An Examination of the Relationship Among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Support, and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Georgia Elementary Schools

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ABSTRACT

The study, "An Examination of the Relationship Among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Support, and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Georgia Elementary Schools," was designed to examine the factors impacting the efficacy of principals and teachers in urban elementary schools as related to different leadership styles, novice and experienced teachers and level of readiness versus leadership style. Based on social learning and motivational theories concerning leadership and efficacy, the theories were significant in identifying characteristics of leadership styles, level of readiness, and the sense of efficacy for principals and teachers.

The study utilizes a non-experimental quantitative design employing both a descriptive and inferential analysis. Data were acquired from principals and teachers in two urban school systems in Georgia through the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale, Leadership Styles Questionnaire and the Teacher's Perception of Principal Support Questionnaire. Of the four research questions posed in this body of research, research question one indicated no significant difference in principal self-efficacy by leadership style. The remaining research questions noted a significant correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and perceptions of principal support. A statistical significance suggested a difference between the sense of efficacy of principals and teachers as well as a difference in the sense of efficacy of teachers based upon years of experience.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is nothing more fulfilling than reaching a milestone in life. However, no one makes the journey to the top alone. I was inspired to do this study after attending a seminar on student efficacy. The concept of student efficacy prompted me to research efficacy on a larger scale realizing that it is imperative for all stakeholders, students, teachers, and administrators to have a high sense of efficacy to create an environment conducive for teaching, learning, growth, and development. Having worked alongside various administrators with various types of leadership styles, I became curious as to how their leadership styles would impact their teachers. I initially wanted to examine the leadership styles of principals, but I was encouraged by the greatest chairperson of all time, Dr. James Leon Pate, to examine the efficacy of principals as a means of adding to the body of research. Dr. Pate, you provided me with more than resources and encouraging words during this process; you were a great role model and a great man of faith, and for that, I cannot thank you enough. Dr. Beverly Fitzhugh, you helped me stay on target and made me call myself Dr. Christina Sherard, even when I said I was going to quit. You stayed up late with me to make sure that I met all of my deadlines. You are more than a friend; you are my sister, and I love you. To my dissertation committee members, Dr. Kim, we had a rough start at first, but I know that you were tough on me because you wanted me to produce the type of research that I would always be able to reflect upon and be proud. I can truly say that the dissertation journey was worth every sleepless night and stressful morning. Your depth of knowledge pushed me to excel in areas that normally I would not attempt. Thank you for working with me so diligently. To Dr. Paine and Dr. Dees, there is so much knowledge that you both poured into me and your caring words and advice always will be priceless to me. Most importantly, I would like to acknowledge my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ for giving me the strength and endurance to complete this task amidst sickness, times of uncertainty, lack of funds and times of despair. This dissertation serves as just a portion of my personal testimony of how great and faithful You are to me. To God be the Glory for the great things He has done. Here is another reason for me to say, "I can do all things through Christ which strengtheneth me" (Philippians 4:13 KJV).

DEDICATION

This body of research is dedicated to my parents, Bishop-Elect Christopher L. Sherard, and Apostle Ernestine B. Sherard. Without you constantly reminding me of how much you love me, believe in me, and support me, I would have given up a long time ago. There is no eloquent way to say this, so I will just let you know that from the bottom of my heart, I thank you so much; I respect the God in you both, and I will spend the rest of my days trying to repay you for the many sacrifices you made so that I could be where I am now. I want you to know that this achievement belongs to you just as much as it belongs to me because I am an extension of the greatness you exhibit on a daily basis. To the rest of my immediate family and Anointed-Nu-Vision Ministries Church Family, thank you for all of your love, prayers, understanding, and support throughout this entire process. There is no church that is greater than yours in my eyes. We are more than just church members; we are truly a family of believers. To my best friend Joe, you spoke life into me and prayed with me when the task seemed to be too difficult, and for that and many other reasons, I love you. To my dog Sparkle, I love you; thank you for cuddling around my feet and keeping them warm as I sat at the computer for hours and hours researching and writing. You are the best puppy for which a pet owner could pray. This is in memoriam of my grandmothers, Mrs. Jennie Stephens Brown and Mrs. Odessa Bonner Sherard, my spiritual leaders and grandparents, Apostle Doris and Bishop William Lewis, and my spiritual grandfather, Chief Apostle John W. Barber. The love, comfort and strength of your spirits uplifted me as I endeavored to finish this research. Even though it saddens my heart that you are not here physically to celebrate with me, I know that the angels are crowded around all of you as you celebrate this achievement for "your grandbaby" in the presence of the Almighty, Jehovah God. …until we meet again…

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have suggested employees should have a sense of enjoyment in either their careers or other aspects of their lives in order to succeed (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003; Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005). The connection between having a sense of enjoyment and career success is applicable to various fields, including the teaching field. Fullan (2001) reported teachers were committed to the education of youth by being dedicated to the job and having some sense of efficacy related to the position of educator. Fullan noted teachers, dedicated and skilled in the profession of teaching, produced results in student academic achievement and weathered the changes within the public school system. In addition to being dedicated and skilled, teachers must hold to the perception their ability can impact student learning. Bandura (1977) defined efficacy as one's "belief in the ability to accomplish stated goals is what shapes our perception, and, therefore, is the deciding factor between whether or not we ascertain those goals" (p. 77). Bandura's definition was supported through his observations of teachers and the perceptions held in relation to their respective abilities. The perceptions were reflected in a teacher's sense of self-efficacy.

Several factors aided in determining and contributing to teacher commitment and efficacy. One particular factor is school leadership. Fullan (2001) suggested school leaders guide the teacher's experience and, in turn, contribute to teacher efficacy. "You cannot get teachers working like this without leaders at all levels guiding and supporting

the process" (Fullan, 2001, p. 5). Nguni, Sleegers, and Denessen (2006) reiterated the relationship between principal leadership behavior and teacher efficacy. Oster (1991) stated the role of the principal is essential in leading and developing teachers to achieve the highest form of mastery and ensure student achievement.

Traditionally, the view of the principal was one of an administrator who performed managerial functions. Finkel (2012) suggested principals actually guide instruction and influence how effectively teachers deliver instruction. Finkel proposed principals have the responsibility to ensure and maintain the effectiveness of teachers, students, and various school operations. Facing constant demands, principals must maintain a certain level of efficacy in order to meet the requirements of the position.

Silverman and Davis (2009) examined the challenges of the building administrator to build a sense of efficacy within the teachers they lead. Studies have highlighted the notion of teacher efficacy. The concept was used to examine how the lack of teacher recognition, a feeling of uncertainty, and a sense of being powerless impacted teacher efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Tschannen-Moran, Wolfolk & Hoy; 1998). Researchers continued to question the principal's understanding in developing or promoting efficacy in teachers. The same researchers inquired whether a principal possessed the efficacy necessary to lead. Hoy, Sweetland, and Smith (2002) suggested principals led in a manner conducive to the mastery of knowledge and experience. Hoy et al. attempted to create a sense of urgency for principals by suggesting student achievement is the desired outcome. A missing variable to attaining this desired outcome is how the principal's style of leadership influences teacher beliefs in successfully executing any given task.

Teachers are expected to teach, manage, and motivate students (Jerald, 2007). Jerrold reported the expectations of teachers were to effectively work with students who were culturally and linguistically diverse, identified as having a learning disability, or living in extenuating circumstances due to their community or home environment. Teachers face increasing challenges with student behavior ranging from mild to extremely violent. Considering these extraneous factors, it is important for the principal to provide efficacious, team-building experiences enabling teachers to perform assigned duties with exceptional skills (Hoy et al., 2002). Pfaff (2000) suggested maintaining the ability to balance daily tasks and responsibilities, while dealing with compliant and non-compliant students, all in a single classroom, requires much dedication and a high sense of efficacy.

Statement of the Problem

Lawrence and Spears (2010) recognized elementary school as the time students acquire the knowledge needed for a strong educational foundation. Many students do not perform at required academic levels resulting in teachers being held accountable for the lack of student achievement in spite of the many factors directly or indirectly influencing this level of achievement (Hipp, 1996). Principals with effective skills as an instructional leader have been indirectly linked to student achievement. Today, principals are being held more accountable for student academic performance. Considerable efforts and interventions led to an increase in student performance, but more is necessary to ensure every child receives the best education possible.

Dimmock (1995) suggested an understanding of principals' behaviors, as related to the duties and responsibilities of teachers, is a concept many are exploring. Daresh

and Ching-Jen (1985) stated the behaviors and actions of principals are factors having a direct, and indirect, influence on teaching and learning. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) reported the style of leadership is crucial to principal success. Whether inside or outside the classroom, Elliott (2000) indicated a teacher's sense of efficacy influenced their performance and was interrelated to student achievement and receptiveness for improvement. Further, the influence or leadership of the building principal could significantly improve the sense of efficacy among teachers.

Leithwood (2005) reported teachers tend to have higher efficacy beliefs when they are comfortable with the working environment, feel supported by administration, and perceive the principal as using administrative influence for the benefit of teachers. Ashton (1984) expounded on the theory of teacher efficacy and expanded the definition to the extent teachers feel confident enough to produce the desired outcomes. Ashton identified two elements to teacher efficacy: personal and general. The personal addresses the degree teachers believe students can learn through the instructional methods delivered. The general speaks to the measure a teacher feels the students can learn. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) created a model for teacher efficacy where teacher judgments were a result of the interaction between an examination of teacher tasks and personal beliefs to determine whether they are capable of effectively teaching the task.

Kurtz and Knight (2004) and Lyons (2010) focused on understanding the influence of principal leadership styles on teacher efficacy. Even though these studies examined different components of leadership as they related to efficacy, the same theme was recurrent in each study: principal leadership has a direct influence on teacher efficacy. Foster and Young (2004) asserted it is equally important for the principal to

understand the measure of a teacher's sense of efficacy in order to lead effectively. Evers and Lakomski (1996) stated the majority of the principal's schedule focuses on managing building operations, ensuring the safety of students and staff, planning and preparing for school-wide functions, and other various responsibilities. Principals must be able to find time to understand the importance of what they do and how it influences the teachers' belief in their ability to effectively deliver instruction. Evers and Lakomski (1996) suggested principals provide training opportunities to enhance efficacy within the teaching staff.

A myriad of studies have been conducted addressing principal leadership styles (Bulach, Boothe, & Pickett, 2006). Additional research examined both principal (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012; Nye, 2008) and teacher efficacy (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000; Prothoroe, 2008), but a limited number of studies simultaneously examined all three areas. This study is intended to add to the existing body of literature by examining whether a relationship exists between principal efficacy, teacher efficacy, and principal leadership styles.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among the following variables: elementary principals' leadership styles, elementary principals' sense of efficacy, elementary teachers' sense of efficacy, elementary teachers' perceptions of principal support, and elementary teachers' years of teaching experience. In order to identify possible differences and relationships, the *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) developed by Northouse (1997), the *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004), and the *Teacher Sense of Efficacy*

Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) were used to collect the data for the study. These instruments were used because of their established reliability and validity. In addition to the collection of demographic data, four non-standard items were used to assess teacher perceptions of principal support.

Research Questions

To evaluate the impact of efficacy, four research questions were presented in this study. Throughout the dissertation, these questions are identified as RQ1, RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4:

RQ1. Is there a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles?

RQ2. Is there a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools?

RQ3. Is there a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy?

RQ4. Is there a difference between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience?

These research questions had the following null and alternative hypotheses.

$H1_{0.}$ There is no difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

$H1_{1.}$ There is a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

$H2_{0.}$ There is no relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

$H2_1$. There is a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

$H3_0$. There is no difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

$H3_1$. There is a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

$H4_0$. There is no difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

$H4_1$. There is a difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

Summary of Methodology

A non-experimental quantitative design, utilizing both descriptive and inferential analyses, was employed to determine differences and examine the relationships among the following variables: elementary principals' leadership styles, elementary principals' sense of efficacy, elementary teachers' sense of efficacy, elementary teachers' perceptions of principal support, and elementary teachers' years of teaching experience. The sample for this study included elementary principals and teachers of two urban districts in the state of Georgia. An urban district was defined as one located in a large urban or metropolitan region serving students from impoverished areas comprised of a high number of students of color, limited English proficiency students, or a district having a majority of schools with extreme needs (Russo, 2004). Data collection was employed via Survey Monkey and consisted of principals completing the LSQ (Northouse, 1997) and the PSES (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). Teachers

completed the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) and four additional items to assess perceptions of principal support. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to include the following: (a) percentages capturing demographic characteristics; (b) means and standard deviations; (c) creation of composite scores and reliability analyses; (d) one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA); (e) Pearson's correlation analysis; and, (f) independent samples *t* test. A more detailed discussion of the methodology can be found in Chapter 3.

Conceptual Framework

The intricate and sophisticated concept of principal leadership has attributed to many debates over the most appropriate model of leadership for educators. Day, Harris, and Hadfield (2001) suggested effective leadership is a situational concept and depends on building relationships with people. Although change is inevitable, effective leaders must be able to respond to the needs of the individuals they lead (Hallinger, 2003). Huber and West (2002) proposed school leaders, in the role of change agents, are key figures in the development of the school by either facilitating or deterring change. As instructional leaders, principals use their influence to guide teachers in an effort to reach the desired results. The leadership style used by school principals has an influence on the sense of efficacy of teachers.

Spencer (1863), a sociologist, observed great leaders are the result of their surroundings and are strongly influenced by their society. In *The Study of Sociology*, Spencer wrote:

> You must admit that the genesis of a great man depends on the long series of complex influences, which has produced the race in which he appears, and the

social state into which that race has slowly grown. Before he can remake his society, his society must remake him. (p. 27)

Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as the belief people have in their ability to organize and carry out tasks required to manage situations in a manner leading to success. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy tend to believe their performance can be based upon the observation of others in the same, or similar, situations. Behavioral change is motivated in others cognitively through successful achievement of performance, experiences, persuasion, and self-motivation. Bandura's theory of self-efficacy applied extensively to the confidence level of teachers and the ability to perform daily tasks. The theory investigated the cognitive level of an individual's beliefs impacting the ability to manage tasks affecting one's behavior, the perception and reaction to certain situations, the nature of the tasks to be addressed, and the response to anxiety impeding the successful completion of the task. "Self-efficacy is a major determinant of behavior when proper incentives and the necessary skills are present" (Bandura, 1977, p. 17). Bandura (1986) argued "perceived self-efficacy results from diverse sources of information conveyed vicariously and through social evaluation, as well as through direct experience" (p. 101).

