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The University of Southern Mississippi

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP
AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

by

Hope Owens Beaver

Abstract of a Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
of the University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

May 2011

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

by Hope Owens Beaver

May 2011

The study of leadership has been one of great interest for many years and many leadership theories have since surfaced. Bolman and Deal's (1991) situational leadership theory places leadership styles into four unique frames and suggests that the most effective leaders are able to utilize the most appropriate leadership frame that a situation might require. This study investigates these situational leadership frames which are structural, political, human resource, and symbolic and the relationship they may have with student achievement based on school performance labels given by the Mississippi State Department of Education.

The study was conducted in two months and involved 126 elementary school principals from the state of Mississippi whose schools participate in annual state testing known as the Mississippi Curriculum Test, second edition (MCT II). Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) tests were conducted to identify statistically significant relationships between situational leadership frames used by elementary school principals and the school performance label their schools earned on MCT II testing in 2009. Schools are classified with seven different performance labels from top ranked down: star school, high performing school, successful school, academic watch school, low performing school, at-risk of failing school, and failing school.

The results of this study revealed that no significant relationship existed between a particular frame from Bolman and Deal's situational leadership frames and student achievement within this particular group of elementary school principals in Mississippi. The study also revealed that no significant relationship existed between a combination of frames from Bolman and Deal's situational leadership frames and student achievement within this particular group of elementary school principals in Mississippi.

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A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter I begins with an overview of principals and the roles they play in schools, accountability in today's schools, and a brief discussion of leadership styles. The purpose of the study and the research questions analyzed are presented, followed by definitions of terms used. Next, limitations, delimitations, and assumptions made by the researcher are stated. Lastly, a justification for the study is presented.

Principals' Roles

Principals no longer spend their work hours solely on discipline, scheduling, and chaperoning school events; what is expected from these school leaders has changed (Johnson, 2008). At the present, a principal is looked upon as the instructional leader whose job now includes selecting, managing, motivating, and evaluating his or her teachers (Johnson). Sergiovanni (1994) stated that for a school to become a true purposeful community, the leadership must not exhibit "power over" others but "power through" them (p. xix). Howard (2005) stated that the type of leadership style exhibited by the leader of any school or any other organization will have a direct impact on the people, the tasks, and the environment being lead.

Accountability

Leech and Fulton (2008) reported "the demand for improved educational productivity has marked the foundation of the educational reform and restructuring movement of the past two decades" (p. 631). The Obama administration has recently proposed changes to the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), although Congress has been unable to agree upon policy changes concerning this act for several years now (Dillon,

2010). Dillon stated that NCLB requires schools to make *adequate yearly progress* (AYP), and schools that fail to meet this AYP in their student test scores must offer students free tutoring after school and offer the students the opportunity to transfer to other schools. Schools that fail to meet AYP the following year may face employee dismissals and/or school closings; in addition, the law requires all students to be proficient in reading and mathematics by 2014 (Dillon). This movement has pressured principals to improve student performance in their schools, and as a result, has seemingly forced principals from their administrative duties into becoming more enveloped with assessment, curriculum, instruction, and data analysis (Butler, 2008).

Public demand for more effective schools has placed increased attention on the role of school leaders, a group that has been overlooked by the education reform movement for the past two decades (LaPointe & Davis, 2006). LaPointe and Davis state that at last policy makers are realizing what school administrators have known for quite some time: that effective schools need both good teachers and strong leaders. Daugherty, Kelley, and Thornton (2005) reported “over-managed and under-led organizations” eventually lose their sense of purpose, and poorly managed organizations with strong, appealing leaders may do well for only a short period of time (p. 17).

Leadership Styles

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004) reported that effective school leadership has the potential to increase student achievement substantially. Today’s principal is the school’s instructional leader, and he or she has the responsibility to assess teaching strengths and weaknesses by visiting classrooms and offering feedback to help his or her teachers to become more effective at helping students learn (Johnson, 2008). Waters,

Marzano, and McNulty (2003) summarized 30 years of research and found that depending on leadership style and how much power is shared with the school's teachers, principals can have either negative or positive impacts on student achievement.

In 1990, Bass stated that the study of leadership has been around since the emergence of civilization. There are many styles of leadership including pacesetter, visionary, coaching, democratic, commanding, affiliative, laissez-faire, and situational. The situational leadership theory, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, identifies four basic leadership styles: directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Bolman and Deal's (1991) model of situational leadership is a four-framework approach that suggests that leaders can be put into one of those categories at times when appropriate.

The frames for Bolman and Deal's (1991) situational leadership model are political, human resource, structural and symbolic. The political frame has leaders who are advocates for the group and their ideas and are able to negotiate for what is wanted by using political skills. The human resource frame has leaders who value relationships, feelings, and empowerment. Leaders from the structural frame set clear directions for members, hold others accountable for results, and focus on organizational betterment through policies, rules, and/or restructuring efforts. Leaders from the symbolic frame use ritual, ceremony, and story to increase enthusiasm and commitment from others. Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest that relying on one approach all the time is not the best practice, rather leaders should be aware of all four frameworks and not be dependent on only one or two.

Purpose of the Study

Student achievement and accountability in the school system continue to be topics of concern in today's society. School leaders, i.e., principals, should possess the leadership skills necessary to appropriately manage and lead their schools to success. Therefore, examining the leadership styles of principals is important. The results of this study may be of interest to policymakers and to school administrators in their quest to improve student achievement by determining if leadership style, situational leadership style in this instance, has an impact on student achievement and if a combination of frames within that situational style works better than others. The researcher explored the self-perception of leaders in elementary schools to determine which situational frame or combination of frames the principals seem to use most often. For the purpose of this study, the researcher analyzed student achievement in elementary schools by way of state testing scores.

Research Questions

This study examined the following research questions.

1. Is there a relationship between a particular framework in the situational leadership style and student achievement?
2. Is there a relationship between a combination of frameworks in the situational leadership style and student achievement?

Hypothesis

The hypothesis formulated for this study was:

H₁: There is a relationship between situational leadership style and student achievement.

Definition of Terms

Academic Growth Model – the actual achievement of a school or district compared to the expected achievement, based on a regression expectation which is performed by comparing the actual and predicted values results in a residual value (Mississippi Department of Education, 2005).

Bolman and Deal's Situational Leadership Model – a four-frame approach to management suggesting that leaders can be placed into one of four categories based on personal characteristics they exhibit. The categories, called frames, are: political, human resource, structural, and symbolic (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Elementary school – a school that has students in grades pre-kindergarten through six.

Human resource frame – one of Bolman and Deal's situational leadership frames. This frame views the organization as an extended family that has individuals with needs and capacity to learn (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Mississippi Curriculum Test – a test given yearly to Mississippi students in grades three through eight to measure student achievement in language arts and mathematics (Mississippi Department of Education, 2009).

Performance labels – labels assigned to individual schools in Mississippi based on student achievement scores and academic growth. From highest to lowest rank they

are: star school, high performing, successful, academic watch, low performing, at-risk of failing, failing (Mississippi Department of Education, 2009).

Political frame – one of Bolman and Deal’s situational leadership frames. This frame views the organization as containing those who have different interests competing for power and resources. Conflict is expected and necessary (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

School leader – the principal, assistant principal or administrator of a school.

Structural frame – one of Bolman and Deal’s situational leadership frames. This frame emphasizes goals and formal relationships. Rules, policy, and procedure are strictly followed (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Student achievement – a level of academic proficiency acquired by students. In the state of Mississippi, this achievement is calculated using a state-level proficiency testing method in the areas of language arts and mathematics (Mississippi Department of Education, 2009).

Symbolic frame – one of Bolman and Deal’s situational leadership frames. This frame is based on the culture of an organization. The leader often uses ritual, ceremony, stories, and myths in his or her leadership techniques (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Delimitations

Delimitations for this study included the fact that the study focused only on elementary schools in one particular southern state. The questionnaire included only principals of those schools. The questionnaire was sent to four hundred principals. The questionnaire depended solely on the self-perception of the participant.

Assumptions

The researcher for this study assumed that since respondents were self-reporting they would answer the questionnaires honestly. The researcher for this study also assumed that the respondents would follow the prescribed instructions for answering the questionnaires.

Justification

High stakes accountability for schools by way of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), which is federal legislation, continues pressure schools and school districts to ensure that their students are achieving. Recent changes to NCLB by the Obama administration call for changes in how schools will be viewed as succeeding or failing in addition to the elimination of the 2014 deadline for proficiency for all students (Dillon, 2010). The new goal is for all students to leave high school “career or college ready.” The new system also divides schools into more categories, recognizes succeeding schools, and provides funding to help with improvements to or to with closings of failing schools.

Research has proven that effective school leadership has the potential to increase student achievement substantially (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2004). Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) analyzed over 30 years of research that examined leadership and its effects on student achievement. They identified 21 leadership responsibilities that are associated with student achievement. Waters et al also found that leadership style along with the sharing of power with the school’s teachers, can produce either negative or positive effects on student achievement. Therefore, this study may be

beneficial in determining which situational framework or combination of frameworks is demonstrated by leaders of schools with successful student achievement.

Along with the pressures brought forth by NCLB, the effective principal must also be able to demonstrate behaviors and attitudes that make his or her teachers feel respected, valued, and empowered because when these things occur, there is a higher level of commitment to the school, less staff turnover, and increased stability which may factor in increased student achievement (Richards, 2007). Principals who are able to instill high levels of trust between the school professionals and parents, teachers and principal, and among the teachers themselves are three times more likely to improve test scores in reading and mathematics (Vodicka, 2006).

With the renewed focus on accountability from schools by using student achievement scores, it is imperative to have leaders who are able to produce results in the test results of the students who attend their schools. Research has shown that school leaders do have the ability to increase student achievement in the way that they lead and manage others. Bolman and Deal (1991) state that effective leaders have the ability to use four different frames or lenses to interpret what is happening around them, to decide what needs to be done, and to interpret the results of their actions. The four frames that Bolman and Deal discuss in their situational leadership style are political, structural, symbolic, and human resources.

Summary

Chapter I began with an overview of principals and the roles they play in schools, accountability in today's schools, and a brief discussion of leadership styles. Next, a summary of the purpose of the study and research questions and hypotheses were posed.

Definitions of specific terms needed for reader clarity followed. Delimitations, limitations, and assumptions of the study were provided to the reader. Lastly, a justification for the study was discussed.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this review is to examine the literature and research relevant to the relationship that exists between student achievement and leadership styles demonstrated by school principals. This review begins with an overview of the history of leadership and leadership theories followed by an examination of leadership styles. Next, qualities of successful instructional leaders are explored followed by difficult principal leadership styles. Discussion of effective schools and effective principals including the role of professional development is examined subsequently along with a discussion on balanced leadership. Lastly, accountability in the school system and student achievement are briefly explored.

Theoretical Framework

Simply defined, leadership is the office or position of a leader, the capacity to lead, and the act or instance of leading (Merriam-Webster, 2010). Hogan and Kaiser (2005) defined leadership as the capability to effectively build and support a particular group while being evaluated by the success of that group over a period of time; leadership is said to solve the issue of collective efforts. There are three implications associated with this view according to Kaiser et al. (2008): leadership is comprised of influencing others who are willing to add to the good of the group, leadership requires coordinating and guiding the group to attain its goals, and goals will vary from group to group. History, claims Van Vugt (2006), is full of examples of persons who have taken control of a group and lead it often with much adversity to a more positive place;

examples include military leader Alexander the Great, political leader Roosevelt, revolutionary leader Ghandi, business leader Ford, and religious leader Jesus.

