasionally 3) Sometimes 4) Often 5) Always.

So you would really answer '1' for an item that is never true of you, '2' for one that is occasionally true, '3' for one that is sometimes true of you, and so on.

Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Think very clearly and logically.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Show high levels of support and concern for others.</td>
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<td>3. Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.</td>
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<td>4. Inspire others to do their best.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.</td>
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<td>6. Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.</td>
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<td>7. Am very skillful and shrewd negotiator.</td>
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<td>8. Am highly charismatic.</td>
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<td>9. Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.</td>
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<td>10. Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.</td>
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<td>Leadership Orientations (Self)</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Am usually persuasive and influential.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Am able to be an inspiration to others.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<td>13. Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<td>15. Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
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<td>16. Am highly imaginative and creative.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Approach problems with facts and logic.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td>5 Always</td>
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<td>18. Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
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<td>20. Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
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<tr>
<td>21. Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td>22. Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people’s ideas and input.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
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<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
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<td>23. Am politically very sensitive and skillful.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td>Leadership Orientations (Self)</td>
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<td><strong>24. See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.</strong></td>
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<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
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<td><strong>25. Have extraordinary attention to detail.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<td><strong>26. Giver personal recognition for work well done.</strong></td>
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<td>1 Never</td>
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<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
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<td><strong>27. Develop alliance to build a strong base of support.</strong></td>
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<td>1 Never</td>
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<td><strong>28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.</strong></td>
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<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
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<td><strong>29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>30. Am a highly participative manager.</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Never</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Never</td>
<td>2 Occasionally</td>
<td>3 Sometimes</td>
<td>4 Often</td>
<td>5 Always</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Leadership Orientations (Self)

#### 3. Leadership Style

This section asks you to describe your leadership style. For each item, give the number "4" to the phrase that best describes you, "3" to the item that is next best, and on down to "1" for the item that is least like you.

1. **My strongest skills are:**
   - ( ) a Analytic skills
   - ( ) b Interpersonal skills
   - ( ) c Political skills
   - ( ) d Ability to excite and motivate

2. **The best way to describe me is:**
   - ( ) a Technical expert
   - ( ) b Good listener
   - ( ) c Skilled negotiator
   - ( ) d Inspirational leader

3. **What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:**
   - ( ) a Make good decisions
   - ( ) b Coach and develop people
   - ( ) c Build strong alliances and a power base
   - ( ) d Energize and inspire others

4. **What people are most likely to notice about me is my:**
   - ( ) a Attention to detail
   - ( ) b Concern for people
   - ( ) c Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition
   - ( ) c Charm

5. **My most important leadership trait:**
   - ( ) a Clear, logical thinking
   - ( ) b Caring and support for others
   - ( ) c Toughness and aggressiveness
   - ( ) d Imagination and creativity
6. I am best described as:

- A. An analyst
- B. A humanist
- C. A politician
- D. A visionary
Leadership Orientations (Self)

4. Overall Rating

Compared to other individuals that you have known with comparable levels of experience and responsibility, how would you rate yourself on:

1. Overall effectiveness as a manager.
   ○ 1 Bottom 20% ○ 2 ○ 3 Middle 20% ○ 4 ○ 5 Top 20%

2. Overall effectiveness as a leader.
   ○ 1 Bottom 20% ○ 2 ○ 3 Middle 20% ○ 4 ○ 5 Top 20%
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Leadership Orientations (Self)</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Background Information</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Are you male or female?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- [ ] Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- [ ] Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How many years have you been in your current job, including this year? Please round your answer to a whole number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>______________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How many students attend your school? Please answer with a whole number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>______________________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY
Dear Ms. Davis,

I am pleased to write to indicate that you have permission to use Bolman & Deal's Leadership Orientations instruments in your doctoral research.

Best wishes in your study.

Lee G. Bolman
Marion Bloch/Missouri Chair in Leadership
Bloch School of Business and Public Administration
University of Missouri-Kansas City
5100 Rockhill Road
Kansas City, MO 64110

Tel: (816) 235-5407
Fax (816) 235-6529
Email: bolmanl@umkc.edu

--- Original Message ---
From: Rhonda Davis [mailto:rhodavis@nls.k12.la.us]
To: Lee Bolman
Subject: Re: Permission to use Bolman's and Deal's Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument for Research

Dr. Bolman,

I agree to adhere to the following conditions in utilizing the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument:

1. I agree to provide a copy of any reports, publications, papers, thesis resulting from the research.

2. I promise to provide copy of the data file from the research if requested.

Rhonda Davis
From: Lee Bolman  
To: 'Rhonda Davis'  
Sent: Wednesday, October 13, 2004 11:28 AM  
Subject: RE: Permission to use Bolman's and Deal's Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument for Research

Rhonda,

Sorry I didn't get to you last night.

To get permission, you simply need to send a letter (or email) indicating that you agree to the conditions we specify on my web site, namely:

1) The researcher agrees to provide us with a copy of any reports, publications, papers or theses resulting from the research.

2) The researcher also promises to provide, if we request it, a copy of the data file from the research.

The instruments themselves are also on my web site at:

http://bloch.umkc.edu/classes/bolman/new_page_1.htm

(In the section "Using the instruments," there are links to both the Self and Other version of the instruments.)