Teacher efficacy grew from the concept of principal efficacy and recently became prominent in educational discussion. Luthans and Peterson (2002) suggested the efficacy of leaders significantly influences the level of engagement employees exhibit in their work. Goddard and Salloum (2011) implied the way a school performs, the feelings of teachers about themselves, student achievement, and teacher success are enriched by the leader's level of self-efficacy.

The principal is considered the educational leader for the school. The position requires the use of skills and strategies to guide the teachers to improve the instructional process. Horng, Kalogrides, and Loeb (2009) believed effective principals could influence student behavior in addition to other factors used to judge school effectiveness. They suggested student achievement was affected by such factors as the principal's ability to recruit and motivate quality teachers. The role of the principal as the educational leader further required identification and articulation of the school's vision and goals. Other factors mentioned by Horng, Kalogrides, and Loeb were the effective allocation of resources to effectively support teaching and learning. The major goal of instruction is improved academic performance for students. Most importantly, principals support teachers as they design instruction to improve student achievement.

Limitations

Limitations are those aspects of the study the researcher has little to no control (Creswell, 2009). Limitations influence the study in a variety of ways and should be clearly discussed. The following paragraphs describe the limitations to this study.

The researcher had no control over the willingness of a principal or teacher to participate in the study. Potential participants were provided an explanation of the study, purpose, and how data would be collected to assure confidentiality. Having a small sample size consisting of two school districts included in the population contributed to another limitation in the study. The potential population for the study consisted of 120 principals and approximately 5,000 classroom teachers. A total of 69 principals and 706 teachers completed the surveys representing a 57.5% and 14% response rate, respectively. Attempts were made to develop a larger sample large to produce data

generalizable to a larger population. The smaller sample size limited the ability to generalize broadly to other groups.

As this was self- reported data, the researcher had no control of participant responses to the items on the survey. The researcher assumed all participants would complete each of the instruments in an honest manner. Furthermore the researcher had no control over whether or not principals completed all survey instruments in the allotted time for data collection. According to Creswell (2009), it is best to capture the most data in a timely and efficient manner. Recognizing the potential for daily changes to the schedules of participants, instruments were selected to accommodate completion in a short amount of time.

Delimitations

Creswell (2009) explained delimitations as those aspects of a study controlled by the researcher. These included the scope and sequence of the study, identification of potential participants, research questions, and collection of data. This study was delimited to elementary principals and teachers employed in two purposefully selected urban districts in Georgia.

Definitions of Terms

The following terms were applicable to this study:

Attrition Rates: The rate of teachers willingly leaving the profession to pursue other careers, migrating to other schools in other positions, or leaving the profession as a whole (Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997).

Efficacy: "The individual's belief about what he or she can achieve in a given context" (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012, p. 297).

Experienced Teachers: Teachers having a comprehensive knowledge of, or skill in, a particular area in relation to teaching (Boe et al., 1997). For this study, experienced teachers are defined as those having 5 or more years of classroom experience.

Leadership Styles: The manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people (Newstrom & Davis, 1993).

Novice Teachers: Teachers new to, or inexperienced in, the field of teaching or situations relating to teaching (Boe et al., 1997). For this study, novice teachers are those having less than 5 years of classroom experience.

Principal Efficacy: The judgment of one's capabilities to structure a particular course of action in order to produce desired outcomes in a school. (Bandura, 1997).

Perceptions: Views or opinions held by an individual resulting from experience or external factors acting on the individual (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2015).

Principal Support: Support of an administrator who is helpful, provides constructive criticism, and is a positive example through hard work (Hoy, Tarter & Hoy, 2006).

Sense of Efficacy: The capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Teacher: An educator working directly with students to provide academic instruction (Boe et al., 1997).

Teacher Efficacy: The extent teachers believe they can affect student performance (Hipp, 1996).

Urban School District: A district located in an urban area having a relatively high rate of poverty (as measured by Free and Reduced Lunch eligibility), and a relatively large proportion of students of color, Limited English Proficiency, and/or designated as high needs (Russo, 2004).

Significance of the Study

Given many elementary school children across the nation do not meet academic performance standards, especially on mandated standardized tests, principals constantly search for strategies to help guide teachers in the instructional process. Caldwell, Bischoff, and Karri (2002) suggested one's leadership style is crucial to teacher success and necessary for teachers to reach their potential. Caldwell et al. explained how people in our society want to be treated fairly and humanely. Teachers desired the opportunity to grow personally and professionally and seek leaders interested in the needs of all rather than a chosen few. Leadership is described as a collaborative process consisting of guidance and direction. Caldwell et al. identified three elements vital to the concept of leadership: 1) a clear sense of who is providing the direction; 2) a stipulation of the roles and identities of the followers; and, 3) the identification of circumstances in which decisions are to be made. The leader's role is to provide direction and support to followers as needed for personal success as well as the success of the organization. Principals should examine their leadership strategies and willingly invest time and effort to assist in the achievement of teachers' performance goals. Although the leadership styles and skills of principals may vary based on the needs of the school, it may not be appropriate to dictate to employees what they need to do and how they need to do it.

A directive lends to the employee having more respect for the organizational leader when the directive is viewed as supporting the vision of the organization by active engagement in the same manner as the employee. Kotter (2007) stated effective leaders lead by example and challenge employees to do their best. Integrating empathy in the leadership method creates an environment where the employee feels comfortable approaching the leader if there is a problem.

This study intends to provide new insight as to how principals can utilize a leadership style to guide instruction, improve teacher efficacy, and create a culture conducive for maximum teacher performance. Leadership is considered a skill to making ordinary people achieve extraordinary and astonishing things (Kotter, 2007).

The significance of this study is the potential to support changes in practice. The intent is to promote further research in exploring relationships among principal leadership styles and efficacy. Another intent of this study is to encourage additional examination of the relationship between teacher efficacy and the perceptions of principals. The study could be a useful tool for school districts in diagnosing a principal's leadership style to support a nurturing school environment and overall school success. Because it is important for the research field to examine teacher efficacy as impacted by principal leadership, it is also important for educators to explore how efficacy influences instructional practices and/or relationships with students.

Summary

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study including the statement of the problem, the purpose, and research questions to be addressed. In addition, the researcher discussed limitations, delimitations, and identified specific terms utilized in the study.

Chapter 2 includes a detailed discussion of the literature on the leadership styles of principals as well as principal and teacher efficacy. Chapter 3 outlines the specific methodology employed and an explanation of the instruments, sample, and procedures used to collect data. Chapter 4 highlights the findings while Chapter 5 presents the findings as related to the existing literature and identifies implications for practice and research.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the theoretical background and contemporary literature associated to the study of the relationship among principal leadership styles, principal efficacy, teacher efficacy and years of experience. This chapter includes a discussion on leadership theory, efficacy theory, principal leadership styles, and factors affecting the performance of novice and experienced teachers in schools. Included is a review and discussion of the emergence of leadership theories such as Transformational, Transactional, Situational, Laissez-Faire, Autocratic, and Democratic.

Introduction to Leadership

Lyons (2010) suggested early research on leadership focused on people acclaimed as successful leaders. According to Cherry (2006), leaders represented aristocratic rulers who gained positions as heirs within family structures. His premise was people of lesser social standing in the community had fewer opportunities to be selected for leadership positions or to practice leadership skills. The Great Man Theory, popular in the 19th century, supported this concept in the early history of leadership. According to the theory, leaders were chosen based on the notoriety, magnetism, status, great knowledge, or heroic conquests of an individual who was, more often than not, a male (Manasse, 1986).

Story (2000) explained how Carlyle Thomas, in 1888, introduced the aristocratic concept of leadership to the world. Through a careful and precise examination of the actions and patterns of great leaders, Thomas believed the heroic characteristics of others could be a part of the selection of leaders (Story, 2000). Cherry (2006) reported this approach implied the capacity for leadership was inherent; great leaders were born as such and not developed. Stone and Patterson (2005) presented a much different point of view which remained prevalent throughout the 20th century. Citing Herbert Spencer (1980), Stone and Patterson noted great men were the products of the society in which they lived and their actions would be impossible without the historical context gained through personal experience.

Conger (1989) believed leaders were not innately equipped with divine abilities to lead, but reasoned leadership was related to upbringing and training within one's society. Great leaders were a product of the environment, not of ancestry. Popular theorists such as Kouzes and Posner (2007) agreed leadership development was more about investing in others and building up leadership capabilities. Kouzes and Posner stated the best way to develop leaders was to mentor, organize, inspire, train, and equip individuals to become the best they can.

Hollander and Offermann (1990) pointed out flaws in both theories to account for, and measure, the performance of the leader. Though subliminal, the flaw in both theories was significant enough for theorists to start analyzing leadership behaviors and traits. Sashkin and Burke (1990) examined what leaders did and attempted to identify observable leader behaviors. Yukl (2002) explored how good leaders performed and related those behaviors to leadership effectiveness. He suggested structure (task

behavior) and consideration (care for others) were both important when examining leadership styles. Parrett and Budge (2009) sensed leaders must have been aware of the behaviors exhibited in order to evaluate one's overall effectiveness. Two factors were identified while examining leadership behaviors: focus on the task and focus on the people (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1982). These two components appeared throughout many, and varying, types of leadership styles (Berliner, 2004).

The leadership of principals has been imperative to student achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2005). With the initiation of academic accountability mandated by the state and federal government, school principals and teachers were strongly advised to work together to advance student achievement (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, & Hopkins, 2006). The idea of principal leadership having a significant influence on student achievement has been prevalent in the literature (Aleg-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk, 2006). Albeit indirect, principal leadership significantly influenced student achievement and increased teacher effort and student learning (Leithwood et al., 2005). An increase in teacher effort, necessary for improved student achievement, was linked to proactive decisions and measures by principals in such areas as goal setting, instructional support, collaboration, and the continuous support of staff development (Aleg-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005). Other factors leading to increased efforts by teachers, supported by principals, included the protection of instructional time, making provisions for instructional materials, providing the necessary infrastructure, promoting teaching and learning, and allocating more time for professional development to address areas of deficiency.

Leech, Smith, Green, and Fulton (2003) examined teacher perceptions of principal leadership. Collaboration and modeling were found to be common practices employed by most principals and contributed to teacher efficacy. Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) and Leithwood and Riehl (2005) suggested school leaders initiate an effort to create an environment where goal setting and collective efficacy were prevalent among all stakeholders.

Burns' (1978) work on the topic of leadership was a significant contribution to the study of human behaviors and how leadership influenced such behaviors. He described leadership as a moral commitment resulting in the organization of actions connecting others (Burns, 2003). Stogdill (1974) defined leadership through the identification of specific personal characteristics such as (a) capacity, (b) achievement, (c), responsibility, (d), participation, (e), status, and (f) situation. Other theorists expanded this concept and defined school leadership as a set of behaviors to be practiced (Aleg-Malicek & Hoy, 2005; House, 1977; House & Baetz, 1979; House & Howell, 1992; Marzano et al., 2005).

Fiedler (1967) concluded efficient leadership was contingent upon leadership style and the situation existing at the time. Two types of leadership materialized from Fiedler's research: 1) task-oriented; and, 2) relationship-oriented. Task-oriented leadership focused on getting the task completed as opposed to relationship-oriented leadership building morale and promoting personal relationships as a method of team building. Fielder suggested the effectiveness of any leadership style was contingent upon the environment in which the leader functioned. Neither task-oriented leadership nor relationship-oriented leadership was more effective than the other. Further studies by Brandsford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) concluded teachers were more committed to the

task when the relationship-oriented leadership style was more prevalent than the task-oriented style of leadership.

Burns (1978), known as the father of transformation leadership, suggested leadership involved shared motives, goals, and values between leaders and employees. Burns theorized any organization progressing towards its goals must meet the needs of both the leader and the employee.

Modern Leadership Theory

Transformational Leadership

The transformational leadership theory emerged from Burns' (1978) observations of leaders needing employees to be more involved in the decision-making process in order to determine the goals of the organization. Burns viewed transformational leadership as a more powerful approach to leadership because the leader engages others in such a way to increase the levels of motivation and morality for both leader and follower. Burns characterized transformational leadership as a means by which a leader should be able to transform teachers through regular communication pertaining to changes occurring in the school, providing training to enhance professional skills, and building confidence to empower others.

Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) described transformational leadership as the leader moving the follower beyond one's self-interests through influence by using personal persuasion, intellectual stimulation, and personalizing the tasks at hand. Transformational leaders were characterized as paying attention to the individual by understanding and sharing the concerns and developmental needs of each individual (Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987). Leithwood (1992a) suggested principals strive

to ensure their leadership style incorporated three essential elements: 1) helping staff develop and maintain a collaborative and professional school culture; 2) fostering teacher development; and, 3) facilitating the effective resolution of problems.

Green (2003) asserted the principal exhibiting transformational leadership qualities empowered teachers to believe in the achievement of goals far beyond expectations. This shifted the mental model of teachers from self-interest to one of having a unified goal with the leader. A mental model explained an individual's thought processes as it affected the way things work in the real world. According to Green (2003), an individual's positive attitude is the product of the alignment of one's mental model and perception of current reality. Green suggested most people hold true to a personal belief system due to experience and the perception of what is held to be true. Changing one's mind causes a change in one's belief system. Resistance, Green continued, was a common factor for the leader attempting to initiate change in the employee's way of thinking. An examination of the leader's own belief system must take into consideration the personal set of beliefs about leadership held by the employees being supervised; the two belief systems may greatly differ. The difference in perception may cause an unnatural force to arise within the organization and employees.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) suggested leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers. Ross (2006) described transformational leadership as an environment allowing a relationship to emerge between principals and teachers. This relationship created a greater sense of efficacy in teachers related to tasks they were required to perform. Dixon (1998) explained the role of a transformational leader as one ensuring collaborative decision-making occurred in the organization. Transformational leadership

encouraged leaders and employees to work collaboratively to transform organizations and increase overall productivity (Badaracco & Ellsworth, 1989; Book, 1998; Dixon, 1998; Wheatley, 1994).

Keller (1995) suggested transformational leaders have the ability to assist employees in developing self-esteem and self-actualization. Followers of transformational leaders quickly adapted to changing internal and external environments (Leithwood, 1992a; Leithwood, 1992b). Leaders were empowered to perform well in an increasingly demanding organizational environment due to the ability to quickly accept change.

Transactional Leadership

Camburn, Rowan, and Taylor (2004) described transactional leadership as a theory using rewards and punishment to motivate people. Transactional leadership originated from a social exchange perspective. A social contract between leaders and followers and the relationship of the contract to effectiveness was the primary focus of the model (Hollander & Offermann, 1990; Jacobs & Lefgren, 2007; McClelland, 1975; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002; Yukl, 2002). The transactional model addressed the exchange theory and examined the perceptions and expectations of followers regarding the actions and motives of leaders. The follower's perception of fairness, and the willingness of the leader to discuss ideas with the follower, is a key to success or lack thereof. Although rewards and punishments may not have been clearly stated, employees had a sense of understanding about their relationship to performance.