The “great man” theory is likely to be the first documented theory in leadership history (Gehring, 2007). This theory, according to Gehring, contained the notion that leaders were in possession of greater abilities to lead others due to preferred intelligence, appearance and/or values. Leaders were thought to be born and to naturally possess certain characteristics (Knab, 2009). Short and Greer (2002) reported that the “great man” theory was a result of studies of biographies and descriptions of men known as great military, political, and/or industrial leaders, and it was thought that by studying these particular men and their traits that it would be conceivable to identify qualities that leaders should possess.

The “great man” theory expanded into the trait approach early in the 20th century and was used in regard to personal characteristics including capacity, action, and motive (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Stogdill categorized leadership traits of successful leaders into six categories: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation (Bass, 1990). The trait approach was found to have two major criticisms, according to Short and Greer (2002). The authors contend that traits favorable in one situation might not transfer as favorable in another, and in addition, the scientists involved in the observations might show bias (Short & Greer).

During the 1950s and 1960s, Stogdill and other researchers studied leadership as a behavior but were unable to determine which behavior patterns exhibited by leaders had the most effect on the leaders’ respected groups (Schultz, 2001). The behavioral approach theory was a result of Ohio State University researchers in the 1950s whose

research was conducted in a variety of settings using an instrument now known as the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Short & Greer, 2002). The LBDQ, according to the authors, is still widely used today in both its original and modified versions as the primary instrument for gathering data concerning leadership behavior from members of a particular group.

The contingency theory of leadership is based on the premise that an effective leader demonstrates behavior that is “contingent” on a particular situation at a given time (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Stogdill (1974) stated that the contingency theories emerged from findings in previous research that produced conflicting results in linking leadership traits to performance. Fiedler and his associates are credited with much of the development of this theory, and Fiedler (1969) stated that it is impossible for a leader to change his or her style, rather it is more beneficial to place the leader in an area where his or her personality equals the given situation.

Evans and House developed the path-goal theory that branched from the contingency theory model; this theory is based on the relationship that occurs between leadership behavior and follower motivation, satisfaction, performance, and effort along with the work environment (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). The authors state that four types of leadership behaviors exist in this model: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. Knab (2009) states that with this theory leaders will prove themselves to be more effective when they make known what is expected from their followers in order to obtain or increase personal rewards. Path-goal theory views leader behavior as flexible in varied situations (Lunenburg & Ornstein).

Burns (1978) stated in his book, *Leadership*, that “transactional leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another,” and the transformational leader “looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower” (p. 4). Transformational leadership, according to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004), is leadership that focuses on the impact a leader has on his or her organization; the authors state that this leadership theory is very rare when compared with other leadership theories in the literature. Ruggieri (2009) found that the transformational style is more satisfying than the transactional style, and the transformational leader tends to be judged more positively than the transactional leader.

Distributed leadership is sometimes called shared leadership, team leadership, or democratic leadership and is, according to Spillane (2005), most about leadership practice rather than leaders, their roles, functions, or routines. Distributed leadership occurs when all members are fully engaged and are able to guide other members as needed to increase the potential efforts of the team as a whole group, and shared leadership can be viewed by others as a product of empowerment in teams (Pearce, 2004). Flessa (2009) stated that the literature both promotes and criticizes distributed leadership: some researchers claim that leadership is always distributed some way within an organization, and some researchers state that distributed leadership is said to be something that school personnel should want more of and policy makers should promote.

There are two types of motivational theories: content and process; the content theories have a concern with identifying specific factors that motivate people, and process theories are concerned with the process that motivational factors interact to produce motivation (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Maslow’s need hierarchy theory is

one of the best known and widely used in the content motivational theory (Lunenburg & Ornstein). Maslow identified five basic groups of human needs that come about in a specific order or hierarchy of importance: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1970). Other content theories include Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Alderfer's existence relatedness growth theory. Herzberg's theory built upon Maslow's and focused attention on the work environment and factors that contributed to people's attitudes about their work (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1993). Alderfer (1972), in the existence relatedness growth theory, stated that there are three broad categories of needs and that existence, relatedness needs, and growth needs determine employee motivation.

Expectancy theory, equity theory, and goal-setting theory are three major process theories in motivational theory. Vroom's (1994) expectancy theory is based on four assumptions: that people join organizations with expectations about their needs, motivation, and experiences, that behavior is a conscious choice, that people want different things from an organization, and that people make choices based on what is best for themselves. The equity theory affirms that people expect the ratio of their outcomes from an organization to be equal with the inputs to the organization (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1994). Edwin Locke has contributed with much of the development of the goal-setting theory. Some of his contributions include: difficult goals lead to high task performance than easier goals, special goals lead to high performance than general ones, feedback is necessary for goal setting to work, and individual differences are not related to goal-setting performance (Locke & Latham, 1995).

The situational leadership theory, developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, identifies four basic leadership styles: directing, coaching, supporting, and delegating, and suggests that those in leadership roles should consider under what circumstance each style might be effective (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). The model consists of four areas: one side contains high and low relationship behaviors and the other side contains high and low task behaviors; Hersey and Blanchard included maturity factors such as job maturity and psychological maturity of the followers in their model stating that maturity is task specific (Lunenburg & Ornstein). Critics of the situational theory argue that leader characteristics are irrelevant because (a) leaders have very little power, (b) those in leadership positions have endured screening during the hiring process that will decrease their differences, and (c) any remaining differences will become overwhelming to those in a position of power (Vroom & Jago, 2007). According to Vroom and Jago, most leaders are not just “figureheads,” any selection process will not entirely eliminate individual differences, and challenges are full of ambiguity leaving room for interpretation thus making the above assumptions mostly invalid.

Bolman and Deal’s (1991) model of situational leadership is a four-frame approach suggesting that leaders can be put into one of those categories, and there are times when one approach is more appropriate than another. The categories are political, human resource, structural and symbolic; the authors suggest that relying on one approach is not the best idea, that leaders should be aware of all four frameworks and not be dependent on only one or two (Bolman & Deal). Bolman and Deal say that organizations that are over-managed but under-led lose their sense of purpose and those with overly charismatic leaders may succeed for a short period of time but fail soon after;

today's organizations "require the objective perspective of the manager as well as the brilliant flashes of vision and commitment that wise leadership provides" (pp. xiii-xiv). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2004) wrote that Bolman and Deal's ideas on organizations have been studied by many of the social sciences including sociology, psychology, anthropology, and political science.

Bolman and Deal believe that leaders are at their most effective when they view their perspective organizations from all four frames; the ability to "reframe" issues from different perspectives allows leaders to view issues more thoroughly (Schmidt & Akdere, 2007). A frame, according to the Bolman and Deal (2008), is a "set of ideas and assumptions that is carried with a person to help with understanding and negotiating a particular territory" (p. 11). Bolman and Deal's political frame can be viewed as the ability to work along with the existing power structures, the human resource frame is viewed as believing in others in the organization, the structural frame is the capacity to build effective organizational structure, and the symbolic frame is forming a vision for the members to follow (Dollarhide, Gibson, & Saginak, 2008).

Balanced Leadership

Bolman and Deal's (2008) model suggests that leaders can be placed into one of the four categories and certain times call for certain leadership characteristics; leaders should strive to rely on all four frames because relying on just one would make the leader ineffective. Clark (2010) stated that, for example, during organizational change, the structural style would be more effective, and during times when growth is needed, the symbolic style may be more appropriate. The political approach is appropriate when resources are scarce, the human resource approach is appropriate when morale is low, the

structural approach is appropriate when there is low uncertainty, little conflict, and stable authority, and the symbolic approach is appropriate when the goals and issues are unclear or where cause-effect relations are poorly understood (Sutton, 2010).

Leadership Styles

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2004, 2002) identified six common leadership styles and defined how each influences an organization's culture. These six common leadership styles are: visionary, coaching, democratic, affiliative, pacesetter, and commanding. Pacesetter and commanding, the two leadership styles most closely linked with a traditional model, are the least effective in positively leading others except in certain circumstances such as life-threatening situations (Blankenstein, 2010).

The visionary leader, called authoritative by some, gathers others toward a common vision (Fullan, 2001). The visionary leader is an inspiration to others, gives frequent feedback and suggestions for improvement, and leads others toward a shared goal (Goleman et al., 2002, 2004). A visionary leader has the ability to form ideas for new approaches to problems and to inspire others to join in; the visionary leader ensures that those around him or her know which direction the organization is heading (Ibarra and Obodaru, 2009). The visionary style is authoritative in nature, but rather than simply telling others what to do, the leader has the capability to earn the support of his or her followers by stating challenges and responsibilities in a clear manner in relation to organizational improvement (Spreier, Fontaine, & Malloy, 2006). Charismatic leaders are very similar to visionary leaders, and often when thinking of visionary leaders, one may envision charismatic leaders who through their passion, abilities to speak well, and

persuasive techniques are able to convince others to believe in and take part in some sort of progressive change (Sosik & Dinger, 2007).

The leader cultivates people for the future with the coaching leadership style (Fullan, 2001). Goleman et al. (2002, 2004) state that the coaching leader works with followers to help them learn personal ambitions and provides feedback to them on a regular basis while working with them in activities toward those goals. This particular style of leading others can be effective when the followers have adequate motivation but less than average ability (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). This leader has the ability to connect what a follower might want with the goals of the organization, and this style is appropriate as a leadership style when the goal is to help the employee improve his or her performance by increasing capabilities (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

The affiliative leader uses enjoyment to build relationships with followers and to increase harmony in the group (Goleman, 2006). The affiliative leader, according to Fullan (2001) has a “people come first” way of thinking according to Fullan (p. 5). This leadership style is effective in motivating others during stressful situations, in repairing relations between others in the group, or in building connections with one another (Goleman et al., 2002). Goleman (2006) states that the affiliative leader who relies solely on “being nice,” however, may fail in demonstrating his or her vision to others or may face other problems (p. 79).

The democratic leader asks others for their own opinions and is able to produce agreement through participation by all (Fullan, 2001). The democratic leader obtains buy-in from others by getting their input, by listening to them, and by using what others know to make the best decisions possible (Goleman, 2006). Goleman et al. (2002) stated

that the democratic leadership style is appropriate to use when buy-in from others is needed, to gain consensus among the group, or when obtaining employee input is needed. This leadership style engages people and encourages them to participate; though, decisions can be put off due to ongoing discussions with those involved (Greenfield, 2007).

The pacesetter leadership style is one that accentuates high standards of improvement and encourages others to better themselves (Greenfield, 2007). The pacesetter leader states Goleman (2006) exhibits a “hard-driving” example and has expectations that others meet the same requirements (p. 78). This leadership style focuses on achievement in the workplace, initiative, and conscientiousness; it also has a negative impact on the climate of the workplace (Arond-Thomas, 2004). The pacesetter leadership style is often executed poorly resulting in a highly negative atmosphere in the workplace, but it can be appropriate when used to obtain high-quality results from workers who are competent and motivated (Goleman et al., 2002). High standards of performance emphasized by the leader direct others to improve upon themselves but can be overwhelming for many (Greenfield, 2007).

Servant leadership as a style is most influential within the Christian community, but some leading writers in the business management field also endorse this leadership style including Ken Blanchard, Max DePree, and Warren Bennis (Wong & Davey, 2007). Miller (1995) stated that the personal work and life of a servant leader must be self-scrutinized constructively, and Greenleaf (1970) reported that the leader must possess a clear vision and be willing to serve so that others are drawn to him. The main idea of

servant leadership, according to Lucaschi-Decker and Bocarnea (2007), is that the leader is first a servant to others; by focusing on others' priority needs.