Let me know if you have further questions.

Lee G. Bolman  
Marion Bloch/Missouri Chair in Leadership  
Bloch School of Business and Public Administration  
University of Missouri-Kansas City  
5100 Rockhill Road  
Kansas City, MO 64110

Tel: (816) 235-5407  
Fax: (816) 235-6529  
Email: bolmanl@umkc.edu

---

From: Rhonda Davis [mailto:rhdavis@nls.k12.la.us]  
Sent: Wednesday, October 13, 2004 7:28 AM  
To: bolmanl@umkc.edu  
Subject: Permission to use Bolman's and Deal's Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument for Research

Dear Mr. Bolman

I am a student at Louisiana Tech University in Ruston, Louisiana. I currently working on a doctoral degree in Educational Leadership. My research question for my study is "Does the Leadership Style of the Principal Affect School Performance Scores?" My major professor and I were looking at your survey and would like to use it to get the information that I need to measure the leadership perceptions of the principal as perceived by his/her staff. I read your criteria for requesting permission to use your instrument but was unable to find the necessary forms to attain permission as well as how to get a copy of the instrument. Please e-mail me as soon as you can at the following address: rhdavis@nls.k12.la.us. I can be reached at home at the following number: (318) 292-4387. My work number is (318) 368-9715 Ext.132.

4/5/2005
From: "Lee Bolman" <bolmanl@umkc.edu>
To: <rhdavis@nls.k12.la.us>
Sent: Monday, April 04, 2005 2:10 PM
Subject: FW: Permission to use Bolman's and Deal's Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument for Research

Dear Ms. Davis:

I am pleased to write to indicate that you have permission to use Bolman & Deal's Leadership Orientations instruments in your doctoral research.

Best wishes in your study.

Lee G. Bolman
Marion Bloch/Missouri Chair in Leadership
Bloch School of Business and Public Administration
University of Missouri-Kansas City
5100 Rockhill Road
Kansas City, MO 64110

Tel. (816) 235-5407
Fax: (816) 235-6529
Email: bolmanl@umkc.edu

From: Rhonda Davis [mailto:rhdavis@nls.k12.la.us]
Sent: Thursday, October 14, 2004 8:45 AM
To: Lee Bolman
Subject: Re: Permission to use Bolman's and Deal's Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument for Research

Dr. Bolman,

I agree to adhere to the following conditions in utilizing the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation Survey Instrument:

1. I agree to provide a copy of any reports, publications, papers, thesis resulting from the research.

2. I promise to provide copy of the data file from the research if requested.

Rhonda Davis

Original Message

4/5/2005
APPENDIX C

HUMAN SUBJECTS CONSENT FORM
TO: Dr. Pauline Leonard and Ms. Rhonda Davis  
FROM: Barbara Talbot, University Research  
SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW  
DATE: June 15, 2010  

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"The Effect of Leadership Orientations on Student Achievement"

# HUC-779  

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. This approval was finalized on June 10, 2010 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond June 10, 2011. Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-4315.
Dear Superintendent:

My name is Rhonda Davis. I am currently a doctoral student in the Louisiana Education Consortium at Louisiana Tech University. As a partial requirement in the Educational Leadership Program, I am conducting research on the relationship between principals’ leadership styles and student achievement.

This letter serves as an official request to conduct a research study in your school district. Data for the study will be collected in the form of an electronic survey. Surveys will be distributed to each principal in your school district in grades Pre-K through 12th grade. Every effort will be made to guarantee the anonymity of all participants. Principals in participating schools may receive a summary of the results of the study upon request to share with teachers and other stakeholders.

Thank you in advance for your consideration in this matter. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me by phone at 318-368-9715 or by e-mail at davisr@unionpsd.org. Also, if you have any questions or concerns, you may contact my major professor, Dr. Pauline Leonard, Department Head, College of Education, Louisiana Tech University. She can be reached at 318-257-4609. Enclosed is a self-addressed stamped postcard. Please mark your permission, or not, on the back of the postcard and put it in the mail to me. Please sign your name below your selection and return to me by ________________.

Sincerely,

Rhonda Davis
__________I do wish to for my parish
to participate in the survey

__________I do not wish to for my parish
to participate in the survey

________________________
Name of School District
Dear Principal:

My name is Rhonda Davis. I am currently a doctoral student in the Louisiana Education Consortium at Louisiana Tech University. As a part of my doctoral requirements, I am conducting research on the relationship between principals’ leadership styles and student achievement. I have received permission from Superintendent to conduct research in the School District.

The results of this study will be useful in school and district reform efforts. Every effort will be made to guarantee the anonymity of all participants. If you decide to participate, results will be made available upon request to share with teachers and other stakeholders.

Your participation is voluntary. Below you will find a link to an electronic survey for you to complete. I am asking that the survey be completed within two weeks of your receiving it. I realize that your time is of great value and sincerely appreciate your prompt attention and your earnest cooperation in this endeavor.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me by phone at 318-368-9715 ext 129 or by e-mail at davisr@unionpsd.org. Also, you may contact my major professor, Dr. Pauline Leonard, Department Head, College of Education, Louisiana Tech University. She can be reached at 318-257-4609. Please click on the survey link below to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Rhonda Davis

Survey Link