In addition to the reward and punishment component, Wilson and Firestone (1987) suggested employees relinquished all authority to the leader due to a focus on

following the leader's directives. Transactional leadership has involved exchanges between the principal and teachers in terms of performance. For example, when negotiating contracts with teachers, Green (2003) suggested leaders go to a setting that maintains a level of comfort for teachers. The perception held by the leader of the teacher's mental model should be shared with the teachers. Green reported teachers accepting responsibility for professional learning resulted in the leader supporting the personal effort of the respective teachers.

Transactional leaders must be willing to admit mistakes and create a climate for learning characterized by trust and openness (Hoy et al., 2006). Hoy believed this was a key concept for principals desiring to establish a relationship with teachers. A principal taking responsibility for an error creates a climate of mutual trust and respect in the eyes of the teacher (Davies, 2005).

Lashway (2000) stated transactional leaders manage by exception. Transactional leaders are not interested in changing or transforming the work environment or the behavior of employees. Everything remains constant, except for problems, and the opportunity for real goal attainment is created. Transactional leaders increase teacher efficacy if the outcome of the teacher-principal exchange is rewarding. If the exchange is punitive, however, the teachers feel less confident about their job performance. Green (2003) observed teachers competent in providing instruction in the classroom environment have an enhanced sense of self-esteem both as a person and in the ability to teach. It has been important for teachers to feel empowered in establishing instructional methods. The manner in which the transactional leader approaches the management of the work environment can influence and/or improve efficiency and effectiveness.

Situational Leadership

Yukl (2002) suggested the effectiveness of a leader's behavior is dependent on a number of situational factors. These factors include authority and discretion over the followers, the nature of the work performed in the organization, the skills and knowledge levels of the subordinates, and the nature of the external environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined situational leadership as the relationship between the guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader provided, the socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provided, and the willingness (readiness) level followers exhibited in performing the task at hand.

One distinguishing factor of situational leadership is the ability of the leader to determine task-related readiness of the employee. Brown and Barker (2001) suggested situational leadership depended on effectiveness in four areas of communication. Those areas consist of communicating expectations, listening, delegating, and providing feedback. The situational leader has flexibility depending on the respective situation. This style of leadership is contingent upon the behavior of the followers in providing the leader insight as to their readiness to be led and the current situation of the organization.

Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-Faire Leadership

Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-Faire Leadership focus on either the task behavior or relationship behavior of the leader. Northouse (2001) examined how these two behaviors, when combined, convince others to attain a goal.

Northouse (2001) suggested authoritarian leaders control, or exert influence on, subordinates. These leaders are characterized as making all decisions as well as controlling employees through punishment, task orientation, reward, and irrational rules.

They do not encourage collaboration with employees and allow minimal opportunities for employees to be creative or take the initiative concerning a given task.

Democratic leaders do not rule with force (Northouse, 2001). These leaders work with subordinates to ensure equal treatment. The democratic leader serves as a resource for employees and do not undertake the role of taskmaster. They facilitate discussion and encourage the sharing of ideas with employees. Democratic leaders use acquired information from employees to arrive at a consensus in making the best decision for the organization and unifying the group. Decision-making can be tedious as the leader and employees work together to implement new strategies.

Northouse (2001) described laissez-faire leaders as taking a more hands-off approach to leadership. They do not attempt to motivate employees and provide minimal guidance. Laissez-faire leadership gives autonomy and choice to employees. According to Northouse, there is the assumption employees are self-guided professionals. Direction or feedback need not be provided. There is limited communication, involvement, or participation applied to establishing and implementing goals. An instituted organizational plan will have little, if any, input from the laissez-faire leader to ensure the plan is carried out with fidelity.

Leadership Styles Derived From Leadership Theory

Jacobsen (2001) described transformational and transactional leadership styles as similar in having the same foundation when addressing morality. The difference was evident when leaders displayed their ethical perspective concerning leadership. Mirroring both transformation and transactional leadership, situational leadership focused on the conditions at hand and allowed the leader to choose the style best suited to the

situation. Cotton (2003) asserted effective leaders assess the appropriate time to make change in order to address the demands of the moment.

Effective leadership evolved from earlier concepts of scientific management theories in treating workers as machines. The challenge faced by today's leader is how to persuade followers to become involved in achieving organizational goals. McGregor (1964), whose work was linked to behavioral theorists, provided a baseline for the emergence of transformational leadership.

Allen and Eby (2004) explained the styles of leaders and how the work with followers differed depending on the situation at hand. A number of factors are to be considered when examining situational leadership. These components include looking at external relationships, available resources within the organization, management of the group, and organizational culture. A situational leader recognizes a culture needs to place strong emphasis on teamwork and cooperation. A transactional leader approaches the task to be completed as a mandate and determines whether or not the employee receives a reward upon completion of said task.

Transformational leadership was built on the belief leaders focused on developing other leaders within the organization. Both the leaders and followers support and motivate one another resulting in the organization to excel as a whole (Burns, 1978). In contrast, transactional leaders focus on personal ideas and interests. Goldring, Spillane, Huff, Barnes, and Supovitz (2006) suggested the transactional leader communicates clear expectations to followers performing the assigned tasks. Weber (1947) believed it was the sole responsibility of the followers to ensure achievement of established goals through rewards and punishment.

Murphy (1990) stated it was imperative principals, as leaders, understood and applied appropriate leadership styles enabling teachers to perform at the maximum level. Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008) asserted most elementary school settings, comprised of novice and experienced teachers, needed an examination of the level of readiness of all teachers as principals determined an appropriate leadership style. Teacher self-efficacy can be affected by the choice of leadership style applied by the principal.

Leaders utilizing authoritarian and transactional leadership styles maintain a strong sense of control over the employees. The two leadership styles differ in the fact transactional leaders believe in rewards, punishment, and incentives for completing job-related tasks. Authoritarian leaders expect the employees to follow directives regardless of available incentives.

Laissez-faire and situational leadership share a dependency on the follower's readiness relative to decision-making. Differences in the two styles found laissez-faire leadership did not provide leadership for employees, but allowed employees to make decisions, set goals, and offer direction for the organization in spite of their capabilities to do so. Situational leadership provides a sense of control, but decisions were made based upon followers' ideas and suggestions. In situational leadership, the leader confirms the style of leadership suited for each situation (Hershey & Blanchard, 1996).

Democratic and transformational leadership share similar characteristics with the leader investing in human capital by empowering employees to be leaders and relying on group decisions as a plausible course of action (Northouse, 2001). These two leadership styles differ in that the transformational leader is able to increase the ability of the employees despite their skill level. Democratic leaders see themselves as members of the

group. Under this leadership style, teachers have to possess strong skill sets and a high sense of efficacy in order for the organization to attain maximum achievement.

Follower Level of Readiness and Leadership Style

Level of readiness has been defined as the extent followers have the "ability and willingness" to accomplish a specific task (DeLoreto, 2006). If a teacher's level of readiness is deemed low, the principal does not expect to see immediate change in teacher behavior until the skills and knowledge necessary to accomplish a particular task are developed. Gentilucci and Muto (2007) explained the notice of positive change results in the principal immediately rewarding the teacher as a means of motivation toward the desired task behavior. They believed this cycle should be maintained as teacher behavior reflects the leader's expectations of performance.

Hershey and Blanchard (1996) asserted the teacher's level of readiness and the leadership approach used by the principal affected many areas of the job such as performance, stress, satisfaction, and the turnover rate of teachers. All of these areas influence teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

Particular leadership styles correspond with levels of teacher readiness. When working with teachers exhibiting a lower level of readiness, Wenderlich (1997) suggested the leader provide specific direction as to the task to be completed and how to successfully complete the said task. Decisions and instructions by both the leader and followers are leader-directed. Conversely, greater latitude in determining direction and expected outcomes is given by the leader to followers exhibiting a higher level of readiness and understanding. Decisions are made collaboratively. When followers move

from lower to higher levels of readiness, the combination of task and relationship behaviors begin to change with each respective situation.

Hershey and Blanchard (1996) believed every level of readiness has a leadership style linked to a combination of task and relationship behaviors to motivate followers. They defined task behavior as the extent the leader outlines the duties, responsibilities, and expectations for followers. This includes providing direction, specific goals, and defining roles for followers. Winston (2003) suggested this type of task oriented leadership style results in one-way communication with the leader providing specific direction to the followers.

Hershey and Blanchard (1996) defined relationship behavior as whether or not the leader listens to the followers, provides encouragement, and involves them in decision making. A two-way communication exists between the leader and follower (Winston, 2003). Hershey and Blanchard (1996) explained success is achieved when principals consider the situation at hand and combine follower readiness with the proper balance of task and relationship behavior.

Leadership Style and Teacher Experience Levels

There have been many challenges faced by novice teachers in the early years of their teaching careers. Lortie (1975) explained educators have long recognized teaching as a difficult profession with the early years being extremely challenging. According to Lortie, new teachers are often isolated from their colleagues due to the structure of schools. Linking theory and practice was difficult due to a lack of experience. Addressing these challenges is an important factor in the success of the novice teacher.

Protheroe (2008) noted the principal's role is essential to ensure the novice teacher has a successful school year. The principal's style of leadership is imperative to aid in the retention of the novice teacher. Novice teachers are eager, passionate, and confident when entering the profession. The primary challenge for a novice teacher is learning to teach (Brandsford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Brandsford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) suggested the leadership style of leaders has an enormous effect on the beginning teacher's beliefs about personal capabilities, knowledge, and skills brought to the classroom.

Allen and Eby (2004) asserted a harsh reality faces novice teachers in transitioning from teacher training programs to the experience of teaching. Novice teachers note various challenges during the early years of teaching. Student achievement, performance objectives, classroom management, dealing with numerous learning styles, mastering differentiated instructional strategies, and success with state and national assessments confront the new teacher. Zuckerman (2007) suggested classroom management is difficult for the veteran teacher and is especially difficult for the novice teacher who is still learning to work with new colleagues and handling unpredictable events in the classroom.

Hoy, Sweetland, and Smith (2002) surmised principals support the novice teacher's experience through designated staff development activity. Principals assist both the novice and experienced teachers by increasing knowledge relevant to classroom management and mastery of course content. Berliner (2001) suggested a substantial amount of time is needed to develop competence and expertise. Berliner (2001) maintained 5 or more years are necessary to become an expert teacher. Turner's (1995)

study of exemplary teachers suggested it takes 4 to 5 years to learn how to be a successful teacher and 3 to 5 years where events occurring in the classroom are no longer a surprise. Berliner (2001) reported the successful teacher has a repertoire of instructional and behavioral strategies whereas the novice teacher does not feel empowered and is uncertain about one's own abilities.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) recommended novice teachers work with a mentor to assist them in developing skills. This approach instills a sense of efficacy as teachers changed and grow in practice. Denmark & Posden (2000) asserted principals need to be prepared to provide varying levels of administrative support and a myriad of professional development opportunities for novice teachers. Novice teachers are not made aware of how the school functions, who are the stakeholders, or what the community expects (Denmark & Posden, 2000). This results in significantly different needs for the novice teacher as compared to the experienced teacher. Denmark and Posden (2000) believed many principals make the mistake of classifying all teachers in the same category instead of viewing them as divergently separate groups with varying needs. They suggested the principal's leadership style should accommodate both novice teachers and experienced teachers as a means of increasing confidence in one's ability to perform. Principals should have regular conversations with teachers to assess where they are in relation to managing tasks and stress levels.

The principal must take into account how a particular leadership style affects the novice teacher with varying levels of experience. Kohm and Nance (2009) reported a knowledge of the teacher's level of readiness enables the principal to re-examine one's

leadership style to ensure novice and experienced teachers are provided the type of leadership and guidance necessary to achieve maximum potential.

Self-Efficacy Theory

Regarded as the leading theorist on self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as an individual's perception of organizational processes and procedures. Bandura believed individuals with a high level of self-efficacy tend to cognitively motivate behavioral change through successful achievement of performance, experience, persuasion, and self-motivation. Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy applied to the confidence level of teachers and an ability to perform daily tasks. This theory investigated the cognitive level of an individual's opinion pertaining to an ability to manage tasks affecting one's behavior. It impacts how the individual views and reacts in different situations, the type of tasks attempted, and the degree of success in completing the task. Bandura believed self-efficacy is a major determinant of behavior when properly incentivized and the necessary skills are present.

Feltz (1988) explained self-efficacy relates to the judgment attained through an individual's accomplishments with the skill sets they possess. Self-efficacy is observed as confidence in one's abilities based on the task or the situation the individual was facing. Bandura (1997) suggested the amount of self-efficacy held by the individual has a direct influence on the tasks individuals choose to undertake, the amount of expended effort, the amount of time exhausted, and the measure of diligence displayed when facing challenging tasks. The more efficacious a person is, the more this person pursues identified goals with excellence.

Bandura (1986) argued self-efficacy results from one's diverse sources of available information and direct experience. Using Bandura's theory as the model, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) constructed a model to measure teacher and leader efficacy.

Principal Efficacy, Teacher Efficacy and Leadership

Luthans and Peterson (2002) suggested the efficacy of the leader impacts the manner in which an employee is engaged and carries out assigned work. Goddard and Salloum (2011) implied a school's overall success is related to student achievement and can be linked to the success of teachers. They contended the success of teachers is enhanced by the leader's level of self-efficacy. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2007) suggested the process of developing an efficacious principal is contingent upon the principal being provided mentors having a high sense of efficacy, personal achievement, and successful experience gained through leading schools.

Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2007) reported the efficacy of the principal fluctuates and depends on successful leadership, the culture and climate of the school, the effectiveness of a mentor's experience, the amount of professional learning acquired, and feedback received once in an administrative position. Goddard and Salloum (2011) stated school districts should understand the principal's sense of self-efficacy impacts teacher motivation, recruitment, attitudes, retention, and student achievement. Urban school districts found the recruitment and retention of principals, possessing the efficacy to lead, is a challenge due to the lack of training and leader support (Goddard & Salloum, 2011). Goddard and Salloum (2011) believed the personal experience and leadership

style of a principal assists school district officials in selecting, training, recruiting, mentoring, and retaining efficacious principals in urban schools.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) found principals prepared in high quality programs are more likely to become successful instructional leaders committed and efficacious in their work. Further observation by Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) found principals acquiring mastery through experience and mentoring provided guidance in handling stressors associated to job-related tasks, dealing with challenging situations and people, and overcoming feelings of meagerness. Aspiring, new, and experienced principals need to be provided programs affording opportunities to develop efficacy (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007). Such programs result in strengthened personal beliefs of the principal and an ability to set proper goals, manage instruction and discipline, provide direction, and impact teaching and learning for the teachers and students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007).