The demanding leadership style, sometimes called directive, authoritarian or commanding, is often favored by those who are stressed or who are high achievers (Spreier et al, 2006). With this leadership style, the leader demands compliance; the followers are to do as told (Fullan, 2001). These leaders originally were described as those who used power, force, or persuasion to lead others (Jogulu & Wood, 2006). The commanding leader is able to calm the fears of others by giving clear direction in case of emergencies, but this style is often misused and tends to have a negative impact on the climate of the organization (Goleman et al, 2002). This is a top-down approach to management, and it is directive and demands compliance from others (Greenfield, 2007).

The laissez-faire leader gives the group complete freedom to make decisions; in other words, the leader provides no leadership (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Bass (1990) reported that laissez-faire leaders were viewed as having less confidence in their abilities to lead others and therefore avoided supervisory duties altogether. This leadership style is seen as an absence or avoidance of leadership responsibilities (Eid, Johnsen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2008).

Vroom and Jago (2007) stated that leadership depends on the situation. Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) situational leadership style consists of telling, selling, participating, and delegating and are utilized by the leader based on a particular situation (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004). Bass (1990) stated that the situation determines the leadership style or behavior. Bolman and Deal's (2008) approach to situational leadership includes a four-framework approach that includes political, human resources,

structural and symbolic categories relying on all four approaches and by using the most appropriate approach that the situation requires.

The Instructional Leader

Some time ago, training to become a school principal involved simply taking a few education courses at a university on law, finance, and theory while still working as a teacher followed by perhaps shadowing a principal and then applying for a position in administration (Olson, 2007). Now, according to Olson, training to become a school principal consists of courses of study in a predetermined order, seminars for instruction, professional development, and school improvement strategies, and earlier field experiences with the school districts taking a more significant role in forming their own leaders. Focus on preparation programs and professional development for principals has grown rapidly indicating a paradigm shift in what is viewed as the role of the principal, and principals must now be prepared to be both the instructional leader and the building manager (LaPointe & Davis, 2006). Most of the shift is directly correlated with the accountability movement, notably NCLB from 2001, and has placed more pressure on principals to improve academic performance which in turn resulted in principals moving from their administrative roles into assessment, instruction, curriculum, and analysis (Butler, 2008).

A University of Maryland research study described by Bess Keller showed that the leadership style of the principal affected student and school success, and those principals who were more managers than instructional leaders had less successful schools (Sherman, 2000). Research from Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) found that administrators can have either negative or positive effects on student success depending

on their style of leadership. In a study by Gentilucci and Muto (2007), students identified principal approachability, interactive classroom observation/visits, and instructional leadership behaviors as direct and extremely influencing instructional leadership behaviors of their principals.

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) identified 21 leadership responsibilities that are significantly correlated with student achievement in a McRel meta-analysis covering over forty years and more than five thousand studies. Their findings indicated a substantial relationship between leadership and student achievement. The top ten leadership responsibilities with the greatest correlation (in order importance as determined by the study) are as follows:

1. Situational awareness – The leader uses information of how schools work to address current problems and problems that may arise.
2. Intellectual stimulation – The leader makes sure staff is mindful of current theory and practice and provides opportunities for discussion of best practices.
3. Change agent – The leader does not settle for the “status quo” by continually initiating change, even when outcomes are uncertain.
4. Culture – The leader promotes sense of belonging through shared beliefs and cooperation.
5. Outreach – The leader is readily available to all stakeholders.
6. Monitors/evaluates – The leader monitors school practices and effects on learning.
7. Order – The leader maintains routines and operating procedures for the school.

8. Resources – The leader ensures staff has necessary materials, space, equipment, and training for classroom effectiveness.
9. Ideas/beliefs – The leader has strong ideals and beliefs about educating students.
10. Affirmation – The leader routinely celebrates school success and acknowledges failure when warranted.

The twenty-one leadership practices included in this meta-analysis will aid principals in using their limited instructional leadership time on factors that directly influence student achievement (Gentilucci & Muto, 2007).

Difficult Principal Leadership Styles

Lee Ann Murphy, in her 2006 article, stated that there are six problem principal styles of which to be aware.

The first is the “Spokesmodel” principal who is most interested in public opinion and who tries to please all of the people all of the time with the exception of those who work for him or her. The next problem principal is the “General.” This principal type has the idea that his or her way of doing things is the only way; no discussion is allowed. This principal keeps absolute power. The third type of problem principal is the “Screamer.” This principal type is unable to handle frustration and often yells when her or she feels like he or she is losing control or a situation. The fourth type of problem principal is the “Naysayer.” This principal type tends to be disconnected and overly negative. The fifth type of problem principal is the “Jellyfish.” This principal type dislikes conflict and has difficulty handling his or her own judgment. The last type of problem principal

mentioned is the “Nitpicker.” This principal type finds fault with almost everything and may even think an absurd amount of criticism will motivate his or her employees. (pp. 56-59)

In an article by Blasé and Blasé (2006), there is discussion of a study pertaining to school principals’ long-term mistreatment of teachers and the consequences of that mistreatment from the teachers’ perspectives. Several types of mistreatment were discussed including aggression, bullying, victimization, and emotional abuse (Blasé & Blasé). The authors stated that the effects of the mistreatment had a destructive influence on the teachers psychologically and emotionally in addition to physically. The effects of the mistreatment also spilled over into damaging relationships among the teachers, in the collective decision-making process, and in the classroom (Blasé & Blasé). Terms such as “autocrat,” “dictator,” “tyrant,” and “authoritarian” were used to describe the leadership techniques of the principals in the Blasé and Blasé study. Data suggest that the principals were overly authoritarian, very much coercive and control-oriented, and they tended to make decisions unilaterally and often arbitrarily; communication was frequently one-way, and intimidation was used to obtain compliance by teachers for decisions and decision-making processes.

Effective Schools Need Effective Principals

The principal’s list of duties at a minimum includes selecting, managing, motivating, and evaluating his or her team of teachers so that the school meets its academic goals (Johnson, 2008). These responsibilities can be seen in the management of almost any field, but an instructional leader is a school principal who is effective at communicating an explicit and inclusive vision of how students learn, and these

principals often visit classrooms, assess teachers' strengths and weaknesses, and provide advice and feedback to aid teachers in becoming more effective in the classroom (Johnson).

School climate, leadership, and high-ranking instruction are often associated with effective schools, and as Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004) reported effective school leadership has the potential to increase student achievement substantially. Public demand for more effective schools is placing increased attention on the role of school leaders, a group that has been overlooked by education reform movements for the past two decades (LaPointe & Davis, 2006). LaPointe and Davis state that at last policy makers are realizing what most school administrators have known for quite some time: that effective schools need both good teachers and strong leaders. Over-managed and under-led organizations with strong appealing leaders may do well only for a short period of time with failure imminent (Daugherty, Kelley, & Thornton, 2005).

Burnout can be a problem in today's schools with the high educational stressors placed on teachers including the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, strong emphasis on testing, increased behavioral problems, and seemingly increasing lack of parental involvement (Richards, 2007). Administrative support can make a difference in teacher moral, and in a study conducted by Richards in 2004, the author found that there was an intense difference in how two principal behaviors were perceived by teachers: supports teachers with parents and supports teachers in matters of discipline. The teachers indicated in the survey that they valued support in matters of discipline even more than they valued praise or acknowledgement of a job well done (Richards, 2004).

The school principal is one of the most important facets of the success of any school, and effective communication is a critical characteristic of an effective principal (Halawah, 2005). Furthermore, Halawah states that the effective principal should have knowledge and understanding of effective communication techniques including good listening skills and have the ability to create a collaborative environment where open communication is encouraged. A principal who has the ability to listen well to his or her teachers during one-to-one conversations, issues that come about during staff meetings, and even teacher conversations overheard in the school hallways is better able to identify positives and negatives in the school environment (Protheroe, 2006). Glover (2007), states that in his own experience as a principal, he found that having honest conversations with his teachers breaks through the self-limiting views that keep teachers silent and provides opportunities for teacher leadership in the school. Many teachers also worry that their ability to make decisions about their profession is decreasing with the recent increase in education mandate and law, so principals must find ways to change that perception in their schools so that the teachers feel as though they are being heard and that their risk-taking efforts really do make a difference (Glover).

In addition to wanting to be heard, Killon (2005) suggests that teachers would often like to assume leadership roles in their schools but are unaware of opportunities that may be available to them. This author states that principals can guide teachers and show them how leadership is shared throughout the school and help them identify leadership opportunities. Leadership opportunities can be formal or informal: the formal area often includes paid positions with administrative responsibilities; the informal opportunities are less visible, occur on a smaller scale, and are more spontaneous (Killon). Both formal

and informal, according to Killon, offer the opportunity to practice leadership responsibilities and to observe the leadership behaviors of others.

A school's principal influences teacher leaders in both positive and negative ways depending on their own leadership styles, and educational reform and schools that utilize the collaboration model are having influence on the concept of teacher-as-leader in the schools (Birkey, Shelton, & Headley, 2006). For example, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 placed emphasis on education improvement at every grade level providing further incentives for increasing teacher involvement in leadership positions (Birkey et al.). The authors report that the overall goal of education reform is to increase student achievement and teacher leaders are instrumental in the process of this achievement; therefore, education reform can rarely be discussed at any length without mentioning teachers as leaders.

Leading Difficult People

Gruenert (2006) reported that one negative teacher can affect an entire school; all negative people are not bullies, but all bullies are negative influences. The author states that bullying behavior from teachers may include withholding important information from others, sarcasm, refusing unpleasant duties, demanding the best classroom, or by forming cliques of teachers who together target other teachers who give ideas or opinions they dislike and deliberately ignoring them. Gruenert mentions that a meeting with the school leader may coerce some bullies to change their behavior or face employment issues, but whatever action the leader takes, the last option should be "bullying the bullies" because that behavior will be perceived as inappropriate by the rest of the staff, and the leader may earn the title of "bully" as well (p. 61). Although not a bully, a

Generation-X teacher can be a challenge to lead as well; generation-X are people born between 1965 and 1980, and they share some general characteristics: they respond well to change, are at ease with technology, and are not intimidated by authority figures (Hoerr, 2007). They tend to be reluctant to defer to another's opinion and are less bound by structure (Hoerr).

Mitchell (2008) states that some teachers are just resistant to any changes in their daily routine, classroom techniques, professional development, or behavior management styles; principals who decide to announce new programs and policies at the beginning of the school year with the aim being better student results may result in comments like:

“What we already do get results. Why bother to change?”

“That's just not how we do things around here.”

“This didn't work the first time we tried it. It won't work now.” (p. 32)

Mitchell adds that giving directives and forcing compliance is often the source of teacher skepticism, mistrust, and resistance to change for some; principals must keep the teachers in mind when designing their action plans, because the teachers are the ones expected to change.

Change is personal, and giving up a known for an unknown is a difficult task at best for the principal, states Mitchell, by finding ways to create the changes needed in the school while at the same time honoring the experience and contributions of the teachers. Any change implies the need for risk-taking for those involved, and although teachers are notoriously reluctant to embrace change, they must be reassured that mistakes and failure are permissible when new ideas are being used, that differing opinions will be respected, and that all major decisions will be made in collaboration (Piltch & Quinn, 2007).

Trust and Leadership

Principals hold positions of power and have much influence over their teachers (Richards, 2002). Spoken words, attitudes, and behaviors of the principal can influence whether a teacher remains at a particular school, district, and even the profession (Richards). Principals who are positive, caring, and encouraging and who are genuinely concerned about the personal and professional happiness of their teachers have a greater impact on the climate of the school and the teachers' performances than they may realize (Richards).

Schools that have success in bringing about change are the one that use a "trust-first" approach; schools that have been less successful in bringing about change were the ones who used trust as an afterthought being preceded by vision, strategy, and action (Sergiovanni, 2005). All of the learning and support that those who work at the school want for their students depends largely on the support that the teachers receive (Sergiovanni). Chen (2002) states that confident teachers have knowledge about what and who they are responsible for teaching, they have the skills for effective teaching, and they have the necessary dispositions to effectively use the knowledge and skills that they possess.

School leaders are continuously being presented with suggestions and direction for how to best improve their leadership skills, community involvement, staff moral, effectiveness in the school, and student learning (Vodicka, 2006). Vodicka, a former principal, states that although standards-based practice, safe environments, and ongoing professional development for staff are important, trust is presumably the most important element in developing an effective school. Research indicates that the more teachers trust

the principal, the more trust the teachers will have with students, parents, and colleagues (Brewster & Railsback, 2003). Schools with high levels of trust between teachers and the parents, between teachers and the principal, and among teachers, states Vodicka, were three times as likely to show improvement in student academics.

Vodicka places trust into four categories: consistency, compassion, communication, and competency. He states that consistency means that messages for different audiences have the same meaning. For example, the community gets the same message as the teachers, or the students get the same message as the teachers or parents; compassion, the author continues, is a demonstration of care or concern not to do harm to another person and can also be exhibited by showing confidence in the ability of others and showing common courtesy. Communication builds trust by getting and giving feedback to others on their performance and by creating a sense of vulnerability. Lastly, displaying competence is vital to developing trust because of the interdependent relationship of teachers and principals (Vodicka, 2006).

Isolation in education occurs more frequently than one might think: teachers are in their classrooms isolated from their principals and other teachers and principals are in their offices isolated from their teachers and from other principals (Burmeister & Hensley, 2004). In order to reduce this isolation, Burmeister and Hensley continue, principals must realize that leadership is all about relationships and if solid relationships are built on trust isolation will be reduced.

Another facet of trust in leadership is candor, and Halfacre and Halfacre (2006) state that candor is more than just being honest with students, teachers, and parents; the effective leader must focus on several areas. The authors state that the effective leader

should state his or her expectations for candor, he or she should model candor, he or she should be receptive of candor from others, he or she should ensure that the school environment is supportive of candor from other, and he or she should practice candor with compassion. Candor can be a powerful tool for leadership, but it has the ability to potentially hurt someone professionally and/or personally if not used correctly (Halfacre & Halfacre).

Successful Schools Need Successful and Effective Leaders

Day (2007) writes that to truly understand just what a successful principal is, one must study the principal's work in his or her school at a particular developmental phase and in different social situations. He reports that there have been few research projects other than an a minute amount of case studies attempting to investigate the school leaders' lives over a period of time, the ways that they motivate others, and how they are able to sustain commitment to education. One such study from Leithwood et al., (2006) involved a literature analysis leading to seven research-based claims that can be made about success as a principal leader. All the claims find support in varying degrees, though the claims are not strong in the same manner. They are as follows:

1. School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on students' learning.
2. Almost all school leaders draw upon the same repertoire of basic practices (building vision and setting directions; understanding and developing people; redesigning and reculturing the organization; and managing the instructional program).
3. The ways in which leaders apply these basic leadership practices—not the

practices themselves—demonstrate responsiveness to, rather than dictation by, the contexts in which they work.

4. School leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions.

5. School leadership has a greater influence on schools and students when it is widely distributed.

6. Some patterns of distribution are more effective than others, especially those which are aligned with the agreed vision for the school and in which responsibility, accountabilities, and sense of ownership are present.

7. A small handful of personal traits (rather than charisma) explain a high proportion of the variation in leadership effectiveness; the most successful leaders are open-minded and ready to learn from others.

Principals throughout this country have agreed that successful schools can be defined by the ability to best educate all students: smaller classes and schools, more time in the classroom, programs to prepare students for college, teacher-instructional coaching and utilizing data to better understand what the students need (Newstead, Saxton, & Colby, 2008). Successful principals, states Day (2007), combine working within the school along with working with parents, community, and other stakeholders from outside the school in partnerships, networks, and coalitions to obtain and disperse resources, a type of “relational agency” (p. 21). Like successful teachers, Day continues, successful principals must have commitment and resilience in promoting the positive attributes of others. If principals are successful, teachers are in a position to be successful, and that makes the possibility for successful student learning a reality (Lumpkin, 2008).

There are three keys to success for principals, according to Lumpkin (2008). The first key to success is that principals should model values such as trust, respect, and fairness and facilitate the student learning of values through the school program. Teachers want and admire principals who establish a school culture based on fairness, trustworthiness and honesty and value those principals who use these on a daily basis for decision-making and action plans (Richards, 2004). The second key to success for principals is to focus on professional development, support, and active engagement of teachers. Effective principals manage to provide knowledge and information to their staffs along with materials and supplies needed to support the teachers' work while at the same time work to accomplish the mission of the school (Halawah, 2005). The third key to success, states Lumpkin, for principals is to facilitate and encourage collaboration among the teachers and staff at the school. Creating a collaborative environment has been cited as one of the most important factors in a school's success (Halawah).

Professional learning communities can become part of the school's professional development program and help in creating a collaborative environment. DuFour (2004) stated that there are three big ideas associated with professional learning communities: ensuring that all students learn, creating a culture of collaboration, and judging effectiveness on the basis of results. The principal of the school often takes on the role of coach for these collaborative learning teams within the professional learning community (Ackerman, 2009). Principals are being encouraged to develop professional learning communities within their own schools as part of improvement strategies according to the NASSP (2004).

The Effective Leader and Professional Development

During the early days of schooling, the principal was the instructional leader (Knab, 2009). This came about from the lead teacher or headmaster in many schools being the principal; consequently, the term “headmaster” is still prevalent in many of the private schools today (Knab). The principal, in time, became more of a manager due to the centralization of responsibilities at the district level (Knab). Now, with public demands for more effective schools coupled with federal legislation growing attention has been placed on the role of the school leader (LaPointe & Davis, 2006). Today, focus is again on the principal as instructional leader (Knab). The accountability facet of NCLB makes it essential for principals to focus on raising test scores at their schools while still functioning as the site manager and performing numerous managerial duties (Gentilucci & Muto, 2007).

Despite the fact that most teachers have completed their formal education, the intrinsic desire to learn is still there; even more important is the fact that many new teachers who complete their formal education still feel under-prepared for the classroom (“High Priority,” 2007). Professional development may help these new teachers and the seasoned teachers as well to become better at handling a multitude of situations in their classrooms from working with students who have varying academic abilities, to improving their abilities to engage the students’ families in education, and to increasing order and discipline in their individual classrooms (“High Priority”). When the principal acts as the instructional leader providing appropriate and useful professional development for his or her teachers, the teachers reportedly feel validated, supported, and recognized for how well they teach and how well their students learn (Lumpkin, 2008).

Professional development tends to be either school or classroom based, has a direct relationship to what teachers are doing in their schools or individual classrooms, is frequently teacher-directed, and focuses on helping teachers to understand more about the subject(s) they teach (Hirsch, Koppich, & Knapp, 1998). Professional development that is district sponsored is the most common for teachers, and typically, the school or district sponsors either workshops or in-service programs that are of the “one-shot,” brief variety (NCES, 1993). According to NCES, more than 80% of public school teachers have participated in professional development of this type; only about 25% of teachers engaged in professional development through university or college courses.

A common complaint concerning professional development is that it is not viewed as relevant (Killion, 2005). As Killion explains, teachers and even their leaders, often describe the professional development meetings they are required to attend as unrelated to the work that they do on a daily basis because the meeting are developed to meet the broad needs of a group instead of the unique needs of the individual. Killion states that if the administrators were to provide personalized professional learning for their staffs, the administrators in turn would increase the relevance of professional development and at the same time strengthen their own relationships with staff members.

Gradet (2006) wrote of “breakthrough high schools” in his article, “Maximizing Professional Development” (p. 16). He stated that the principals of these schools have the philosophy that professional development must come from within the school, that collegiality and collaboration are integral parts, that resources (human and fiscal) are vital, and that teacher buy-in is a must for any good professional development program.

Meaningful professional development can lead to meaningful change in a school; the principal can create conditions that promote professional growth and development in his or her own school by working as a staff developer (Dufour & Berkey, 1995). People are the key to school improvement, and the principal can help to ensure that the school is able to achieve its goals by assuming the role of staff developer who makes it his or her “mission to alter the professional practices, beliefs, and understandings of school personnel toward an articulated end” (Fielding & Schalock, 1985, p.14).

Schools often place their focus on new programs and procedures such as curriculum materials, alternatives to scheduling, and new ways to report student achievement that will change the school for the better (Dufour & Berkey, 1995). Dufour and Berkey provided a list of ten suggestions that promote the organization’s development by focusing on the professional growth of the staff.

1. Create consensus on what the school is trying to become.
2. Identify, promote, and protect shared values.
3. Monitor the critical elements of the school improvement effort.
4. Ensure systematic collaboration throughout the school.
5. Encourage experimentation.
6. Model a commitment to professional growth.
7. Provide one-on-one staff development.
8. Provide staff development programs that are purposeful and research based.
9. Promote individual and organizational self-efficacy.
10. Stay the course. (pp. 2-5)

Meaningful professional development can become an opportunity for professional growth and can aid in preparing teachers for leadership roles in their schools. Seasoned teachers and administrators have strong desires to continue growing as professionals (Duke, 1990). Professional development can become that opportunity to share with colleagues in a non-threatening environment, with some guidance and support from the leader, and with a variety of activities to examine practices, beliefs, and growth opportunities (Duke). In recent years, according to Trends in School Leadership, policy makers have begun to realize the value of professional development and have begun to customize it to the needs of the leaders and students they serve (Lashway, 2002). Districts can no longer assume that the qualified leaders they need will appear in their districts, so many are using professional development to train the people they already have for leadership roles (Lashway). This author contends that when the leaders are learners themselves, they are better able to empathize and serve as models for the teachers at their own schools.

When principals enable teachers more opportunities for professional development and provide support to them, self-efficacy among the teachers has the chance to develop. Self-efficacy can be defined as a person's belief in his or her ability to succeed in a given situation. Rosenholtz (1985) stated that teachers who have self-efficacy tend to remain in the teaching profession and that self-efficacy and student achievement are highly correlated.

One principal found that working with teachers on an individual basis for professional growth goals was not improving student achievement or the performance of the teachers (McEnery, 2005). This principal adopted a more facilitative role and began

listening to groups of teachers and their discussions of professional development goals (McEney). These discussions, concluded McEney, were the start of a change in professional development that led to increased teacher awareness, motivation, and goal-setting.

Noticing and Shaping Teacher Leaders

The school principal plays a vital role in teacher leaders; the teacher leaders are seldom effective in their roles without the support and encouragement of their administrators (Birkey et al., 2006). To have effective change take place, principals need to know how to collaborate effectively with their teacher leaders; teacher leaders state that they receive personal rewards from their leadership roles and have gained personal satisfaction from seeing progress and change take place in their schools (Birkey et al.). The authors also reported that the teacher leaders in turn acknowledged the importance of the administrator's role in their leadership involvement. The teachers stated that the administrators can either encourage or discourage teacher leadership by how the administrators present their own leadership styles.