The performance of teachers, students, and staff may be impacted in a negative manner when the principal begins to lose a sense of self-efficacy and leads to a lack of motivation in setting and achieving goals (McCormick, 2001). The commitment level of followers dwindles due to the loss of personal efficacy. The level of engagement between the principal and followers, as well as a commitment to the organization, can be negatively compromised. Schaufeli and Salanova (2007) suggested job burnout and dissatisfaction are major contributors to experiencing a lower sense of self-efficacy.

The U.S. Department of Education (2006) conducted a series of teacher focus groups identifying specific needs of teachers and perceptions of principal leadership. DePaul (2000) suggested supportive principals play a key role in helping teachers take

part in professional development and fully utilizing planning time. Teachers with formal opportunities to learn and collaborate find principals can increase teacher motivation and morale by taking time to work alongside them (DePaul. 2000).

Buchen (1998) reported teachers believe principals should have an open door policy, provide mentorship, and be non-judgmental in the observation of teachers. A collaborative working environment increases efficacy and competence levels. Kurtz and Knight (2004) believed approachable and understanding principals could affect a teacher's willingness to perform and enhance the belief in one's ability to function at a higher level.

DuFour and Marzano (2009) believed principals must learn the key to school improvement involves creating a culture of collaboration. The principal continues to work with teachers in developing the capacity of the organization. Through the collaborative process, principals assist teachers in becoming a member of a professional learning community. Confidence is a critical component of successful instruction lacking in new teachers (Mitchell, 1997). Mitchell believed proactive actions by principals are essential in supporting teachers to develop a sense of efficacy and growth in their profession. Coladarci (1992) asserted increased self-efficacy influences the teacher's ability and willingness to execute any given task in the classroom.

Pajares (2002) suggested a high sense of self-efficacy strongly influences individual achievement levels. Pajares felt it is important to expand upon teacher confidence to develop higher levels of self-efficacy. Bolman and Deal (2008) wrote successful leadership develops followers who believe in themselves. By believing, people are encouraged to link positive events with success. Pearson (1998) stated the

ability to create self-efficacy in teachers is dependent on the credibility of the principal in dealing with teachers.

Teacher self-efficacy, retention, and job satisfaction are contingent on the leadership style of the principal (Schultz & Teddlie 1989). Schultz and Teddlie (1989) explained how a principal must examine one's leadership style. When shared, the examination increases the confidence and satisfaction level of teachers. The result of such an examination finds teachers motivated to maximize the use of professional resources and personal creativity. Good leaders care about their work and the people who help achieve the goals of the organization (Schultz & Teddlie, 1989).

The National Education Association (NEA, 2011) suggested the lack of support and incompetency of building level administrators are contributing factors to lower levels of teacher competence. The NEA determined it is the job of the principal to ensure the needs of teachers are met in order to exhibit growth. Recommended measures such as collaborative planning, positive feedback, and shared decision-making help teachers feel competent and confident in completing any given task and can result in an increased sense of self-efficacy.

Summary

Chapter 2 provided a review of the literature on principal leadership, efficacy, leadership theory, and leadership styles. The chapter examined how the topics are interrelated and led principals and teachers to work efficiently and effectively toward student achievement. Chapter 3 provides a synopsis of the methodology and the procedures used to collect the data. The chapter will include a detailed description of the

population and sample used in the study. Chapter 4 provides a summary of the findings and Chapter 5 contains the Findings and Conclusions for the study.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Although a myriad of studies have been conducted on the leadership styles (Bulach, Boothe, & Pickett, 2006) and efficacy of principals (Federici & Skaalvik, 2012; Nye, 2008), and teacher efficacy (Hoy, 2012; Prothoroe, 2008), research simultaneously examining all areas was limited. The aim of this study is to add to the existing body of literature relevant to the respective areas.

The general population for the study included elementary school principals and teachers in two selected school districts in Georgia. Districts were selected purposefully based on the demographics identifying the districts as urban. For the purpose of this study, the definition of the urban school district was one of serving a large number of students in an urban area with a high-poverty level based on having approximately 50% or more of the students classified as economically disadvantaged due to eligibility for free or reduced-priced meals. Data collection instruments for principals included the *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) developed by Northouse (2001) and the *Principal Self-Efficacy Scale* (PSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004). Data collection instruments for teachers included the *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES) created by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) and four items assessing teacher perceptions of principal support.

This chapter outlines the specific methodology employed for the study and includes the following sections: Research Design, Research Questions, Population and Sample, Instrumentation, Data Collection and Procedures, Data Analysis, and Summary.

Research Design

A non-experimental quantitative design utilizing descriptive and inferential analysis was employed in order to determine differences and examine the relationships among the following variables at the elementary level: principal leadership styles, principals' sense of efficacy, teachers' sense of efficacy, teacher perceptions of principal support, and teachers' years of experience. Creswell (2008) explained how non-experimental research focuses on descriptive and correlation designs. The study combined both designs as the purpose of the study focused on examining a sense of efficacy through descriptive and relationship lenses.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) noted quantitative descriptive research is used to describe differences from data collected through observations and surveys. Quantitative descriptive designs focus on phenomenon in a naturally occurring environment. The designs often utilize descriptive statistics to provide information on the data collected. RQ1, RQ3 and RQ4 in this study were considered descriptive questions. Although the data collected were analyzed using inferential statistics, the purpose of RQ1, RQ3 and RQ4 was to describe any differences existing among the variables examined.

Mitchell and Jolley (2010) contended correlation research assesses the relationships between or among two or more variables. Although correlation research indicates the strength and direction of a relationship, it does not indicate causation. Correlation research may be used to predict or explain how variables are related. The

variables of elementary principals' leadership style, elementary principals' sense of efficacy, elementary teachers' sense of efficacy, and elementary teachers' years of experience were explored to determine if a relationship existed. The correlation aspect of the study was an explanatory correlation design. Creswell (2008) explained this type of design was used to describe "the extent to which two or more variables co-vary; that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other" (p. 358). This design was most appropriate to examine the relationships explored in RQ2 of this study.

Research Questions

This study was guided by four research questions. These questions are identified as RQ1, RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4.

RQ1. Is there a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles?

RQ2. Is there a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools?

RQ3. Is there a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy?

RQ4. Is there a difference between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience?

These research questions had the following null and alternative hypotheses:

$H1_{0.}$ There is no difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

$H1_{1.}$ There is a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

$H2_0$. There is no relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

$H2_1$. There is a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

$H3_0$. There is no difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

$H3_1$. There is a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

$H4_0$. There is no difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

$H4_1$. There is a difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

Population

Creswell (2008) explained how sampling in quantitative research is most effective when an authentically random sample is selected. The sampling process for this study included purposeful sampling of the districts based on the identification as urban districts and elementary school principals and teachers. Purposeful sampling is perceived as a qualitative sampling strategy where the researcher aims to select the individuals providing the best information for the study (Creswell, 2008).

The purposeful sampling occurred as the school districts for the study were chosen specifically for their identification as urban districts. To be classified as urban, schools must be located in an urban area rather than a rural, small town, or suburban area. Urban district schools may be designated as High Needs, but will have a high rate of

poverty (measured by the number of students receiving free and reduced lunch), a high proportion of students of color, and a high percentage of students identified as Limited English Proficient (LEP) (Russo, 2004). Urban schools were chosen because they tend to perform lower on academic measures than suburban or rural schools.

A detailed description is provided for each of the two districts included in the study. In order to maintain confidentiality, districts were identified as District A and District B. Data for each demographic profile for the districts were collected from the Georgia Department of Education (GADOE) website as well as each district's respective website. Enrollment, free and reduced lunch status, and special programs data were collected from each district's 2012-2013 report cards. Data reflecting accountability were based on scores using Georgia's new accountability system, the College and Career Ready Performance Index (CCRPI). The CCRPI scores districts and schools in three main areas: achievement (70 points), progress (15 points), and achievement gap (15 points). This system of accountability replaced Adequately Yearly Progress (AYP) in 2012.

District A is a large district of more than 142 students in grades Pre-K-5. The website of the district lists 77 schools as regular elementary, magnet, charter or arts-based elementary schools. Student demographics are representative of the urban designation as approximately 81% of the student population was identified as Black or Hispanic, and 71% of the student population qualified for free or reduced lunch. The district served an LEP population representing more than 10% of the total enrollment. More than 15% of the students in grades PreK-5 participated in the Early Intervention Program (EIP).

District A did not make AYP in 2011. The 2013 CCRPI scores for the elementary schools ranged from 60 to 63 points out of a possible 100 points.

District B is the larger of the two districts with a reported student enrollment of more than 73,497 elementary students according to the 2012-2013 report card. The district serves elementary-aged students in approximately 83 elementary schools. District B was the most racially, ethnically and linguistically diverse of the two. Students of color accounted for approximately 70% of the enrollment with 10% of the students identified as English Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Racial and ethnic backgrounds consisted of Black, Hispanic, Asian, and multiracial. Other descriptors for the district included the following: LEP students accounted for more than 15% of the population; more than 50% of the students received free or reduced lunch; and approximately 11% of students were identified as Students with Disabilities (SWD). District B did not make AYP in 2011. The 2013 CCRPI scores for the elementary schools in this district ranged from 75 to 86 points out of a possible 100 points.

Sample

The sample for the study included elementary school principals and teachers from Districts A and B. Participants from the two urban school districts represented principals with varying leadership styles (i.e., authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire) and teachers with a range of years teaching experience.

Schools designated as elementary, or serving students in Grades PreK-5, and identified as potential schools for the sample resulted in a sample size of 120 principals. Emails were sent to principals of all 120 schools. A response rate of 50% was the goal for the study. Because surveys were sent electronically to potential participants, the

response rate could be less than the desired percent. Nulty (2008) indicated online surveys received fewer responses than paper-based surveys resulting in a lower response rate than surveys administered on paper.

Instrumentation

Four instruments were used to collect data for the study. The *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) and *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) were used to determine principal leadership style and sense of efficacy. The *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES) was used to determine teacher efficacy. Additionally, four items were included to assess a teacher's perception of principal support. The specific development, intended use, number of items, types of scales, validity, and reliability of each instrument is discussed below.

Leadership Style. Northouse's (1997) *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) was designed to quantify three universal leadership styles: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. Northouse suggested these leadership styles are characterized by the following:

1. Authoritarian leaders need to control subordinates or exert influence.
2. Democratic leaders do not rule with force, but work with subordinates to ensure equal treatment and serve as resources for employees instead of being seen as taskmasters.
3. Laissez-Faire leaders practice a hands-off approach with employees by not motivating, ignoring ideas, and providing minimal guidance.

To examine specific traits of authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leaders, and to help leaders identify strengths and areas of need, Northouse (2001) developed the

LSQ. The LSQ is an 18-item instrument leaders can use to understand how their leadership styles affect those under their supervision. It aids in utilizing leadership styles to further examine leadership. The 18 items on the LSQ examine qualities of leadership as shown in Appendix C. Specifically, the LSQ measures the following areas: communication (2 items), leadership (3 items), adaptability (2 items), relationships (2 items), task management (2 items), production (2 items), development of others (2 items) and personal development (2 items).

Each of the items on the LSQ represents a leadership style (authoritarian, democratic, and laissez faire). The 18 items are scored on a scale of 1 to 5 with one representing *strongly disagree* and five representing *strongly agree*. In order to determine the most prevalent leadership styles, scores were totaled for items associated with each style of leadership.

The LSQ includes a scoring method allowing the researcher to assess the dominance of each leadership style for a given individual. Score interpretation included the following categories: *very high range, high range, moderate range, low range, and very low range*. If the participant's score ranged from 26 to 30 in any area, a specific leadership style was identified as very dominant. For example, participants receiving a score of 28 on items aligned with the democratic leadership style were deemed to be very dominant in the democratic leadership style. Scores ranging from 21 to 25 were considered a little less dominant, but still in the high range. Leaders having scores fall in a 16 to 20 range were considered as moderate in the respective style of leadership.

Information on the reliability and validity of the LSQ was not readily available. In an attempt to locate the information, the publisher of the survey, Sage Publications,

Inc., was contacted. The following response was received from the Digital Content Manager:

> The Acquisition Editor conveyed that there really were no statistical procedures used to test the validity of the survey tool. These survey tools were not designed for research purposes, but rather are meant to encourage self-reflection for the student and to promote discussion in the classroom. Northouse drew on 30 plus years of teaching to develop these surveys to help students determine where their strengths and weaknesses might be as leaders. (personal communication, 2014)

The lack of statistical procedures completed by the developer to test the validity of the survey tool is a recognized limitation of this study. Bosiok's (1993) study of creativity and leadership styles reported reliability coefficient was 0.887 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's coefficient was 0.896. Each of these coefficients suggests the scale is a reliable and valid measure of authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale. The leadership style of the principal is just as important as efficacy when it comes to one's ability to lead. Although information on principal leadership is extensive, the sense of efficacy of principals has been difficult to capture (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004). In "Principals' Sense of Efficacy: Capturing a Promising Construct," Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) examined three measures of principal efficacy and discussed the development of the Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale (PSES) and the alignment with the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) designed by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001). In order to develop the PSES, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis utilized the following procedures:

1. Using the professional standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), 50 items were developed for the scale;
2. These 50 items were submitted to a panel of experts including three professors of educational leadership and one superintendent;
3. The 50 items were field tested with 10 former principals; and,
4. The 50 items were refined and the instrument was tested with 544 principals in Virginia. In addition to the 50 items, the principals completed 5 items examining how work alienation negatively impacts a principal's sense of efficacy; 21 items examined personal (i.e., education, years of experience, etc.) and school-based demographics (i.e., school grade level, school context, number of free and reduced lunch recipients, racial composition, etc.).

After data were analyzed for the tested instrument, the number of items was reduced to 18 based on the communality among factors as shown in Appendix D. Three subscales were identified. The subscales addressed principal efficacy related to management, instructional leadership, and moral leadership. Six items comprised each of the subscales. Items on the management subscale had factor loadings ranging from 0.53 to 0.83; items on the instructional leadership subscale had factor loadings varying from 0.48 to 0.81; and, items on the moral leadership subscale had factor loadings extending from 0.48 to 0.78.

Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) tested the construct validity of the PSES and confirmed work alienation was negatively related to the principal's sense of efficacy ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$). Trust in teachers ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) and students and parents ($r = .47$, $p < .01$) was positively related. Further analyses revealed principal efficacy was not

impacted by student race or ethnicity or the principal's years of experience. Table 1 provides information on the construct validity of the PSES.

Table 1

Correlations Between Principal Sense of Efficacy and Validity Variables

Correlates	2	3	4	5	6	7
Principal sense of efficacy	0.79**	0.86**	0.85**	0.45**	0.42**	0.47**
PSE for instruction		0.46**	0.58**	0.41**	0.44**	0.39**
PSE for management			0.79**	0.86**	0.85**	0.45**
PSE for moral leadership				0.79**	0.86**	0.85**
Work alienation					0.37**	0.44**
Principal trust in teachers						0.48**
Principal trust in students and parents						

Notes: N = 544, *p < 0.05, and ** p < 0.01

PSES Scoring. The 18 items on the PSES ask principals, "In your current role as principal, to what extent can you…" Items are rated on a scale of 1 indicating *Not at all* to 9 indicating *A great deal* as related to the identified task. Scoring of the PSES is computed by calculating the mean and standard deviation for the 18 survey items and each of the 6 items on the 3 subscales. Calculating all 18 items provided the researcher data on a principal's overall sense of efficacy. The means of each subscale presented the researcher with data on the principal's sense of efficacy in each of the areas.

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale. The *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES), developed in 2001 by Tschannen-Moran, is located in Appendix E. The development of the TSES occurred after the researchers reviewed several measures to examine teacher efficacy. The measures were deemed insufficient and contained many problems for the researchers (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) noted a variety of issues with tests measuring teacher efficacy. Researchers continue to question

the validity and reliability of varied measures. A number of measures present a two-factor element when subjected to factor analysis. Confusion, and questions, about what the two factors represent pose problems for researchers using TSES.

As researchers work to increase the validity and reliability of the instrument, unresolved issues continue to arise in measuring teacher efficacy. Disagreement continues relative to the conceptualization of teacher efficacy. Such disagreements contributed to a lack of clarity in measuring the construct. Questions continue about the extent teacher efficacy relates to a given context and the extent efficacy beliefs transfer to other contexts. It has been deemed difficult to determine the level of specificity in measuring teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

The development of the TSES centered on using Bandura's (1997) TSES as a model. The 10 members of the development team – two named researchers and eight graduate students – initially constructed 100 items perceived to reflect the tasks of teaching. The scale consisted of 23 items from Bandura's original scale with additional items created by each team member. After a process of deduction, 52 items were included in the first draft of the scale. The items on the TSES were tested in three separate studies with 224, 217, and 410 participants. After a first analysis of the scale, the initial 52 items were reduced to 32 items. The second study resulted in a further decrease to 18 items with an additional 18 items now included. These 36 items were separated into a long (24-item) and short (12-item) form of the survey consisting of three subscales. The subscales were identified as *Efficacy in Student Engagement* (SE), *Efficacy in Instructional Practices* (IP), and *Efficacy in Classroom Management.* A third study of the TSES was completed in response to the concerns of the researchers. Roberts

and Henson (2001) challenged the usefulness of the CM subscale and recommended its deletion. Because Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) considered a teacher's ability to effectively manage the classroom as a viable component of teaching tasks, the CM subscale was retained and revised. The revision was developed using Emmer's (1990) classroom management scale. Validating the CM subscale and other subscales consisted of the revised instrument being field tested with a class of students and, then, administered to 483 pre-service and in-service teachers. A distribution of items based on the subscales for each form is illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

TSES Distribution of Items

Areas	Short Form	Long Form
Engagement	2, 4, 7, 11	1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, and 22
Instruction	5, 9, 10, 12	7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, and 24
Management	1, 3, 6, 8	3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, and 21

Reliability for each of the subscales comprising the long form was as follows: 0.87 for SE, 0.91 for IP and 0.90 for CM. Correlation among the scales was 0.58 for SE, 0.60 for IP, and 0.70 for CM ($p. < .0001$). Further analysis demonstrated the inter-correlation between the short and long forms to be high and ranging from 0.95 to 0.98. Further details regarding the means and standard deviations for both forms are included in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for TSES Subscales, Long and Short Forms

	Long Form			Mean	Short Form	
Areas	Mean	SD	α		SD	α
TSES	7.1	.94	.94	7.1	.98	.90
Engagement	7.3	1.1	.87	7.2	1.2	.81
Instruction	7.3	1.1	.91	7.3	1.2	.86
Management	6.7	1.1	.90	6.7	1.2	.86

Construct validity was determined for both the long and short forms of the TSES by comparing the instrument to other existing measures of teacher efficacy. Participants of Study 3 completed the Rand items and a 10-item survey adapted from Gibson and Dembo's TES (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993). The TSES was positively related to the Rand items ($r = 0.18$ and 0.53, $p < 0.01$), the personal ($r = 0.64$, $p < 0.01$), and general ($r = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$) teaching efficacy scales of the TES.

TSES Scoring. For the purposes of this study, teachers completed the 24-item long form. The long form of the TSES posed questions starting with "*how…"* and "*to what extent*…" Teachers responded to the items rating each on a scale of 1 indicating *not at all* to 9 representing *a great deal*. The TSES was scored calculating the mean of the 24 survey items and the 8 items within the 3 subscales. Calculating all 24 items provided data on the principal's overall sense of efficacy. A calculation of the mean within each of the subscales provided data relevant to the principal's sense of efficacy in each of those identified areas.

Teacher Perception of Principal Support. Four non-standard items gauged a teacher's perception of the level of support provided by the principal. The items were included at the end of the teacher survey and answered using a 5-point Likert scale where 1 indicates *no support* and 5 indicates *a great deal of support*. The scale consisted of the

following questions:

1. How much attention does your principal give to your professional growth?
2. How reasonable are the expectations for student achievement at this school?
3. How much support does the principal at this school give to the teaching staff?
4. How useful is the feedback the principal at this school gives you?

The four questions were created by the researcher to assess teacher perceptions of principal support with a mean score calculated for each of the questions. The survey instrument is found in Appendix F.

Data Collection and Procedures

Standard procedures occurred in the data collection phase of the study. Creswell (2008) warned a variation of procedures can introduce bias into the study. The researcher followed specific procedures in order to eliminate the potential for bias. The plan for data collection included the following steps:

1. The researcher completed a successful proposal defense and submitted an application to conduct research to the Valdosta State University (VSU) Institutional Review Board (IRB). An application to the VSU IRB included the application, informed consent, a copy of all instruments with permission to use such instruments, approval from the school districts, and the completion of the training for the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) at the University of Miami.
2. The researcher uploaded and tested all instruments to be used to collect data. All surveys were uploaded to Survey Monkey.

3. Upon receipt of IRB (Appendix A) approval to conduct the study, research applications were submitted to the Director of Research, Assessments and Grants for District A and the Executive Director of Research and Evaluation from District B.
4. Once approval was received from each of the districts, the researcher requested a file of email addresses of all elementary school principals in the district. All elementary school principals were emailed and invited to participate in the study. Invitation emails included an introduction letter, copy of the informed consent, and links to the LSQ and the PSES.
5. After principals agreed to participate in the study, an invitation to participate in the study was emailed by the researcher to all teachers in the respective schools. The email included an introduction letter, consent form, and links to the demographic form and TSES.
6. After 1 week, the researcher sent a follow-up email to all principals and teachers. The follow-up email thanked the principals and teachers who completed the surveys and served as a gentle reminder for principals having not completed the survey. The reminder indicated the survey would remain open for another 7 days.
7. After a total of 2 weeks or 14 days, all surveys were closed and data were organized for analysis.
8. Data were uploaded to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program to analyze, perform data entry, and create graphs and tables for analysis.
9. Data were analyzed in SPSS using both descriptive and inferential statistics; findings for each of the research questions were identified.

10. The final dissertation was written. If requested as a stipulation of research approval, copies of the final dissertation were made available to each school district's department monitoring research.

Ethical considerations, as outlined by the IRB, were followed for the study. Participant emails were not used for any purpose other than to communicate information regarding the study. Only two emails, as noted above, were disseminated to participants to avoid any sense of coercion to participate. Further steps ensuring the ethical rigor of this study included the use of pseudonyms for all districts and the reporting of data in aggregate form to prevent individual leaders or teachers from being identified.

Data Analysis

Data collected for the study were uploaded to SPSS and analyzed quantitatively in order to examine relationships and determine differences. Analyses were both descriptive and inferential and included the following: (a) percentages to report demographic characteristics, (b) means and standard deviations, (c) the creation of composite scores and reliability analyses, (d) a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), (e) the Pearson's correlation analysis, and (f) an independent samples *t* test. Demographics of participating principals represented personal and school related factors. Teacher demographic data provided information about teacher experience, education, and grade level taught. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the four survey instruments.

Composite scores were created for principal leadership style (LSQ), principal self-efficacy (PSES), teacher self-efficacy (TSES), and teacher perceptions of principal support. Reliability analyses determined internal consistency of items on the newly

created composite scores. The internal reliability analysis determined how consistently participants respond to a set of particular items.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine the answer to RQ1. An ANOVA is a linear model analysis in which the independent variable is categorical and the dependent variable in continuous (Hseltman, 2014, p. 116). In RQ1, the categorical independent variable was the principal's leadership style (authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire) with the dependent variable represented by the principal's self-efficacy score. A correlation analysis was used to assess to RQ2. A correlation is conducted in order to determine the relationship between a continuous independent and dependent variable. In RQ2, the dependent variable was the elementary teacher's sense of self-efficacy and the independent variable was the teacher's perception of principal support. A correlation indicates how two variables change in relation to one another and provides an index of the strength and direction of any change (Hseltman, 2014). The correlation analysis examined whether the relationship between the dependent and independent items was strong (e.g., the correlation coefficient was close to 1) and positive or negative. A positive correlation indicates as one variable increases, the other variable also increases. A negative correlation signifies one variable increases as the other variable decreases. Suter (2006) wrote the *t* test is one of the most commonly used statistical tests. The two types of *t* tests are independent group's *t* and paired *t*. Independent group *t* tests were used in this study to answer RQ3 and RQ4. For RQ3, self-efficacy scores were compared by role (teacher vs. principal). RQ4 self-efficacy scores for elementary teachers were compared by years of experience grouped to illustrate less than 5 years and 5 or more years. The alpha value was set to .05 for all inferential statistical analyses.

Summary

Chapter 3 provided a discussion of the research design, questions, and null and alternative hypotheses; population and sample; instrumentation, data collection and procedures; and data analysis and summary. Chapter 4 will present the results with Chapter 5 to include a summary, conclusion, implications, and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

This study examined the sense of efficacy and leadership of principals and the teacher's sense of efficacy, perceptions of principal support and years of experience. Data were used to determine if principal leadership styles were related to a sense of efficacy. An examination was undertaken to determine if a relationship existed between the teacher's sense of efficacy and a perception of principal support. Differences in the sense of efficacy of teachers were examined to determine if years of experience impacted one's sense of efficacy. Data collection instruments were the *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) developed by Northouse (1997), the *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004), the *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001), and four items assessing teachers' perceptions of principal support.

Descriptive Statistics

Of the 120 principals working in the two selected districts, 69 responded to the survey and represented a 57.5% response rate. Forty-one principals from District A and 28 principals from District B participated in the study. A composite score for principal self-efficacy was created from the mean of the 18 items on the Principal Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale. Principal responses to the Leadership Styles Questionnaire were tallied using specific items to assess authoritarian, democratic or laissez-faire leadership styles. Principals were categorized according to the highest scoring leadership style.

Principals having identical scores between the leadership styles were ranked equally and categorized as a "tie."

Of the more than 5,000 teachers eligible to participate, 706 took part in the study by answering the survey, and represents a 14% response rate. District A had 439 teachers complete the survey with 267 teachers from District B completing the survey. A composite score for teacher self-efficacy was calculated from the mean scores of the 24 items on the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale. Teacher perceptions of principal support were determined from the mean score calculated using four items allocated to principal support for teachers and collected with the demographic data. The four questions were included on the teacher survey and were not a part of the TSES standardized form. They were listed as questions 5-12 under Raw Teacher Data. Participants responded to the questions using a Likert scale. Responses ranged from one, *no support,* to five, *a great deal of support*.

To assess the internal consistency of the questions on the subscales and examine the reliability of the other instruments used in the study, Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis was performed. George and Mallery (2010) suggested guidelines for reliability where alpha values greater than .90 indicate excellent reliability, alpha values greater than .80 indicate good reliability, alpha values greater than .70 indicate acceptable reliability, alpha values greater than .60 indicate questionable reliability, and alpha values less than .60 indicate unacceptable reliability. These values were used to evaluate each scale.

The *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* had excellent reliability ($\alpha = .94$). The *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* had excellent reliability ($\alpha = .98$). Teacher perceptions

of principal support had good reliability (α = .85). The Principal *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* had unacceptable reliability (α = .33) due, in part, to the small sample size. Given the psychometric properties of reliability and validity established by other researchers (Bosiok, 2013), and the fact it was used to create a grouping variable, this low reliability was unlikely to bias any of the conclusions drawn from the inferential statistical analyses. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Analysis

Composite	α	No. of items
Principal Leadership Styles Questionnaire	.33	18
Principal Self-Efficacy	.94	18
Teacher Self-Efficacy	.98	24
Teacher Perceptions of Principal Support	.85	4

Principal Leadership Styles scores ranged from 41.00 to 65.00 with a mean score of 53.64 (*SD* = 5.79). Principal self-efficacy scores extended from 2.17 to 8.56 with a mean score of 5.22 (*SD* = 1.60). Teacher self-efficacy scores ranged 1.50 to 9.00 with a mean score of 6.00 (*SD* = 1.55). Scores for teacher perceptions of principal support varied from 1.00 to 5.00 and having a mean score of 2.97 (*SD* = 0.95).

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Continuous Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Principal Leadership Styles Questionnaire	53.64	5.79
Principal Self-Efficacy	5.22	1.60
Teacher Self-Efficacy	6.00	1.55
Teacher Perceptions of Principal Support	2.97	0.95

Most of the principals were found to employ a democratic leadership style (31, 45%), 20 principals (29%) were categorized as laissez-faire, 14 (20%) were categorized as authoritarian, and 4 principals (6%) were tied between categories. The frequencies (*n*) and percentages for each leadership style are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages for Leadership Style

Leadership Style	*n*	%
Authoritarian	14	20
Democratic	31	45
Laissez-Faire	20	29
Tie	4	6

Results for Research Question 1

Is there a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles?