Effective collaboration is a key in developing trust between teachers and administrators; teachers have stated that they were encouraged most in their leadership roles when they felt trusted by their administrators (Birkey et al., 2006). The authors added that teacher leaders felt most alone and discouraged when administrators chose to lead in more traditional, authoritarian ways without being open to change; some teachers reported that even when teachers in the school were of the progressive nature, if the principal was not, change could not occur. The authors developed a list of what administrators should do to encourage their teacher leaders.

1. Value and respect the person, work, and role of the teacher.
2. Embrace change and allow experimentation and risk-taking.
3. Provide verbal and technical support.
4. Promote and facilitate collaboration.
5. Empower the teachers.
6. Involve the faculty in decision-making.
7. Be available when needed.
8. Lead by example.

The following list, provided by Birkey et al. (2006) is what administrators should avoid because these actions will discourage teachers in their leadership roles.

1. Withhold or limit teachers' powers.
2. Devalue work and efforts.
3. Isolate the teachers instead of placing them in collaborative situations.
4. Micromanage the details of work instead of providing support.

Accountability

Student achievement, as defined by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), is a measure of what students should know and be able to do at each grade assessed (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 2010). Student achievement is assessed on a national level by comparing state test scores in subjects such as mathematics, reading, science, writing, the arts, economics, civics, geography, and U. S. history by sending uniform test booklets to each state. Until 1988, the NAEP reported achievement on the nation as a whole and on subgroups. The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 2001, also known as "No Child Left

Behind,” included legislation requiring that states who received Title I funding to participate in state NAEP testing in reading and mathematics at grades four and eight every two years (NCES, 2010). The shift of power between the federal government and the states has been gradual with the federal government playing a greater role in education by developing national goals, standards, and high-stakes testing and thus creating a greater nationalization of the curriculum (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

In 1957, the Soviet Union successfully and surprisingly to the United States launched the first earth orbiting satellite (Barrett, 2005). The launch of Sputnik reinforced fear in the United States that the Soviet Union was forging ahead in the areas of science and technology and resulted in programs to attract students into these fields (Colwell, 2008). One such program was the National Education Defense Act of 1958 that provided federal funds for science and math instruction along with foreign language instruction and guidance counseling services (Flattau, Bracken, Atta, Bandeh-Ahmadi, de la Cruz, & Sullivan, 2006). President Lyndon B. Johnson continued the trend of federal dollars for education with the signing of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) that provided Title I funding for poor students as the focal point (Hess & Finn, 2007). The act was part of Johnson’s “Great Society” dream, and it earmarked one billion dollars in funding the first year alone for education (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2004).

A Nation at Risk, published in 1983, was based on the findings by the National Commission on Excellence in Education whose members were organized to investigate and report on the quality of education in the United States. There was concern that education in the United States was not meeting the implicit goal of keeping American

students better educated than other countries due to increased high quality products being produced at lesser costs in other countries (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). This report uncovered poor school performance at nearly every level and cautioned that the education system was producing a “rising tide of mediocrity” (p. 5). Toppo (2008) stated that the report found that only one-third of 17-year-olds could solve math problems involving multiple steps and only one-fifth could write an acceptable persuasive essay, millions of adults were illiterate, and achievement scores were dropping. The next education reform law was the Goals 2000: Educate America Act that was signed into law in 1994 by former President Clinton and was aimed at developing national performance standards in core subject areas. Goals 2000 focused on six educational concern areas such as school readiness, school completion, academic achievement, math and science leadership, adult literacy, and safe and drug-free schools (North Central Regional Education Laboratory, 2010).

A Nation at Risk sounded the alarm about the performance of U. S. students in comparison to students of other nations while the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 focused on the achievement gaps between white and minority students in this country (Derthick & Dunn, 2009). Leech & Fulton (2008) state “the demand for improved educational productivity has marked the foundation of the educational reform and restructuring movement of the past two decades” (p. 631). President George W. Bush’s enactment of the federal No Child Left Behind Act in 2001 requires that all states adhere to federal standards in holding schools accountable in showing yearly adequate student progress even though the constitution gives states authority over education (Wong, 2009). Dillon (2010) stated that NCLB requires schools to make “adequate yearly progress;”

schools that fail to meet this AYP in their student test scores must offer students free tutoring after school and offer the students the opportunity to transfer to other schools. Schools that fail to meet AYP again may face employee dismissals and/or school closings; in addition, the law requires all students to be proficient in reading and math by 2014 (Dillon). This movement, states Butler (2008), has pressured principals to improve student performance in their schools, and as a result has seemingly forced principals from their administrative duties to become more enveloped with assessment, curriculum, instruction, and data analysis. According to Dillon, the Obama Administration has recently proposed changes to the NCLB act, although Congress has been unable to agree on policy changes for several years now. Proposed changes include: offering recognition to schools who are succeeding and providing large amounts of funding to help improve or close failing schools; replacing the 2014 proficiency goal with all students leaving school “college or career ready,” and defining what students need to learn in earlier grades to successfully advance (Dillon).

Mississippi Accountability Programming

Mississippi has raised assessment, accreditation, and accountability standards in recent years in efforts to raise student achievement in the state. During the past twenty years, legislation has been introduced and passed beginning with the Education Reform Act of 1982. The Senate Bill 2156 allowed the state department of education by way of the Mississippi Student Achievement Improvement Act of 1999 to create an improved system of student and school evaluation by requiring the performance-based accreditation system to address both individual schools and districts. The legislation also required the State Board of Education to use student growth and performance measures to measure

school improvement and to set annual performance standards. Then, Senate Bill 2488 stated that the state department of education must identify those schools that do not meet expected levels of student achievement and consequently label them as Priority Schools. This legislation also required that public accreditation and accountability be based on the percentage of students who are proficient at grade level and by meeting an annual growth expectation in student achievement. This legislation created intensive assistance for schools not meeting the new standards. This new accountability system is a major focus, and students, teachers, principals, school superintendents, and school board members are being held accountable for student achievement (Mississippi Department of Education, 2005).

Each September school districts receive an accreditation status reflecting compliance determined by verified data from the previous school year. Statuses include: (a) accredited, assigned to districts with 100% compliance of the process standards, (b) advised, assigned to districts that did not comply with one or more process standards, (c) probation, assigned to districts that were assigned an advised status the previous school year, and the district did not take action to correct the problem or has not removed the process standard deficiencies that resulted in advised status, or (d) withdrawn, assigned to districts that have previously been on advised status and still do not comply with their corrective action plan (MDE, 2005).

From 2002-2007, every school was assigned a performance classification from a 1-5 performance scale based on growth and achievement. In 2009, the accountability labels changed from Levels 1-5 to: failing, at-risk of failing, low performing, academic watch, successful, high performing, and star school. The new labeling system includes a

quality of distribution index (QDI) that will be phased in from 2009 to 2012. The QDI measures the distribution of student performance on state assessments around the “cut points” for basic, proficient, and advanced performance. For the 2009-2010 school year, the QDI cut point for high performing to star school was 200-300, successful to high performing was 166 to 199, academic watch to successful was 133 to 165, at-risk of failing to academic watch was 100 to 132, and failing to low performing was 0 to 99 (MDE, 2009).

The QDI is the growth component in the present accountability system. The formula for QDI includes adding the percent of students at minimal, basic, proficient, and advanced to get a QDI score, but minimal is not included in the formula, basic is counted once, proficient is doubled, and advanced is tripled. For example, a school with 5% minimal, 32% basic, 57.5% proficient, and 5.5% advanced would be calculated as: $QDI = 32 + (57.5 \times 2) + (5.5 \times 3) = 163.5$ which would place that school in the academic watch to successful group. The final label would be determined by whether or not the school had the appropriate amount of growth from the previous year to be placed in either academic watch or successful. Also included in this system is a graduation/dropout component for schools called the High School Completion Index (HSCI). The HSCI is used as part of the QDI formula for schools (MDE, 2009).

The above School Performance Classifications are based on student assessment data. Each spring, grades 3-8 take the Mississippi Curriculum Test (MCT), which assesses student knowledge in reading, language, and mathematics. Students at the secondary level are assessed in subject areas including: Algebra I, Biology I, English II, and U. S. history. Writing assessments are given in grades 4 and 7, and the English II

exam contains a writing component as well. To ensure the accountability system is fair and that schools have an opportunity to improve a student's achievement, a school is only accountable for the performance of students enrolled for a majority of the school year, which is about 70% of the instructional year.

Students are held accountable for their own achievement by making performance on the MCT in Grade 3 and Grade 7 as one part of the principal's decision to promote or retain them. Students in Grade 4 and Grade 8 who did not reach Basic Achievement Level on the Grade 3 and Grade 7 MCT reading, language, and mathematics tests should be provided instructional interventions to increase their knowledge and skill level. Those Grade 4 and Grade 8 students are retested in January of each school year, and that performance is considered before the decision to promote or retain is made (MDE, 2005).

Proficiency levels are advanced, proficient, basic, and minimal. Advanced proficiency is an indication that the student consistently performs clearly beyond what is required to be successful in the next grade. Proficient means that the student demonstrates academic performance and mastery of the knowledge and skills necessary for success at the next grade level. Basic proficiency is an indication that the student demonstrates a partial mastery of content area knowledge and skills required for success at the next grade. Minimal proficiency means that the student is performing at a below basic level and does not demonstrate the mastery of the content area knowledge and skill required for success at the next grade level (MDE, 2005).

Summary

In summary, accountability in the school system has been evident for several decades and is here to stay. The research suggests that the leadership style of the

principal has a direct effect on the success of individual students and the school as a whole. The principal is the leader of the school and has the responsibility to shape his or her teachers in such a way as to increase student achievement. A successful leader must be able to adapt to different situations as needed because there are situations that call for one more appropriate approach than another (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Chapter III describes the procedures to be used for this study. This chapter includes information related to the participants in the study including a description of the sampling population and selection procedures. The survey instrument to be used by the researcher is described including information regarding its purpose, participants involved, and implementation procedures. The data analysis techniques to be used are also explained.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between situational leadership and student achievement. The results of this study can provide information of interest for stakeholders in education. Policymakers may be interested in the results when discussing legislation regarding student achievement. School boards and superintendents may be interested in the study's results when involved in the hiring process for new principals. School leaders or principals may be interested in the study's results when searching for ways to increase student achievement at their prospective schools.

Participants

To answer the research questions concerning a relationship between situational leadership styles and student achievement, the researcher used questionnaires, selected participants and archival data. The participants were principals from 401 elementary schools in a southern state. The researcher mailed questionnaires to these 401 selected

principals and asked for their participation in this study. Archival data in the form of student achievement scores were collected using the department of education Web site in the same southern state. Participants were mailed questionnaires that were color-coded for the researcher's benefit with a particular color questionnaire indicating the performance label each participant's school received from state testing scores the previous year. For example, light purple questionnaires were sent to schools that were "star" schools the previous year according to the state department of education.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between a particular framework in the situational leadership style and student achievement?
2. Is there a relationship between a combination of frameworks in the situational leadership style and student achievement?

Hypothesis

H₁: There is a relationship between situational leadership style and student achievement.