$H1_0$. There is no difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

$H1_1$. There is a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles.

The assessment of Research Question 1 utilized a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with principal self-efficacy scores as the outcome variable and principal leadership category as the independent variable. Within the preliminary analysis, the assumption of normality was checked with the Shapiro-Wilk test. The results from the Shapiro-Wilk test were not significant, $p = .432$, indicating the assumption was met. The assumption of equality of variance was examined using Levene's test. The results of the

test were significant, $p < .001$, thus violating the assumption. Stevens (2009) suggested the ANOVA is a robust analysis despite violations of equality of variance and the group sizes did not exceed a 3:2 ratio between them.

The results of the ANOVA were not significant, $F(3, 65) = 0.40$, $p = .753$, $\eta^2_p = .02$, and suggested no difference in principal self-efficacy by leadership style. The full statistical results for the ANOVA are presented in Table 7 and illustrate the Type III Sum of Squares (*SS*), degrees of freedom (*df*), Mean Square (*MS*), *F* obtained (*F*), *p* value and partial eta squared effect size for the leadership style variable. Table 7 reflects no difference in principal self-efficacy scores based upon leadership style.

Table 7

Results of ANOVA for Principal Self-Efficacy by Leadership Style

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	Partial η^2
Leadership Style	3.17	3	1.06	0.40	.753	.02
Error	171.25	65	2.64			

Means and standard deviations for principal self-efficacy by leadership style are presented in Table 8 with Figure 1 providing a visual depiction of the means. No significant differences were evident in principal self-efficacy scores depending on leadership style.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations for Principal Self-Efficacy by Leadership Style

Leadership Style	*M*	*SD*	*n*
Authoritarian	5.47	0.98	14
Democratic	5.08	2.16	31
Laissez-Faire	5.14	0.88	20
Tie	5.85	1.18	4

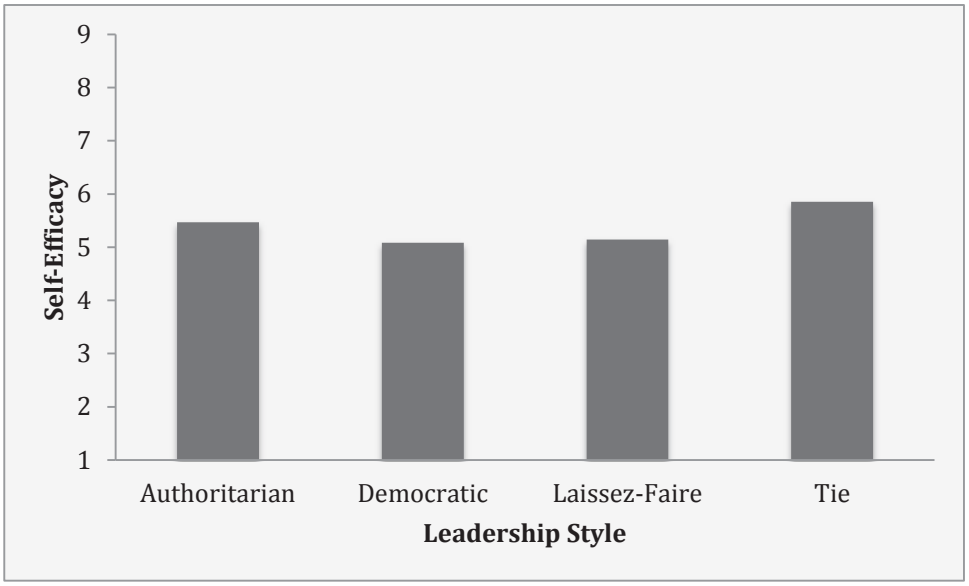

Figure 1. Principal Self-efficacy Scores by Leadership Style

Results for Research Question 2

Is there a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools?

$H2_0$. There is no relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

$H2_1$. There is a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools.

Research Question 2 was assessed using a Pearson's correlation between teacher self-efficacy scores and teacher perceptions of the principals. The results indicated a significant positive correction, $r\ (701) = .44$, $p < .001$. This is interpreted to indicate as teachers' perceptions of principal support increase, teacher self-efficacy increases.

Results for Research Question 3

Is there a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy?

$H3_0$. There is no difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

$H3_1$. There is a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy.

An independent sample *t* test was conducted to assess Research Question 3 for differences in self-efficacy by role (principal vs. teacher). An assumption of normality was assessed using a Shapiro-Wilk test. The result of the test was significant, $p < .001$, violating the assumption of normality. Howell (2010) suggested the *t* test is robust despite violations of normality. The assumption of equality of variance was assessed using Levene's test. The result of the test was not significant, $p = .682$, indicating the assumption of equality of variance was met.

The results of the independent sample *t* test were significant, $t(773) = 3.98$, $p < .001$, suggesting there was a difference in self-efficacy by role (principal vs. teacher). Results for principals indicated significantly lower self-efficacy as compared to teachers. Statistical results of the independent sample *t* test determining significance level (*p*) and Cohen's *d* effect size measure are presented in Table 9. The data denoted a significant difference between the groups. Cohen's *d* effect size measure indicated a small effect size. Table 9 also presents the mean self-efficacy scores by role. Figure 2 illustrates the mean self-efficacy score by role. On average, teachers reported higher levels of self-efficacy when compared to principals.

Table 9

Independent Sample t Test for Self-Efficacy by Role

Variable	*t*(773)	*p*	Cohen's *d*	Teacher		Principal	
				M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self-Efficacy	3.98	< .001	0.49	6.00	1.55	5.22	1.60

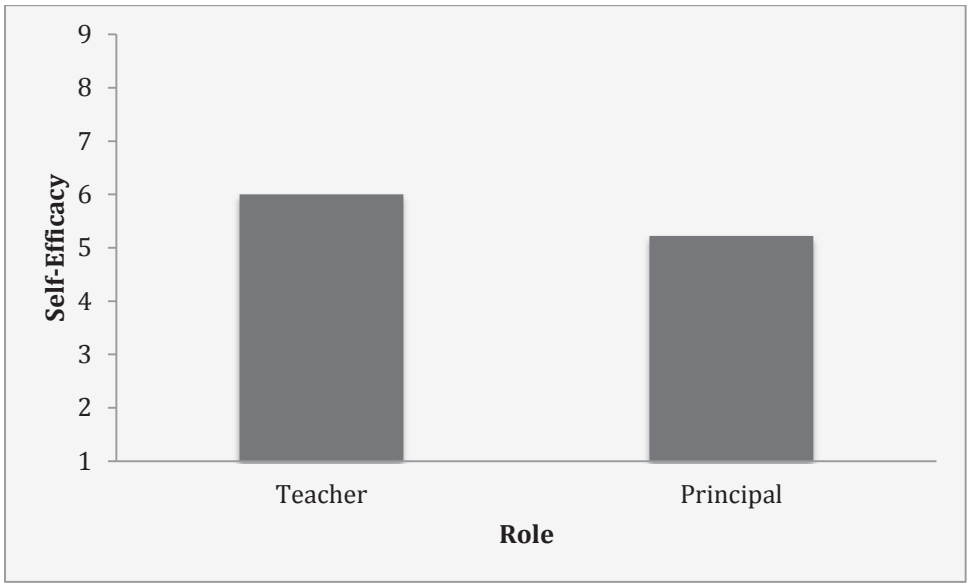

Figure 2. Self-efficacy Scores by Role

Results for Research Question 4

Is there a difference between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience?

$H4_{0.}$ There is no difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

$H4_{1.}$ There is a difference in elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience.

Research Question 4 was assessed using an independent sample *t* test to identify differences in teacher self-efficacy by years of experience (less than 5 years and 5 years or more). The Shapiro-Wilk Test measured the assumption of normality. The result of the test was significant, $p < .001$, violating the assumption of normality. Howell (2010) suggested the *t* test is robust despite violations of normality. The assumption of equality of variance was gauged using Levene's test. The result of the test was not significant, $p = .982$, indicating the assumption of equality of variance was met.

The results of the independent sample *t* test were significant, $t(700) = -4.48$, $p < .001$, suggesting there was a difference in teacher self-efficacy by years of experience. Teachers with less than 5 years of experience had significantly lower self-efficacy scores than teachers with 5 or more years of experience. The difference between the two groups may have been a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). Results of the independent sample *t* test for significance level (*p*) and Cohen's *d* effect size measure are presented in Table 10. The data indicate a significant difference in teacher self-efficacy depending on years of experience. Cohen's *d* of 0.35 signals this was a small effect. The mean self-efficacy scores by years of experience are presented in Table 10. Figure 3 graphs the mean of teacher self-efficacy by years of experience. The graph depicts teachers with more experience (5+ years) having higher self-efficacy than teachers with less experience (< 5 years).

Table 10

Independent Sample t Test for Teacher Self-Efficacy by Years of Experience

Variable	*t*(700)	*p*	Cohen's *d*	Less than 5		5 or more	
				M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Self-Efficacy	-4.48	< .001	0.35	5.65	1.54	6.19	1.52

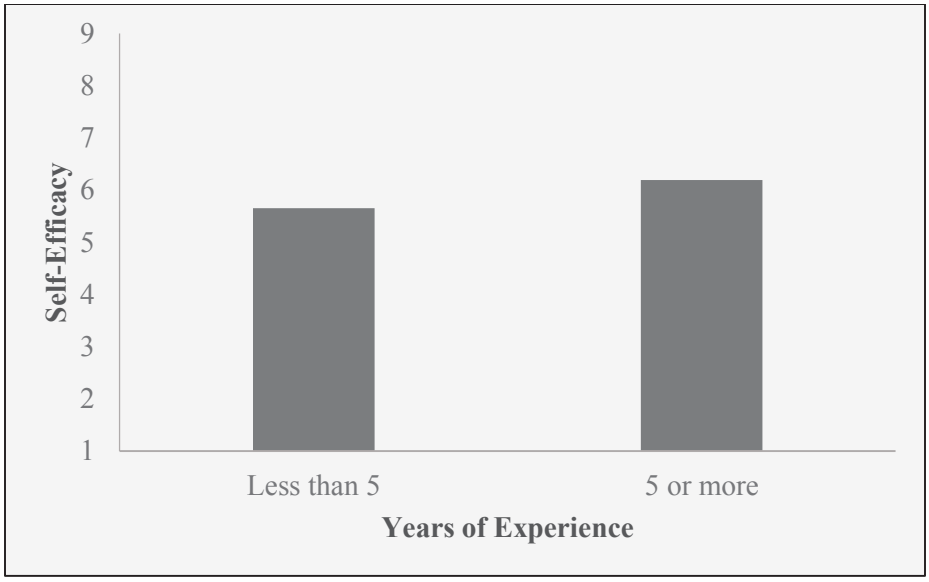

Figure 3. Self-efficacy by Years of Experience

Summary

This study tested four hypotheses. The first hypothesis of principal self-efficacy varying as a function of leadership style was not supported. No difference was observed in self-efficacy as identified by principals self-reporting a style of leadership as authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire. The second hypothesis was supported with a statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and the perceptions of principal support. As perceptions of principal support increased, teacher self-efficacy increased. The third hypothesis addressing a difference in self-efficacy between teachers

and principals was supported. Teachers tended to have higher self-efficacy scores compared to principals. The final and fourth hypothesis was supported with the statistically significant difference in teacher self-efficacy depending on years of experience. Teachers with 5 or more years of experience had higher self-efficacy than teachers with less than 5 years of experience.

Chapter 5 will include an overview of the study, a review of the literature, methodology, findings, discussions, implications for future practice, and a conclusion.

Chapter V

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Many forms of leadership represented in the literature promote a collaborative process in providing guidance and direction to individuals within a hierarchical system (Caldwell et al., 2002). The role of the leader is to encourage, support, and provide direction leading to the success of both the followers and organization. Having a clear sense of who provides direction is a distinct element vital to the concept of leadership (Caldwell et al., 2002). Another component is a clear understanding of the role and identity of those involved and the context existing at the time (Caldwell et al., 2002). DuFour and Marzano (2009) suggested principals continue to initiate and maintain a culture of collaboration to develop teacher proficiencies at all levels of their careers. Principals are searching for strategies to assist in guiding teachers in the instructional process (Aleg-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among principal leadership styles, the principal's sense of efficacy, a teacher's sense of self-efficacy and years of experience working in urban Georgia elementary schools. The study focused on administrative leaders and teachers in urban elementary schools from two purposefully selected school districts in Georgia. The districts were selected based on the demographics defining an urban school system and their tendency to not academically perform as well as suburban or rural districts.

Summary of the Literature

The intricate and sophisticated concept of principal leadership has resulted in debates over what may be considered the most appropriate model of leadership. Day, Harris, and Hadfield (2001) suggested effective leadership is a situational concept and built on relationships between the leader and followers. Although change is inevitable, effective leaders must respond to the needs of individuals being led (Hallinger, 2003). Huber and West (2002) suggested the school leader, as change agent, is the key figure in the success of a school and facilitates progress by endorsing or deterring change. The principal as instructional leader uses influence as a means of guiding teachers to attain desired results. Goldring and Greenfield (2001) noted school leaders are in the center of discussions focusing on raising student achievement. The principals must do a better job of educating the public of the critical connection between the school and the community. Spencer (1863), a sociologist, indicated great leaders come as a result of the surroundings and a strong societal influence.

Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy was explained as one's belief in the ability to organize and carry out tasks required to manage a situation in a manner leading to success. Bandura believed individuals with a high level of self-efficacy tended to exhibit a higher level of performance than others. Behavioral change in others was cognitively influenced through a successful completion of tasks, personal experiences, persuasion, and self-motivation.

Exploring the confidence level of teachers pertaining to an ability to perform daily tasks can be applied to Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy. The theory investigates an individual's perceptions regarding the ability to manage tasks affecting behavior, the

perception and reaction to certain situations, the types of tasks undertaken, and the response to anxiety as a related factor to the selected task. Bandura suggested self-efficacy as a major determinant of individual behavior when proper incentives are made available and the necessary skills have been developed.

As the concept of teacher efficacy became recognized, the notion of principal efficacy has surfaced. Luthans and Peterson (2002) suggested the efficacy of the leader impacts the level of employee engagement exhibited in the work. Goddard and Salloum (2011) implied the confidence of teachers to perform at a higher level and improve student achievement can be enriched by the level of self-efficacy held by the leader. This study suggests a vertical alignment of leadership in developing efficacious and enthusiastic teachers. Horng, Kalogrides, & Loeb (2009) reported the principal as the successful educational leader using skills and strategies to guide teachers in the instructional process. Effective principals influence school outcomes by recruiting and motivating quality teachers with the major goal of instruction to improve student academic performance (Horng, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2009). Teacher efficacy is improved when the principal supports the teacher.

Principals and teachers should focus efforts toward a positive and healthy educational growth of the students served. The degree of effectiveness in the leadership a principal provides can facilitate or inhibit the teacher's ability to perform assigned duties. Northouse (2001) noted "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals toward a common goal" (p. 3). Northouse cited the importance of a leader's awareness of personal leadership styles and how such leadership styles ensured an employee's understanding of the direction, goals and expectations of the leader.

Northouse (2001), a proponent of the style approach to leadership, focused on two general behaviors: task behavior and relationship behavior. Others can be convinced to work toward a common goal when these two behaviors are combined (Northouse, 2001). Northouse suggested the authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles have unique characteristics specific to the respective leadership style.

Authoritarian leaders were characterized as having control over the subordinates (Northouse, 2001). The authoritarian leader makes all decisions and controls employees through punishment, task orientation, reward, and irrational rules. An authoritarian leader does not encourage collaboration with the employees and minimal opportunities are available for employees to be creative or take the initiative concerning any given task (Northouse, 2001). Authoritarian leaders expect employees to follow directives with or without incentives.

The democratic leadership style encourages the leader to work with subordinates and ensure equal treatment (Northouse, 2001). Democratic leadership style is seen as one where leaders serve as a resource for employees instead of being a task master. Northouse (2001) observed this style of leadership as one embracing discussions among employees, encouraging employees to share ideas, and using employee feedback to make the best decision benefiting the organization. Decision-making can be a tedious process as the leader and employee work together to implement new strategies (Northouse, 2001). The leader must arrive at a consensus of all ideas shared in order to maintain unity within the group.

The laissez-faired style is a third method of leadership described by Northouse (2001) and can be considered as a "hands-off approach" to governance. Laissez-faire

leaders do not motivate employees and ignore ideas shared by the employee. This style of leadership provides minimal guidance and gives pure autonomy and choice to the employees. Employees are expected to be self-guided professionals needing little direction or feedback. Northouse observed laissez-faire leaders having limited communication and minimal involvement with followers in setting and implementing goals. Laissez-faire leaders provide little or no input ensuring established plans are successfully implemented.

Successful leadership styles correspond with the levels of readiness of the followers and the ability to perform an assigned task (Wenderlich, 1997). Wenderlich suggested factors contributing to a teacher's level of readiness include taking responsibility for decision-making, relationship behavior, setting strategic goals, and available training to complete tasks in an efficient manner. Readiness denotes teachers are able and confident in executing duties with optimal effectiveness.

Winston (2003) described relationship behavior as the extent a leader listens to followers and acts on the information they provide. This is achieved through a bidirectional dialog existing between the teacher and principal. Hershey and Blanchard (1996) suggested principals combine the task behavior with the relationship behavior to become more effective in leading teachers.

The National Education Association (NEA, 2011) suggested a lack of administrative support and incompetent administrators were major reasons for low levels of teacher competence. The NEA determined it is ultimately the job of the principal to engage and support teachers to achieve professional growth. The NEA identified

measures such as collaborative planning, positive feedback, and shared decision making to assist the teacher in feeling competent to complete any given task with confidence.

Methodology

A non-experimental quantitative design utilizing both descriptive and inferential analysis was employed to determine differences and examine the relationships among the following variables: elementary principal leadership styles, the elementary principal's sense of efficacy, the elementary teacher's sense of efficacy, perceptions of principal support, and years of teaching experience. Creswell (2008) explained the non-experimental research focuses upon descriptive and correlation designs. The study combined both designs to focus on examining sense of efficacy through descriptive and relationship lenses.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) noted quantitative descriptive research is used to describe differences among data collected through observations and surveys. Quantitative descriptive designs concentrate on phenomenon in the natural environment. The designs utilize descriptive statistics to analyze the data. RQ1, RQ3 and RQ4 were considered descriptive questions. Although the data collected were analyzed using inferential statistics, the purpose of RQ1, RQ3 and RQ4 was to describe differences existing among the variables examined.

Mitchell and Jolley (2010) contended correlation research assesses the relationship between or among two or more variables. Although correlation indicates the strength and direction of a relationship, it does not indicate causation. Correlations may be used to predict or explain how variables in a study are related. The correlation aspect of the study was an explanatory correlation design. Creswell (2008) explained the design

is used to describe "the extent to which two or more variables co-vary; that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other" (p. 358). The design was appropriate in examining the relationships explored in RQ2 of the study.

Instrumentation

The instruments selected for the study identify potential differences and relationships existing among the variables. The *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) from Northouse (1997), the *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004), the *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES) created by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) were utilized to collect data in addition to four questions assessing Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Support. Principals completed the LSQ (Northouse, 1997) and the PSES (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004) surveys. Teachers completed the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) assessment and the four additional questions to assess teacher perceptions of principal support.

Leadership Styles Questionnaire

Northouse (2001) developed the LSQ to examine specific traits of authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The LSQ identifies and assesses the effective leader's strengths and areas of need. The 18-item instrument allows leaders to understand how leadership styles affect those being supervised and how a leadership style relates to another style of leadership. The *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* (LSQ) and *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) were used to determine leadership style and sense of efficacy of principals. The LSQ measures the following areas: communication (2 items), leadership (3 items), adaptability (2 items), relationships (2 items), task

management (2 items), production (2 items), development of others (2 items) and personal development (2 items).

Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale

The principal's leadership style is just as important as efficacy when determining one's ability to lead. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004) examined three measures of principal efficacy and developed the *Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale* (PSES) in alignment with the *Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale* (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis utilized the following procedures in the development of the 50-item PSES:

1. The items were created based on the professional standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC).
2. A panel of leadership experts consisting of three professors of educational leadership and one superintendent reviewed the 50 items.
3. The items were field tested by 10 former principals.
4. The items were refined, and the instrument was tested, by an examination of 544 principals in Virginia. The principals completed five additional items examining work alienation as a basis for negatively impacting a principal's sense of efficacy. Twenty-one supplementary items examined personal (i.e., education, years of experience, etc.) and school-based demographics (i.e., school grade level, school context, number of free and reduced lunch recipients, racial composition, etc.).

After data were analyzed for the tested instrument, the number of items was reduced to 18 based on the communality among factors. Similar to the TSES, three subscales were identified. These subscales addressed principal efficacy related to management,

instructional leadership, and moral leadership. Six items were included on each of the subscales.

Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale

The development of the TSES occurred after researchers reviewed several measures to examine teacher efficacy and determined the available measures were not sufficient to measure efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The authors noted a variety of issues with other instruments used to measure teacher efficacy. Researchers continue to question the validity and reliability of varied measures.

Unresolved issues continue to arise in measuring teacher efficacy as work continues to increase the validity and reliability of the instrument. Disagreement continues relative to the conceptualization of teacher efficacy. Such disagreements contributed to a lack of clarity in measuring the construct. Questions continue about the extent teacher efficacy relates to a given context and the extent efficacy beliefs transfer to other contexts. It is difficult to determine the level of specificity in the measure of teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The development of the TSES centered on using Bandura's (1997) teacher self-efficacy model. Fifty-two items were included in the first draft of the TSES scale after a process of deduction. The survey is comprised of a long (24-item) and a short (12-item) form with three subscales. The subscales on the TSES include Efficacy in Student Engagement (SE), Efficacy in Instructional Practices (IP), and Efficacy in Classroom Management (CM).

Participants

The population for this study included elementary principals and teachers in two large, urban Georgia school districts. An urban district is defined as a district located in a

large urban or metropolitan area serving students from impoverished areas. The urban podistrict includes a high number of students of color and limited English proficiency students or a majority of schools with extreme needs (Russo, 2004). The definition of an urban school district implied a large number of students were considered high-poverty based on the having approximately 50% or more of students classified as economically disadvantaged and eligible to receive free or reduced-priced meals. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to include the following: (a) percentages to capture demographic characteristics, (b) means and standard deviations, (c) creation of composite scores and reliability analyses, (d) one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), (e) Pearson's correlation analysis, and (f) independent samples *t* test.

From a sample of 120 principals, 69 consented to participate in the study and were divided with 41 principals from District A and 28 from District B. The number of participants resulted in a 57.6% response rate. A response rate of 14% was attained with 706 out of 5,000 teachers in the sample population having participated in the survey. District A was represented by 439 teachers participating in the survey, whereas District B had 267 teachers completing the survey. A composite score for principal self-efficacy was created from the mean of the 18 items on the Principal Self-Efficacy Scale. Responses of principals to the *Leadership Styles Questionnaire* were calculated from the sum of specific items assessing authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire leadership styles. Principals were categorized according to the highest leadership style score. The rank order of leaderships styles found the democratic style (45%) having the highest score, laissez-faire was second (29%), followed by authoritarian (20%).

Data collected from the TSES were used to determine relationships existing between the teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of support received from principals. TSES data provided information regarding how leadership style and a sense of efficacy of the principal were related. Analysis of the data through descriptive and inferential statistics resulted in statistically significant differences existing between the sense of efficacy of principals and teachers. A statistically significant difference existed between years of experience and the sense of efficacy of teachers.

Discussion of the Findings

Research Question 1 asked the following: Is there a difference in elementary principals' sense of efficacy based on their leadership styles? The findings were not significant when comparing levels of self-efficacy and leadership styles and indicated no statistically significant difference in principals' sense of self-efficacy based on leadership style. Elementary school principals' leadership style did not influence principals' sense of self-efficacy as derived from the sample population.

Principals have been traditionally viewed as administrators performing managerial functions. The roles have changed to guiding instruction and influencing the effectiveness of teachers in delivering instruction (Finkel, 2012). The principal has the responsibility of monitoring teacher effectiveness and maintaining efficiency within various school operations. Silverman and Davis (2009) suggested the role of principal has expanded from a building level administrator to the school leader tasked with guiding teacher experiences and efficacy.

Nguni, Sleegers, and Denessen (2006) found a relationship exists between principal leadership behaviors and teacher efficacy. Fullan (2001) described the

principal's leadership role as one supporting teachers in building self-efficacy. Self-efficacy influences individual achievement levels and is critical in the development of best practices required to train quality and successful teachers (Pajares, 2002). Teachers feel competent in fulfilling any given task through collaborative planning, positive feedback, and shared decision-making.

The second research question asked: Is there a relationship between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of principals at their schools? The data indicated the results were significant and supported the hypothesis a relationship exists between the elementary teachers' sense of efficacy and their perceptions of the school's principal. The findings signified teachers felt a greater sense of self-efficacy when they perceive increased support from the principal.

Individuals having a high level of self-efficacy believe a high level of performance can be attained based on the observations of others. Elliot (2000) suggested teacher perception of support and increased self-efficacy has a direct effect on the performance of the teacher within the classroom. Elliot determined an improvement in student achievement was due to increased teacher sense of self-efficacy. The influence of principal leadership can raise a teacher's sense of efficacy thus improving the performance of both teacher and student.

The third research question for this study was: Is there a difference between elementary principals' sense of efficacy and elementary teachers' sense of efficacy. The data for the third research question were significant and supported the hypothesis of a difference between the elementary principal's sense of efficacy and elementary teacher's sense of efficacy. The findings indicated a statistically significant difference between the

sense of self-efficacy of principals and the sense of self-efficacy of the teachers within the sample. The results suggest teachers have a higher sense of self-efficacy than principals. This may be an indication of a teacher's perception of support from the principal. Teacher self-efficacy, retention, and job satisfaction are all contingent on the leadership of the principal (Schultz & Teddlie, 1989). Goddard and Salloum (2011) believe school officials should develop an understanding of how a principal's self-efficacy impacts teacher motivation, recruitment, attitudes, retention, and student achievement. Principals examining their leadership style may observe increases in teacher confidence levels. The provision of professional support positively affects job satisfaction.

Consistent with the concept of teacher self-efficacy is the concept of principal efficacy. Adams and Kirst (1999) stated the efficacy of administrators might be more important than being efficient. Luthans and Peterson (2002) suggested the efficacy of leaders significantly affects the level of engagement employees exhibit in working. Goddard and Salloum (2011) found the school's collective efficacy, student achievement, and teacher ability are enriched by the leader's level of self-efficacy. The results of this study indicate principal self-efficacy influences school performance levels.

The fourth research question for this study was: Is there a difference between elementary teachers' sense of efficacy depending on years of teaching experience. The data were significant and supported the hypothesis of a statistically significant difference in elementary teachers' sense of self-efficacy depending on years of teaching experience. The findings from this study suggested novice teachers with less than 5 years of experience have lower levels of self-efficacy whereas teachers with 5 or more years of

experience showed higher levels of self-efficacy. These results were anticipated as years of experience can result in a greater confidence in one's ability to be successful. The results are supported by Fullan's (2001) description of teachers dedicated and skilled in the profession of teaching and are able to yield to, and weather, changes in a public school system. Fullan contends experience and continuous education enhances a teacher's self-efficacy resulting in improved job performance. In turn, students and schools perform better with experienced teachers receiving administrative support. Vanderhaar, Munoz, and Rodosky (2006) found a relationship between the teaching experience and student achievement scores. Inexperienced teachers enter the classroom after a brief period of student teaching. The years of learning, attained by peers and administrators, can benefit the experienced teacher to improve student achievement.

Implications for Practice

Administrators at the district level can increase principal and teacher perceptions of self-efficacy by providing support and training to increase school performance levels. Determining the variables affecting principal and teacher efficacy is crucial for law makers, administrators, parents and teachers needing data to substantiate why schools are underperforming. These same factors can affect the retention rate of principals and teachers considering a departure from the profession.

The data are beneficial in assisting new teachers and administrators to become better at their jobs and increase self-efficacy. Data can be disseminated to professional learning directors and agencies as classes and programs are developed and implemented for principals and teachers. This information could aid administrators to be more cognizant of the leadership styles in order to bring about effective planning for

instruction and collaboration for school improvement. The data suggest leaders allow teachers to be paired with a mentor who guides the transition from novice to experienced teachers. This is accomplished by providing opportunities to the novice teacher to exhibit the knowledge and skills acquired from the mentor.

Administrators should use the data to develop and implement programs and incentives to increase the efficacy of teachers and promote teacher retention. Open forums encourage collaboration and address misleading perceptions by improving the lines of communication and relationships between teacher and leader.