Instrumentation

A written request to Dr. Terrance Deal for permission to use the survey and the author's response is found in Appendix A. The data was gathered for this study by using a demographic survey (Part V) and the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations Instrument (Self)(Parts I-IV). Copies of both instruments are located in Appendix B. The Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations Instrument (Self) (Bolman and Deal, 1991) contains a series of 32 self-perceived items in Section I. This version was intended to be completed by the individual whose leadership style is being measured. Items 3, 7,

11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31 represent the political frame. Items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30 represent the human resource frame. Items 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29 represent the structural frame, and items 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, and 32 represent the symbolic frame. The respondents rated each item using a five-point Likert scale (1 – *Never*, 2 – *Occasionally*, 3 – *Sometimes*, 4 – *Often*, and 5 – *Always*) to rank the degree to which they think they exhibit each leader behavior. Section II contains six forced-choice items with the choices being structural, human resource, political, or symbolic type styles. Section III has two one-item measures: effectiveness as a manager and effectiveness as a leader, and Section IV contains background information. Additional demographic information (Part V) added by the researcher included: race, gender, and years of experience as a principal. For the purposes of this study, Sections II and III were used for descriptive purposes only, and Section IV was omitted.

The validity of Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientations (Self) was reported by the authors in 1990 in an unpublished paper, "Images of Leadership." A factor analysis of the questionnaire responses, using principal components and varimax rotation of 681 surveyed administrators in higher education, showed a high degree of internal consistency of the instrument (Bolman & Deal, 1991). A computer search of dissertations using ProQuest revealed 63 documents containing Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientations (Self). The following dissertations have used the Bolman and Deal instrument: Cantu, 1997; Dias, 2009; Hacking, 2004; Kotti; 2008; Landry, 2009; McArdle, 2008, and Welch, 2002.

Cronbach's alpha for the frame measures have been high in other studies measuring between .91 and .93 (Bolman and Deal). In Section I, structural frame items

1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, and 29 have a coefficient alpha for all items of .920; coefficient alpha for even items was .834, and the coefficient alpha for odd items was .856. The mean alpha for item reliability for the structural frame was .909 (N = 1,309 cases) Human resource items (2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30) have a coefficient alpha of .931; the coefficient alpha for even items was .843 and .902 for odd items. The mean alpha for item reliability for the human resources frame was .923 (N = 1,331). Political frame items (3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31) have a coefficient alpha of .913. The coefficient alpha for even items was .842, and .839 for odd items. The mean alpha for item reliability for the political frame was .902 (N = 1,268). Symbolic frame items (4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, and 32) have a coefficient alpha of .931 with the coefficient alpha for even items at .887 and .846 for odd items. The mean alpha for item reliability for the symbolic frame was .921 (N = 1,315). In this particular study, however, the Cronbach's Alpha scores were somewhat lower with the Cronbach's Alpha for the structural frame being .827, the Cronbach's Alpha for the human resource frame being .825, the Cronbach's Alpha for the political frame being .768, and the Cronbach's Alpha for the symbolic frame being .775.

Section II contained six forced-choice items relating to leadership orientation skills. The coefficient alpha for all items was .841, .782 for the even items, and .743 for the odd items. The mean alpha was .823 in regard to item reliability (N = 1,221 cases). Section III contains two scale items pertaining to self-perception of effectiveness as both a leader and a manager. Section IV contained background information about personal characteristics. Demographic information was included in Part V.

Procedures

The researcher mailed questionnaires (APPENDIX B) to principals of elementary schools in a state in the southern region of the United States using a color-coded system that indicated to the researcher what performance label that particular school achieved based on test results from 2010. The researcher used results from a state curriculum test (2010) that is administered to students in grades 3-8 in reading, language, and mathematics each May to determine which color-coded questionnaire to mail to each participant. Along with the enclosed questionnaire was an informed consent document (Appendix C) that requested participants to return the questionnaires in a timely manner and a return envelope was included for the convenience of the participant. The questionnaires were mailed to the participants after approval was given by The University of Southern Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (Appendix D).

Data Analysis

The questionnaires were collected and checked for completeness. The results were entered into a personal computer utilizing the statistical package, SPSS, version 17.0 software, to analyze the data. The research questions were addressed first by computing descriptive statistics for the school principals involved in the study. The researcher then explored the relationship of situational leadership frames identified by participants and student achievement scores (in the form of performance labels) at the participants' respective schools to determine whether there is a relationship between a favored situational leadership frame or combination of frames and successful student achievement.

Quantitative research methodology was used to analyze the data in this study. The dependent variables in this study were the situational leadership frames, and the independent variables were school performance label (failing, at-risk of failing, low performing, academic watch, successful, high performing, and star school). The independent variable, school performance label, was measured by assigned “performance label” per Mississippi State Department of Education. The dependent variable, situational leadership frames, was measured by the situational leadership frames used in the questionnaire developed by Bolman and Deal. The null hypothesis was tested using Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to test the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variables. The level of significance was placed at 0.05.

Summary

Chapter III reviewed the purpose for this study. It provided a description of participants involved, the survey instrument that was used, and how the instrument was distributed. Procedures for the study were described in detail and how the study was analyzed is explained.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Several decades ago in the late 1970s and early 1980s, the public perceived that the education system in this country was derelict. Many believed that students of this country were falling short in areas of academia that would help support this country's economy. These views led to the federal government's involvement with education and the publishing of *A Nation at Risk*, a report to identified specific problems in U.S. education in the areas of math and science. Recommendations included curriculum designed to become a base for further study in high school and to foster enthusiasm toward learning (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983).

More and more pressure continues to be placed on school administrators to increase student achievement in their schools by way of the No Child Left Behind legislation. Funding for schools is becoming increasingly attached to student performance, and the school principal is looked upon as the instructional leader of the school. Today's school leader is being transitioned from primarily administrative duties to duties that involve assessment, instruction, analyzing data, and curriculum (Butler, 2008).

The main purpose of this study was to determine if there is relationship between situational leadership styles used by elementary school principals and student achievement measured through annual state testing. This study focused on elementary school principals in the state of Mississippi whose schools are required by law to participate in annual state testing known as the Mississippi Curriculum Test, second

edition (MCT 2). Chapter IV begins with a description of the school principals involved in this study including gender, race, and years of experience as a school principal. Also included is descriptive data pertaining to leadership and management beliefs of the participants. Data describing the relationship between school performance labels and situational leadership styles is provided

Participants' Demographics

The researcher used the Mississippi Department of Education website to obtain information relating to performance levels assigned to the elementary schools in this study such as which schools were star, high performing, successful, low performing, on academic watch, at-risk of failing, and failing. The total number of elementary school principals who participated in the analysis was 126 (N=126). The Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation-Self instrument (Appendix A) was mailed to 401 elementary school principals in this state. This provided a return rate of approximately 31%. Each of the 32 Likert-type scale items to be used in the analysis was answered fully by the participants, and demographic data for all 126 participants was also completed. As mentioned in Chapter III, the significance level was set at .05.

Descriptive statistics were utilized to obtain frequencies of gender, race, and years of experience as a school principal. Of the 126 returned questionnaires, 44 were received from male principals and 82 from female principals. Table 1 reports this data with percentages. As for race, 90 were Caucasian, 34 were African American, one was Hispanic, and one was Asian. Table 2 reports this data with percentages. Years of experience for the group was as follows: for one to five years of experience the total returned was 57; for six to ten years of experience the total returned was 30; for 11 to 15

years of experience the total returned was 17; for 16 to 20 years of experience the total returned was 4, and for over 20 years of experience the total returned was 18. Table 3 reports this data with percentages.

Of the 401 questionnaires, 23 were mailed to star schools, 94 were mailed to high performing schools, 122 were mailed to successful schools, 89 were mailed to academic watch schools, none were mailed to low performing schools (none were to be found on the website at this rank for 2009), 62 were mailed to at-risk of failing schools, and 11 were mailed to failing schools. Of the 126 returned questionnaires, 10 were from star schools, 35 were from high performing schools, 42 were from successful schools, 23 were from academic watch schools, 16 were from at-risk of failing schools, and none were returned from failing schools. Table 4 reports this data with percentages.

Table 1

Gender of Participants Frequencies and Percentages

	Frequency	Percent
Male	44	34.9%
Female	82	65.1%
Total	126	

Table 2

Race of Participants Frequencies and Percentages

	Frequency	Percent
Caucasian	90	71.4%
African American	34	27.0%
Hispanic	1	.8%
Asian	1	.8%
Total	126	

Table 3

Years' Experience of Participants Frequencies and Percentages

	Frequency	Percent
1 to 5 Years	57	45.2%
6 to 10 Years	30	23.8%
11 to 15 Years	17	13.5%
16 to 20 Years	4	3.2%
Over 20 Years	18	14.3%
Total	126	

Table 4

School Labels Frequencies and Percentages

	Questionnaires Mailed	Percent Mailed	Questionnaires Received	Percent Received
Star Schools	23	5.7%	10	7.9%
High Performing Schools	94	23.4%	35	27.7%
Successful Schools	122	30.4%	42	33.3%
Academic Watch Schools	89	22.2%	23	18.3%
At-risk of Failing Schools	62	15.5	16	12.8%
Failing Schools	11	2.7%	0	0.0%
Total	401	99.9%	126	31.4%

Section II of the Leadership Orientations-Self questionnaire asked the participants describe their own leadership styles by ranking themselves from 4 (most like them) to 1 (least like them) on a series of statements. Table 5 shows the frequencies of the items that the participants answered was most like them (their number 4 ranking) and gives that ranking in percentages. Item 1 was ranked highest on the human resource frame at 51.6%. Item 2 was ranked highest on the symbolic frame at 31%. Item 3 was ranked highest on the structural frame at 37.3%. Lastly, items 4-6 were all ranked highest on the human resource frame at 46.8%, 5.2%, and 38.9%, respectively.

Table 5

*Section II Self Ranking Leadership Styles**Item 1: My strongest skills are:*

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Analytic skills	Structural	41	32.5
Interpersonal skills	Human Resource	65	51.6
Political skills	Political	4	3.2
Ability to excite and motivate	Symbolic	11	8.7
Total		121	96.0
<u>Missing</u>		5	4.0

Item 2: The best way to describe me is:

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Technical expert	Structural	24	19.0
Good listener	Human Resource	38	30.2
Skilled negotiator	Political	21	16.7
Inspirational leader	Symbolic	39	31.0
Total		122	96.8
<u>Missing</u>		4	3.2

Item 3: What has helped me the most to be successful is my ability to:

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Make good decisions	Structural	47	37.3
Coach and develop people	Human Resource	35	27.8

Table 5 (continued).

Build strong alliances and a power base	Political	18	14.3
Energize and inspire others	Symbolic	22	17.5
Total		122	96.8
Missing		4	3.2

Item 4: What people are most likely to notice about me is my:

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Attention to detail	Structural	20	15.9
Concern for people	Human Resource	59	46.8
Ability to succeed, in the face of conflict and opposition	Political	33	26.2
Charisma	Symbolic	10	7.9
Total		122	96.8
Missing		4	3.2

Item 5: My most important leadership trait is:

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Clear, logical thinking	Structural	49	38.9
Caring and support for others	Human Resource	57	45.2
Toughness and aggressiveness	Political	7	5.6
Imagination and creativity	Symbolic	10	7.9
Total		123	97.6
Missing		3	2.4

Table 5 (continued).

Item 6: I am best described as:

<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
An analyst	Structural	41	32.5
A humanist	Human Resource	49	38.9
<u>Answer Choice</u>	<u>Frame</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
A politician	Political	7	5.6
A visionary	Symbolic	26	20.6
Total		123	97.6
Missing		3	2.4

Section III on the questionnaire was devoted to the participants' self perception as managers and leaders and asked them to compare themselves to others that they know in leadership positions by placing themselves in the bottom 20%, middle 20%, or top 20% in both areas. For the question related to effectiveness as a manager, .8% of the participants ranked themselves in the bottom 20%, and 42.1% of the participants ranked themselves in the top 20% of effective managers. The question related to effectiveness as a leader yielded the result of no participant ranking himself or herself in the bottom 20% of effective leaders, and 41.3% of the participants placed themselves in the top 20% of this group. Table 6 provides these frequencies and percentages.