Examining the results of this study may provide guidance to district level administrators as they arrive at decisions concerning initiatives to be implemented in the system and avoid any "mandate" passed along to building level administrators and teachers. Such thoughtful, collaborative decisions can not only result in a decrease in principal and teacher burnout, but increase employee job satisfaction. Principals and teachers having a heightened sense of efficacy and support from district administrators are motivated to produce positive outcomes benefitting all employees and students.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are a few recommendations for researchers wishing to replicate this study. An examination of the nature of professional development principals receive, prior to becoming administrators, may be undertaken. Such research would lend itself to determining the type and amount of professional learning is necessary to increase the self-efficacy of principals. Second, an extension of this study attaining data from suburban and rural schools can provide further evidence of a correlation existing between the self-efficacy of principals and teachers. In addition to the location of schools, a larger

sample size can incorporate the gender of principals to determine if a statistically significant difference exists between the efficacy of male and female principals.

Inquiries about the relationship among principal leadership styles, a principal's sense of efficacy, the teacher's sense of efficacy, teacher perceptions of principal support, and a teacher's years of experience in other states can serve as a basis for future studies. The data from other states can be compared with the results of this study to understand any sociological differences influencing leadership styles and teacher efficacy.

District level of support was not a part of this study and could be an area of interest for future investigation. Practitioners can link district level leadership and the leadership style of the principal. Such an examination may shed light on how leadership at the district level impacts a sense of efficacy held by principals and teachers in the district. District level learning initiatives may provide support to, or serve as a potential resource for, the principal. Moreover, district level professional development initiatives may capture the attention of teachers and serve to offer the faculty additional resources.

Conclusion

The NEA (2011) suggested incompetent building level administrators and the lack of administrative support as the main reasons for low levels of teacher competence. Principal leadership styles may affect teacher self-efficacy based on the amount and type of support provided to teachers both in and outside the classroom. Principals should ensure the needs of teachers are met to foster personal and professional growth. Measures such as collaborative planning, positive feedback, and shared decision-making contribute to a teacher's sense of competency and confidence in completing any given task within the school.

Principal leadership styles in the study were a mix of democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire with the majority of data exhibiting a democratic style of leadership being utilized. The findings reflected leadership styles were not correlated to principal self-efficacy. Personal experiences and the personality of the principal were not examined in this study, but may influence a leadership style. A democratic leadership style invests in human capital by empowering employees to be part of a collective leadership body and relies on the collaborative decisions made by the group. This particular leadership style lends itself to principals having confidence in the professional ability, training, experience, and a higher sense of efficacy of teachers to effectively contribute to the collective decision making process. Democratic leaders see themselves as collaborative members of the organization. Principals can relate to the problems teachers experience in the classroom while having a more global view of the learning environment. Teachers relating with the principal on a more personal level increases the perception of support given by the respective administrator.

Classroom leadership is the direct responsibility of the teacher who is influenced and mentored by the principal. Success is determined by the ability of the principal to lead the school utilizing a variety of leadership styles (Green, 2003). A teacher's perception of support and increased self-efficacy has a direct correlation with performance in the classroom (Elliot, 2000); therefore, the support of the principal may have a direct effect on both teacher and student performance. The findings are consistent with prior research indicating principal and teacher self-efficacy affect classroom performance, teacher self-efficacy, retention, and job satisfaction. All are contingent upon effective principal leadership (Schultz & Teddlie, 1989). Findings from previous

studies reflecting the influence of a principal's self-efficacy on the teacher's self-efficacy (Goddard & Salloum, 2011; Schultz & Teddlie, 1989) noted teachers have a significantly higher sense of self-efficacy when compared to principals. This may be an indication of perceived support from principals whose own efficacious practices were shared with teachers in the respective schools - a remarkable similarity to previous research conducted by Adams and Kirst (1999) and Luthans and Peterson (2002). Effective leadership can motivate teachers to maximize the use of professional resources, improve instruction, and allow individual creativity to successfully complete any tasks.

Bandura's (1977) work on the nature of self-efficacy and individual performance underpins the findings and bolsters the need for learning communities to support both administrators and teachers. Principals and district leaders embracing a particular leadership style, and supporting teachers in the classroom, has a direct effect on a teacher's level of self-efficacy and increases in student achievement. Novice teachers need mentoring and training to overcome inexperience. Building a teacher's self-efficacy early in a career could have a direct impact on student learning and benefit the school and community.

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Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Protocol Exemption Report

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

for the Protection of Human Research Participants

PROTOCOL EXEMPTION REPORT

PROTOCOL NUMBER: IRB-03223-2015 **INVESTIGATOR: Christina N. Sherard**

PROJECT TITLE: **An Examination of the Relationship Among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Perceptions Of Principal Support and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Georgia Elementary Schools.**

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD DETERMINATION:

This research protocol is **exempt** from Institutional Review Board oversight under Exemption Category(ies) 2. You may begin your study immediately. If the nature of the research project change such that exemption criteria may no longer apply, please consult with the IRB Administrator (irb@valdosta.edu) before continuing your research.

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS/SUGGESTIONS:

Although not a requirement for exemption, the following suggestions are offered by the IRB Administrator to enhance the protection of participants and/or strengthen the research proposal:

NONE

☐ If this box is checked, please submit any documents you revise to the IRB Administrator at irb@valdosta.edu to ensure an updated record of your exemption.

Elizabeth W. Olphie 5/27/15

Elizabeth W. Olphie, IRB Administrator Date

Thank you for submitting an IRB application.

Please direct questions to irb@valdosta.edu or 229-259-5045.

Revised: 12.13.12

Appendix B: Informed Consent Letter

Informed Consent Letter

Dear Educational Professional:

You have been invited to participate in a study being conducted by Christina Sherard at Valdosta State University, Valdosta, Georgia on An Examination of the Relationship Among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Support and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Georgia Elementary Schools.
What you will do in this study: You will be asked to complete a questionnaire. This involves answering a series of questions. The questions will include details about your thought process and personal views about the current issue.

Time required: The study will take approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

Risks: There are minimal risks for participation in this study. This research study is designed to test theories or applications of thought process.

Benefits:
There are no direct benefits to participants. However, your participation will help researchers further examine the Relationship Among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Support and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Georgia Elementary Schools.

Confidentiality:
All information provided will remain confidential and will only be reported as group data with no identifying information. Again, your personal information will not be released under any circumstances. All the information gathered from the study will be kept in a secure location and only those directly involved with the research will have access to them. After the research is completed, the information will be destroyed after a period of a year.

Participation and withdrawal:
Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and this will not affect your current or future relations with Valdosta State University, Valdosta, Georgia. You may withdraw by telling the experimenter that you no longer wish to be included and your participation in the study will cease.

Researcher Contact:
If you have any further questions after participating from this study, please contact me at (478)-390-2544 or ChristinaSherard.VSU@gmail.com.

Whom to contact about your rights in this experiment:
This study is conducted under the supervision of Dr. James Leon Pate, Chair at Valdosta State University, Valdosta Georgia for the Department of Curriculum, Leadership, and Technology of the Dewar College of Education and Human Services. Dr. James Leon Pate can be contacted at (229) 333-5633 or you may contact him via email: jlpate@valdosta.edu.

Agreement:
After reading through the purpose and nature of this research study, I understand the explanation provided to me and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty. Completing this survey or questionnaire and sending this to the researcher constitutes my consent to voluntarily participate in the research study.

Professionally,

Christina N. Sherard
Christina N. Sherard

3.1 Leadership Styles Questionnaire

Visit www.sagepub.com/northouseintro2e for downloadable versions of these questionnaires

Purpose

1. To identify your style of leadership
2. To examine how your leadership style relates to other styles of leadership

Directions

1. For each of the statements below, circle the number that indicates the degree to which you agree or disagree.
2. Give your immediate impressions. There are no right or wrong answers.

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Employees need to be supervised closely, or they are not likely to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Employees want to be a part of the decision-making process.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In complex situations, leaders should let subordinates work problems out on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is fair to say that most employees in the general population are lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good leader.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Leadership requires staying out of the way of subordinates as they do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As a rule, employees must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most workers want frequent and supportive communication from their leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
9. As a rule, leaders should allow subordinates to appraise their own work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Most employees feel insecure about their work and need direction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Leaders need to help subordinates accept responsibility for completing their work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Leaders should give subordinates complete freedom to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the group.	1	2	3	4	5

Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
14. It is the leader's job to help subordinates find their "passion."	1	2	3	4	5
15. In most situations, workers prefer little input from the leader.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Effective leaders give orders and clarify procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
17. People are basically competent and if given a task will do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
18. In general, it is best to leave subordinates alone.	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring

1. Sum the responses on items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, and 16 (authoritarian leadership).
2. Sum the responses on items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17 (democratic leadership).
3. Sum the responses on items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18 (laissez-faire leadership).

Total Scores

Authoritarian Leadership _____

Democratic Leadership _____

Laissez-Faire Leadership _____

Scoring Interpretation

This questionnaire is designed to measure three common styles of leadership: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. By comparing your scores, you can determine which styles are most dominant and least dominant in your own style of leadership.

If your score is 26–30, you are in the very high range.

If your score is 21–25, you are in the high range.

If your score is 16–20, you are in the moderate range.

If your score is 11–15, you are in the low range.

If your score is 6–10, you are in the very low range.

Appendix D: Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale

Principal Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create challenges for principals in their school activities.

Directions: Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking one of the nine responses in the columns on the right side. The scale of responses ranges from "None at all" (1) to "A Great Deal" (9), with "Some Degree" (5) representing the mid-point between these low and high extremes. You may choose any of the nine possible responses, since each represents a degree on the continuum. Your answers are confidential.

Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your *current* ability, resources, and opportunity to do each of the following in your present position.

	"In your current role as principal, to what extent can you…"	None at All		Very Little		Some Degree		Quite a Bit		A Great Deal
1.	facilitate student learning in your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
2.	generate enthusiasm for a shared vision for the school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
3.	handle the time demands of the job?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
4.	manage change in your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
5.	promote school spirit among a large majority of the student population?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
6.	create a positive learning environment in your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
7.	raise student achievement on standardized tests?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
8.	promote a positive image of your school with the media?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
9.	motivate teachers?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
10.	promote the prevailing values of the community in your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
11.	maintain control of your own daily schedule?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
12.	shape the operational policies and procedures that are necessary to manage your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
13.	handle effectively the discipline of students in your school?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
14.	promote acceptable behavior among students?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
15.	handle the paperwork required of the job?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
16.	promote ethical behavior among school personnel?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
17.	cope with the stress of the job?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
18.	prioritize among competing demands of the job?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

Appendix E: Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale

Teacher Beliefs

This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create challenges for teachers. Your answers are confidential.

Directions: Please indicate your opinion about each of the questions below by marking any one of the nine responses in the columns on the right side, ranging from (1) "None at all" to (9) "A Great Deal" as each represents a degree on the continuum.

Please respond to each of the questions by considering the combination of your *current* ability, resources, and opportunity to do each of the following in your present position.

	None at all		Very Little		Some Degree		Quite A Bit		A Great Deal
1. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
2. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
3. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
4. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
5. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
6. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
7. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
8. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
9. To what extent can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
10. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
11. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
12. How well can you implement alternative teaching strategies in your classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)

13. What is your gender?
- O Male
- O Female

14. What is your racial identity?
- O African American
- O White, Non-Hispanic
- O Other

15. What subject matter do you teach? (as many as apply)
- O All (Elementary/ Self-contained)
- O Math
- O Science
- O Language Arts
- O Social Studies

16. What level do you teach?
- O Elementary
- O Middle
- O High

17. What is the context of your school?
- O Urban
- O Suburban
- O Rural

18. What is the approximate proportion of students who receive free and reduced lunches at your school?
- O 0-20%
- O 21-40%
- O 41-60%
- O 61-80%
- O 81-100%

19. What grade level(s) do you teach? (K) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

20. How many years have you taught? (0) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

For office use only. (0) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) / (0) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) / (0) (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)

Appendix F: Teacher Perceptions of Principal Support

1. How much attention does your Principal give to your professional growth?

1	2	3	4	5
None at all				A great deal

2. How reasonable are the expectations for student achievement at this school?

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all reasonable				Extremely reasonable

3. How much support does the principal at this school give to the teaching staff?

1	2	3	4	5
None at all				A great deal

4. How useful is the feedback the principal at this school gives you?

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all useful				Extremely useful

Appendix G: Letter of Permission to Use Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and Principal Sense of Efficacy Scale

William & Mary
School of Education

MEGAN TSCHANNEN-MORAN, PHD
PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

February 10, 2015

Christina,

You have my permission to use the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (formerly called the Ohio State Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale), which I developed with Anita Woolfolk Hoy, in your research. You can find a copy of the measure and scoring directions on my web site at http://wmpeople.wm.edu/site/page/mxtsch . Please use the following as the proper citation:

> Tschannen-Moran, M & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 783-805.

You also have my permission to use the Principals' Sense of Efficacy Scale, which I developed with Chris Gareis, in your research. The best citation to use is:

> Tschannen-Moran, M. & Gareis, C. (2004). Principals' sense of efficacy: Assessing a promising construct. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42, 573-585.

I will also attach directions you can follow to access my password protected web site, where you can find the supporting references for this measure as well as other articles I have written on this and related topics.

I would love to receive a brief summary of your results.

All the best,

Megan Tschannen-Moran
The College of William and Mary
School of Education

P.O. Box 8795 • Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795 • (757) 221-2187 • mxtsch@wm.edu

Appendix H: Letter of Permission to Use *Leadership Styles Questionnaire*

From: permissions@sagepub.com
To: totally.divine3@hotmail.com
Subject: RE: Permission to use Survey
Date: Wed, 4 Feb 2015 19:41:27 +0000

Dear Christina Sherard,

Thank you for your response. You can consider this email as permission to use the material as detailed below in your upcoming dissertation. Please note that this permission does not cover any 3rd party material that may be found within the work. We do ask that you properly credit the original source, Introduction to Leadership. Please contact us for any further usage of the material.

Best Regards,

Michelle Bisur

Rights Assistant

SAGE Publications Inc

2455 Teller Road

Thousand Oaks, CA 91320

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Singapore | Washington DC | Boston

From: Christina Sherard [mailto:totally.divine3@hotmail.com]
Sent: Tuesday, February 03, 2015 4:42 PM
To: accessrequest
Subject: Permission to use Survey

Good Evening:

I am writing to see how I can receive consent to use Dr. Peter G. Northouse's Survey "Leadership Styles Questionnaire. My dissertation is entitled, "An Examination of the Relationship among Principals' Leadership Styles, Principals' Sense of Efficacy, Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, and Teachers' Years of Experience in Urban Elementary Schools." I just need an official letter of consent to submit to my chair stating that I have permission if he allows me to use it. Thank You.