Table 6

Participants Perceptions as a Manager and Leader Frequencies and Percentages

	Frequency	Percent
<i>Manager</i>		
Bottom 20 percent	1	.8
Bottom 30 percent	1	.8
Middle	14	11.1
Upper 30 percent	57	45.2
Top 20 percent	53	42.1
Total	126	100.0
	Frequency	Percent
<i>Leader</i>		
Bottom 20 percent	0	0.0
Bottom 30 percent	0	0.0
Middle	7	5.6
Upper 30 percent	67	53.2
Top 20 percent	52	41.3
Total	126	100.0

Statistical Findings

As previously stated in Chapter III, the dependent variables in this study were the situational leadership frames, and the independent variables were school performance label (failing, at-risk of failing, low performing, academic watch, successful, high performing, and star school). The independent variable, school performance label, was

measured by assigned “performance label” per Mississippi State Department of Education. The dependent variable, situational leadership frames, was measured by the situational leadership frames used in the questionnaire developed by Bolman and Deal. The null hypothesis was tested using Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to test the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variables. The level of significance was placed at 0.05.

Table 7 shows responses to questions compiled by way of each of the four frames in the study: political frame, structural frame, symbolic frame, and human resource frame. The means of responses for each frame are given by school label represented in the study: star, high performing, successful, academic watch, and at-risk of failing. The results indicate that the means across all four frames and all five school labels are high ranging from 3.80 to 4.02 in the political frame, from 4.15 to 4.31 in the structural frame, from 3.86 to 3.95 in the symbolic frame, and from 4.08 to 4.41 in the human resource frame. In other words, most participants chose the answer “sometimes,” or “often” as their choice in the majority of questions across all four leadership frame questions.

Table 7

Responses to Frame Questions by School Label Descriptive Statistics

	n	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Political Frame					
Star School	10	4.02	.48	3.13	4.75
High Performing	35	3.80	.42	2.50	4.50
Successful	42	3.94	.45	3.00	4.75

Table 7 (continued).

Standard	n	Mean	Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Academic Watch	23	3.78	.43	3.25	4.88
At-risk of Failing	16	3.82	.36	2.88	4.25
Total	126	3.86	.43	2.50	4.88
Structural Frame					
Star School	10	4.31	.53	3.63	5.00
High Performing	35	4.20	.41	3.25	4.88
Successful	42	4.28	.43	3.50	5.00
Academic Watch	23	4.15	.39	3.38	5.00
At-risk of Failing	16	4.25	.48	3.13	4.88
Total	126	4.23	.43	3.13	5.00
Symbolic Frame					
Star School	10	3.92	.55	3.00	4.88
High Performing	35	3.89	.46	2.50	4.75
Successful	42	3.95	.48	2.88	4.75
Academic Watch	23	3.86	.38	3.13	4.63
At-risk of Failing	16	3.92	.30	3.13	4.25
Total	126	3.91	.44	2.50	4.88
Human Resource Frame					
Star School	10	4.41	.51	3.63	5.00
High Performing	35	4.23	.43	3.00	5.00

Table 7 (continued).

Standard	n	Mean	Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Successful	42	4.32	.49	2.63	5.00
Academic Watch	23	4.08	.44	2.88	4.88
At-risk of Failing	16	4.21	.45	3.25	5.00
Total	126	4.24	.46	2.63	5.00

The first research question posed read: Is there a relationship between a particular framework in the situational leadership style and student achievement? To answer research question 1, a one-way MANOVA was calculated examining the relationship between a particular situational leadership frame and school performance level (star, high performing, successful, academic watch, and at-risk of failing). No significant effect was found with any frame. The political frame result was ($F(4,121)=1.052, p=.384$). The structural result was ($F(4,121)=.458, p=.766$). The symbolic result was ($F(4,121)=.201, p=.937$). The human resource result was ($F(4,121)=1.275, p=.284$).

The following is the second research question and the hypothesis for this study:

2. Is there a relationship between a particular framework in the situational leadership style and student achievement?

H₁: There is a relationship between situational leadership style and student achievement.

To answer research question 2 and the hypothesis for this study, a one-way MANOVA was calculated examining the relationship between a combination of situational leadership styles (political frame, structural frame, symbolic frame, and human resource

frame) and school performance level (star, high performing, successful, academic watch, and at-risk of failing). No significant effect was found ($F(16,484)=.627, p=.863$).

Conclusion

Chapter IV provided an explanation of the data analyzed to obtain information about the relationship between situational leadership styles defined by Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientations Self questionnaire and student achievement by way of school performance labels. The researcher provided a description of participants involved in the study including gender, race, and years of experience as a principal along with the performance level of schools of which they belong. Frequencies related to self-perception of leadership, effectiveness as managers, and effectiveness as leaders was provided. Data describing the relationship between school performance labels and situational leadership styles was provided.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Leithwood et al. (2006) stated that school leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on student learning and that school leadership has a greater influence on the achievement of its students when it is widely distributed. An effective leader must be able to change styles of leadership and management as the situation deems necessary (Arond-Thomas, 2004); the resilient leader has the ability to change among styles as necessary and seemingly flawlessly. Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest that relying on one approach all the time is not the best practice, rather leaders should be aware of all four frameworks in the situational leadership style and not be dependent on only one or two.

The primary focus of this study was to determine whether a particular leadership style that a school principal might possess and utilize could have an effect on how well the students of his or her school perform on standardized testing as evidenced by the school performance label given to each particular school on a yearly basis. Elementary school principals and the Mississippi Curriculum Test, second edition (MCT II) were perceived to be ideal variables with which to conduct this study. This chapter summarizes the findings associated with this research and attempts to draw conclusions from the data that was collected throughout the study and presented in Chapter IV. This chapter includes limitations involved with this study and concludes with recommendations for further research on this topic.

The Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientations-Self questionnaire was mailed to 401 elementary school principals in a southern state. The participants were asked demographic information such as gender, race, and years of experience as an elementary school principal. Another variable in the study was the school performance label which was assigned to each school by the Mississippi State Department of Education and was located by the researcher via the state department of education's website. The school performance labels are: star school, high performing school, successful school, academic watch school, low performing school, at-risk of failing school, and failing school. Questionnaires sent to the participants were color-coded to indicate the school's performance level for the benefit of the researcher. The participants completed a Likert-type questionnaire and returned it by mail to the researcher for analysis.

This study discussed the history of leadership and the importance being placed on the role of the school leader in today's society to be the catalyst for student achievement. Student achievement is currently measured primarily through state testing, and in Mississippi it is measured by the MCT II test given each spring. Today's school leader faces more and more pressure through legislation to make sure the students in his or her school will succeed academically. Funding for schools is based somewhat on student achievement. Prior research has proven that effective school leadership has the potential to increase student achievement substantially (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2004). The primary purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between situational leadership styles of elementary school principals as defined by Bolman and Deal and student achievement as defined by the MCT II.

Conclusions and Discussion

This section is devoted to the research questions involved in this study. The questions are restated and conclusions are derived from the findings of the study based on the data analyzed and presented in Chapter IV. The findings are discussed in relation to the literature from Chapter II.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was stated as follows: Is there a relationship between a particular framework in the situational leadership style and student achievement? Based on the analysis of the data presented in this study, no relationship was found between a particular frame of Bolman and Deal's (1991) situational leadership model and student achievement based on school performance label given to elementary schools through MCT II scores within this particular group of elementary principals. As reported in Chapter IV, the means for all levels of school performance labels were high. Most participants answered "often," and "always" to the statements on the questionnaire under each of the four situational leadership frames (political, structural, human resource, and symbolic) no matter what their school performance label was for the previous year. Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest that no frame is better than another and that although there are times when using one frame is more appropriate than another, leaders are at their most effective when they use all four of the frames. Vroom and Jago (2007) stated that the situation determines the leadership style to be used.

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was stated as follows: Is there a relationship between a combination of frameworks in the situational leadership style and student achievement?

Based on the analysis of the data presented in this study, no relationship was found between a particular combination of frames of Bolman and Deal's (1991) situational leadership model and student achievement based on school performance label given to elementary schools through MCT II scores within this particular group of elementary principals. As stated above for Research Question 1, most participants selected "often" or "always" for their answers to the 32 Likert-type statements across all four situational leadership frames. There seemed to be no difference as to what the participants' current school performance label was. As stated above, the means for all questions across the groups were high. The literature suggests that effective leaders use all four of the frames and are able to select the most appropriate one for a particular situation (Bolman & Deal, 2008); relying on just one frame for all situations would make the leader ineffective. The ability to view their perspective organizations from all four of the frames allows the leaders to view issues with a more thorough approach (Schmidt & Akdere, 2007).

Bolman and Deal's (1991) model of situational leadership is a four-frame approach suggesting that leaders can be put into one of those categories, and there are times when one approach is more appropriate than another. The categories are political, human resource, structural and symbolic; the authors suggest that relying on one approach is not the best idea, that leaders should be aware of all four frameworks and not be dependent on only one or two (Bolman & Deal). The participants in this study tended to rely on all four frameworks equally according to their answers of "often" and "always" for each of the 32 questions. The data suggests that no combination of frames was utilized by the participants related to their categorization of school performance label. The data does reflect, however, that on Part I of the questionnaire, participants, as a

group, selected answers from the human resource and structural frames more often than the political and symbolic frames.

Of interest was the answer given for question 16 that read, “Am highly imaginative and creative?” This question received the ranking “occasionally” by 12 participants and the ranking of “never” by one participant. This question received the lowest rankings of any question. This is surprising because as instructional leader, the principal must be able to find new and creative ways to assist his or her teachers in increasing student achievement by creating a blueprint of how the school as a whole can achieve those goals through his or her vision and expertise (Johnson, 2008). The participants were from schools across the performance label group who received school performance labels by the Mississippi State Department of Education ranking from star school to at-risk of failing.

Howard (2005) stated that the type of leadership style exhibited by the leader of any school or any other organization will have a direct impact on the people, the tasks, and the environment being lead. Bass (1990) stated that the situation determines the leadership style or behavior. Research has proven that effective school leadership has the potential to increase student achievement substantially (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2004). Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) analyzed over 30 years of research that examined leadership and its effects on student achievement. These researchers identified 21 leadership responsibilities that are associated with student achievement, and they also found that leadership style along with the sharing of power with the school’s teachers, can produce either negative or positive effects on student achievement (Waters et al., 2003). Within this particular group of elementary school principals in the state of

Mississippi, however, no relationship was found between leadership styles and student achievement.

Section II of the Leadership Orientations-Self questionnaire asked the participants describe their own leadership styles by ranking themselves from 4 (most like them) to 1 (least like them) on a series of statements. Of the six statements, the majority of participants selected their number four choice (most like them) from the human resources frame four times, the structural frame once, and the symbolic frame once. Item one had participants selecting the human resource frame 51.6% of the time, item two had participants selecting the symbolic frame 31.0%, item three was the structural frame at 37.3%, and items four, five, and six were the human resource frame at 46.8%, 45.2%, and 38.9% respectively. This implies that at least half of the time, most of the participants rely on the qualities of the human resource frame in their roles as leaders even though results from the questionnaire showed no relationship between the situational leadership frames and student achievement among this group of participants. The majority of participants in this study seem to view themselves as possessing fewer qualities from the structural and symbolic frames and even less on the political frames qualities inferred from information collected in Part II.

Another finding of possible interest to the reader is the section on the questionnaire where the participants ranked themselves as effective managers and effective leaders (Part III). Most of the elementary principals, no matter what school performance label their school received, labeled themselves in the top 20% to 25% as effective managers and leaders. Part III on the questionnaire was devoted to the participants' self perception as managers and leaders and asked them to compare

themselves to others that they know in leadership positions by placing themselves in the bottom 20%, middle 20%, or top 20% in both areas. Only one participant ranked himself in the bottom twenty percent as an effective manager, and one ranked himself in the bottom 30% according to the data analysis. Most participants (about 87.3%), no matter what performance label their school earned, placed themselves in the upper 30 to upper 20% in this category. The leadership category was very similar with 94.5% of the participants ranking themselves in the upper 30 to upper 20% of effective leaders. This implies that the majority of the participants in this study view themselves as effective managers and effective leaders in their school settings, ranking themselves in the top one-third of all leaders in this area that they know, regardless of how well their respective schools are performing on standardized testing.

Limitations

Several significant limitations transpired throughout the course of this study. These limitations should be considered by those interested in conducting similar or related studies.

1. One limitation for this study is that the study was limited to one particular state in the southern region of the United States. A more representative sample may be obtained by collecting data from more than one state in the United States.
2. Another limitation is that the study focused only on elementary school principals of schools who participate in state testing of their students. Future researchers may find it beneficial to include principals of middle schools who also participate in the state testing process.

3. The return rate was about 31%. Perhaps a larger return would have yielded different results and would have shown that leadership style does have an effect on student achievement.

4. This study was quantitative in nature. A qualitative portion may have allowed the researcher to include perceptions of principals related to student achievement and a more in depth analysis of their leadership styles.

5. When the school performance labels were obtained from the Mississippi Department of Education website, no school was located that was given a “low performing” rating. Therefore, no participants were available from this group. Another group was also missing from the study, and that group was the “failing” performance label group. Although 11 questionnaires were mailed to elementary school principals from the “failing school” group, none chose to participate. The total number of questionnaires mailed to schools in Mississippi was 401. Of those 401 mailed, 23 were mailed to the “star school” group, 94 were mailed to the “high performing” group, 122 were mailed to the “successful” school group, 89 were mailed to the “academic watch” group, 62 were mailed to the “at-risk of failing” group, and 11 were mailed to the “failing” group. Of the 401 questionnaires mailed, 126 were returned making a 31.4 percent return rate. There were 10 questionnaires returned from “star schools,” 35 were returned from “high performing” schools, 42 were returned from “successful” schools, 23 were returned from “academic watch” schools, 16 were returned from “at-risk of failing” schools, and none were returned from “failing” schools.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Student achievement and accountability in the school system continue to be topics of concern in today's society. The type of leadership style exhibited by the leader of the school or any organization will have a direct impact on the people, the tasks, and the environment being lead (Howard, 2005). School leaders, i.e., principals, should possess the leadership skills necessary to appropriately manage and lead their schools to success. The NCLB Act that is requiring schools to make adequate yearly progress is pressuring principals to become more focused on student achievement in their schools. Therefore, continued examination of the leadership styles of principals is important. Principals could use this knowledge to assist them in becoming better leaders for their schools. If they were to examine the leadership frames and compare them to their own styles of leadership and management in the school system, they could become more aware of their own strengths and weaknesses. This could lead to a renewed focus on self improvement in school leadership.

Superintendents of school districts may find this study of interest as they look to employ new principals. The literature suggests that a person who is capable of using all four situational leadership frames is a more effective leader. The selection process for new principals would benefit with the inclusion of this knowledge. Superintendents may want to select principal candidates who have the ability to use all four frames of the situational leadership approach equally.

The results of this study may be of interest to policymakers in their quest to improve student achievement by determining if leadership style, situational leadership style in this instance, has an impact on student achievement and if a combination of

frames within that situational style is more effective than other situational leadership frames. Within this particular group of individuals, there was no relationship between the leadership style and student achievement. This group indicated that they use all four frames often or always. Policymakers may be interested in selecting school leaders who have the ability to use all four frames of the situational leadership approach equally.

Recommendations for Future Research

It is recommended that further research be conducted in the area of self-perception of the school principal by way of obtaining a larger sample size and/or by including principals at the middle school level or perhaps even the high school level. This would allow the researcher to gather additional data to determine if a relationship exists between situation leadership styles and student achievement within this particular group in the state of Mississippi and to still access the same student achievement levels by using the school performance label system set for this state. Since this study was restricted to Mississippi schools, it may be of benefit to also expand the study to other states and base the student achievement portion on each individual state's labeling system. It may also benefit future researchers to focus their studies on the lower performing schools since that group was absent from this study. Of interest is why this group did not participate in the study.

It is further recommended to expand this study into getting the teachers' perceptions of the school principals' leadership styles. It may be of interest to others to discover what principal leadership styles are perceived by the teachers of elementary schools. By allowing others to rank the leadership in the school, it may also decrease the chances of inflated scores that sometimes occur with self-assessment.

Conclusion

Simply defined, leadership is the office or position of a leader, the capacity to lead, and the act or instance of leading (Merriam-Webster, 2010). Leadership is a topic of interest that has been researched and discussed for quite some time, and history is full of examples of persons who have taken control of a group and lead it often with much adversity to a more positive place (Van Vugt, 2006).

Student achievement and accountability in the school system continues to be a topic of concern in society today. Research has shown that an effective leader has the ability to increase student achievement by the way they manage and lead others. Bolman and Deal (1991) stated that an effective leader is capable of using all four frames in the situational leadership style to interpret their surroundings, to decide what needs to be done, and to analyze the results of their actions.

The research findings of this study may be of interest to policymakers and to school administrators in their quest to improve student achievement by determining if leadership style, situational leadership style in this instance, has an impact on student achievement and if a combination of frames within that situational style works better than others. The literature reflects that leadership plays a vital role in the success of students in the classroom, and current legislation is requiring schools to be more and more academically successful.

APPENDIX A

LETTERS

September 29, 2010

Terrence Deal
6625 Via Piedra
San Luis, Obispo, CA 93401

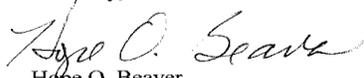
Dear Dr. Deal:

My name is Hope Beaver, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Southern Mississippi. I am planning to defend my proposal in October of this year. I am very interested in research involving leadership styles, particularly situational leadership. I would like to use Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation-Self instrument for my dissertation. I plan to mail the questionnaires to elementary school principals to determine if a relationship exists between situational frames favored by them and student achievement scores based on state curriculum testing.

I request permission to use your instrument. Would you please fax, mail, or email permission (with your signature in an attachment) as soon as possible? I would be so pleased to be able to use this questionnaire as have so many other researchers, and I would be happy to share any results with you.

I would appreciate a timely response, as I cannot defend my proposal without your permission. Below, I have listed contact information for myself, and I am enclosing a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience. I thank you in advance for your help.

Sincerely,



Hope O. Beaver
Hope.beaver@gmail.com

TERRENCE E. DEAL, Ph.D.

6625 Via Piedra
San Luis Obispo, CA 93401

Phone: 805 783-1680
Email: sucha@siocoast.net

October 13, 2010

Hope Beaver
331 Old Hwy 49
Wiggins MS 39577

Dear Ms. Beaver:

You have my permission to use the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation-self instrument for your dissertation.

I would enjoy seeing the results.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "T. Deal", with a long horizontal line extending to the right.

Terrence E. Deal
Professor (Ret.)

Form S-4

APPENDIX B

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)¹

This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style.

I. Behaviors

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	2	3	4	5
Never		Sometimes		Always
	Occasionally		Often	

So, you would 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.

1. _____ *Think very clearly and logically.*
2. _____ *Show high levels of support and concern for others.*
3. _____ *Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.*
4. _____ *Inspire others to do their best.*
5. _____ *Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.*
6. _____ *Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.*
7. _____ *Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.*
8. _____ *Am highly charismatic.*
9. _____ *Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.*

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10. _____ *Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.*
11. _____ *Am unusually persuasive and influential.*
12. _____ *Am able to be an inspiration to others.*
13. _____ *Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.*
14. _____ *Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.*
15. _____ *Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.*
16. _____ *Am highly imaginative and creative.*
17. _____ *Approach problems with facts and logic.*
18. _____ *Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.*
19. _____ *Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.*
20. _____ *Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.*
21. _____ *Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.*
22. _____ *Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.*
23. _____ *Am politically very sensitive and skillful.*
24. _____ *See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.*
25. _____ *Have extraordinary attention to detail.*
26. _____ *Give personal recognition for work well done.*
27. _____ *Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.*
28. _____ *Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.*
29. _____ *Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.*
30. _____ *Am a highly participative manager.*
31. _____ *Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.*
32. _____ *Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.*

II. 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*
- _____ d. *Charisma.*

5. My most important leadership trait is:

- _____ 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*

III. 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	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%	Middle 20%			Top 20%

2. Overall effectiveness as a **leader**.

1	2	3	4	5
Bottom 20%	Middle 20%			Top 20%

IV. Background Information

- 1. Are you: ____Male ____Female
- 2. How many years have you been in your current job? _____
- 3. How many total years of experience do you have as a manager? _____

Part V

Please answer the following demographic information by placing an (X) on the appropriate blank.

Gender: Male
 Female

Race: Caucasian
 African American
 Hispanic
 Asian
 Native American
 Other

Years' Experience as Principal:
 0-5 Years
 6-10 Years
 11-15 Years
 16-20 Years
 Over 20 Years

APPENDIX C
INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Dear Project Member:

My name is Hope O. Beaver, and I am a graduate student pursuing my doctorate of philosophy in educational leadership at the University of Southern Mississippi. I am currently working on my dissertation which is entitled *The Relationship between Situational Leadership and Student Achievement*. I am asking for your help in completing this study which will take approximately fifteen minutes of your time.

Your participation is completely voluntary, and at any time you may feel free to decline participation or to discontinue your participation without penalty. To uphold confidentiality, please do not include any identifying information about yourself on your questionnaire. If this research is to be published or presented, you nor your school will be identifiable.

By participating in this research, you are helping education leaders and schools to gain insight into how leadership has the potential to affect student achievement in both positive and negative ways.

This project has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Protection Review Committee which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the chair of the Institutional Review Board, the University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-6820.

By completing and returning the attached questionnaire, you are granting permission for this anonymous and confidential data to be used for the above described purpose. I am requesting that the questionnaire be returned within three weeks of your receiving it. If you have any questions concerning this research project or if you would like a copy of the completed research, please feel free to contact me at hope.beaver@gmail.com.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and for assisting me with my research.

Sincerely,

Hope O. Beaver, Ed.S.

APPENDIX D

INTERNAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER



THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

Institutional Review Board

118 College Drive #5147
 Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
 Tel: 601.266.6820
 Fax: 601.266.5509
 www.usm.edu/irb

**HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTION REVIEW COMMITTEE
 NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION**

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Protection Review Committee in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months. Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 10110804

PROJECT TITLE: **The Relationship Between Situational Leadership & Student Achievement**

PROPOSED PROJECT DATES: 11/10/2010 to 11/10/2011

PROJECT TYPE: **Dissertation**

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS: **Hope O. Beaver**

COLLEGE/DIVISION: **College of Education & Psychology**

DEPARTMENT: **Educational Leadership**

FUNDING AGENCY: **N/A**

HSPRC COMMITTEE ACTION: **Expedited Review Approval**

PERIOD OF APPROVAL: **01/03/2010 to 01/02/2012**

Lawrence A. Hosman

 Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
 HSPRC Chair

1-5-2011

 Date

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