Relationship Between Principal And Teachers In Urban Schools: An Examination Of Principal Leadership Practices And Teacher Morale

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS
IN URBAN SCHOOLS: AN EXAMINATION OF PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP
PRACTICES AND TEACHER MORALE

by

TONYA R. NORWOOD

DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2016

MAJOR: EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
AND POLICY STUDIES

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing husband, Willie B. Norwood Jr. and my son Willie B. Norwood III. My husband and son were extremely supportive and patient with me in my quest to pursue my Doctoral Degree. I thank the Lord for blessing me with both my Husband and Son; for they have been my rock. To my parents Doris D. Booth and Lige Ridley III, mere words cannot express how much I love you and what you mean to me. You taught me to persevere, to never give up, to be faithful, humble, and to treat individuals with kindness and respect. To my mother-in-law, Verna Norwood and father-in-law Willie B. Norwood Sr., your love, guidance and support has been a blessing to our family. Thanks for continuing to teach Will and I the importance of family.

To my sisters, Yvonne Hollis, LaWanda Booth, Nefertari Blount, and Shannon Ridley, my brothers Willie Booth Jr. and Lige Ridley IV, my nieces Stacey Booth, Shawnise Booth, and Shauntia Booth, my nephews, DeShawn Booth, Terrelle Booth and LaRon Banks Jr., great nieces and nephews, my brother-in-laws, Joseph Blount and Quincy Norwood and Hillary Herring; I love each of you with all of my heart.

To my friends Parthenia Sonya Moody (Deceased), Yolanda Gordon and Dr. Carmen Tutt, I love each of you like you were my own sisters. We share a bond that is blessed by God. To my mentors Coy Lynn Robinson and Dr. Yvonne Callaway (Deceased), I will always remember your words of encouragement and inspiration. To my family, friends, coworkers, students and sorority sisters of Delta Sigma Theta Sorority Inc., and Line Sisters of 112 D.E.G.R.E.E.S., thank you so much for always encouraging and uplifting me. Most of all, thank you Father God, for I am blessed.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to recognize and thank the following individuals for their guidance and support. The process of establishing this body of work could not have been accomplished without their support. To my Committee Chair, Dr. Ben Pogodzinski and Committee Members, Dr. Michael Addonizio, Dr. Aaron Livingston, Dr. Michael Owens, and Dr. Tami Wright, mere words cannot express what you have done to assist me. I will forever be thankful for your words of encouragement, supervision, direction and leadership.

To my Graduate Advisor, Paul Johnson, Principal, Donna Thornton, and Consultant, June Cline, thank you for your support and guidance. To the teachers, principals and school district, I am both honored and humbled to have been granted an opportunity to conduct my study at your schools.
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The quest for academic excellence for all students is the mantra that is at the forefront of today’s educational arena. Education is forever evolving with new curriculum, instructional methods, research based programs and technological integration strategies that students in the 1960s could only imagine. For example, online education programs have afforded students’ opportunities to obtain diplomas and degrees, and they never have to enter a classroom.

As society continues to invest millions of dollars into educational programs, instructional strategies and technology, an essential component to assist students in urban schools to achieve academic excellence continues to fall by the wayside. The essential component is motivated teachers and the principals who lead them. Highly motivated teachers and effective principals are essential pieces in creating educational environments conducive to learning and academic achievement for students in urban schools. The success of a school can weigh heavily on the attitudes (morale) of the teachers and what they perceive are the practices of the principal. In essence, the scale (high teacher morale or low teacher morale) can tip to either side. Consequently, a positive and productive relationship between teachers and principals is vital.

Statement of the Problem

Current research in education has shown that teachers are exiting urban school districts at an alarming rate. One of their main concerns is what they believe is a lack of support from their principals. According to Rafferty (2002), stress related to increased demands on time, low pay, student discipline problems and lack of support from administrators are adding to low teacher morale. Teachers are inundated with numerous issues that negatively affect their ability to facilitate lessons and activities to teach their classes.
Of late, the current state of teacher accountability has caused numerous teachers to experience both stress and anxiety. This is the case for numerous teachers who work in urban school districts.

The push to create supportive environments for teachers should be a primary topic of discussion in principal meetings across the country. According to research, teachers’ biggest source of dissatisfaction with their jobs is not having the support of administration.

This next generation of teachers approach teaching somewhat tentatively: They will only stay in the classroom if they feel successful and they are most likely to feel successful if they’ve received support in their jobs-specific, ongoing help from colleagues, administrators, and mentors, and being able to work in conditions that enable good teaching (Baldacci & Moore-Johnson, 2006, p. 13).

Research has shown that teachers want to be equipped with the necessary and essential tools to educate today’s student. According to Gideon and Erlandson (2001), teachers want to feel empowered so that they can support the schools’ goals.

The 21st century principal is faced with an array of challenges in their quest to create an environment conducive to learning and academic achievement. Standardized testing, teacher evaluations, recruiting and retaining highly effective teachers, declining budgets, school violence, time constraints, and parents and students who appear to be disinterested in the educational process are just a few examples of the current issues that principals encounter. According to Kelehear (2004), given the various calls to address safety, overcrowding, drugs, gangs, low teacher pay, and teacher retention, school personnel can feel overwhelmed. And when contract negotiations between the school district and faculty unions are going poorly, the building principal becomes the person in the middle (Hayes, 2000). Operating in tandem, the previous issues can have an adverse effect on the principal’s ability to perform the essential tasks to effectively lead a school community, in addition to addressing the issue of teacher morale.
Mintzberg (1973) noted that a manager’s work is characterized by brevity, variety and fragmentation. This is especially true for school leaders. Principals’ daily work is characterized by hundreds of short tasks of enormous variety – one minute talking with a teacher about materials, the next coping with a student issue, followed by another dozen questions, issues and problems to solve (Peterson & Kelley, 2001). Even though today’s principals’ wear numerous hats to facilitate daily operations, being cognizant of the effects that teacher morale has on the climate of schools is particularly important in urban districts. Current research is showing that when highly motivated teachers facilitate lessons and activities for students, the likelihood of them understanding the concepts being taught increases tremendously. On the other hand, when teachers are not motivated, it is highly unlikely that students will be interested in the concepts being taught, and the academic development and achievement of students is compromised. For students in urban impoverished areas, a quality education is the primary gateway, or avenue to assist in improving their quality of life. According to Belfield and Levin (2007), a person’s educational attainment is one of the most important determinants of his or her chances in terms of employment, income, health status, housing and many other amenities.

**Purpose of the Study**

Recognizing there are some concerns with teacher morale in urban schools, teachers are exiting urban school districts *en masse*, and the behavior of the principals may be a contributing factor to low teacher morale, the primary purpose of this research study was to analyze and measure the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools. The instruments that were used to conduct this research study were the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO). The subsequent questions were presented in this research study:
Research Questions

1. To what extent is there a correlation between principal leadership practices and teacher morale?

   $H_{01}$: Principal leadership practices, as measured by the LPI, are not correlated to teacher morale, as measured by the PTO.

   $H_{1}$: Principal leadership practices, as measured by the LPI, are correlated to teacher morale, as measured by the PTO.

2. Based on the principal leadership practices (using the schools’ LPI scores), to what extent are principal leadership practices significantly higher in some urban schools than others?

   $H_{02}$: There is no difference in principal leadership practices as measured by LPI scores among the four urban schools included in the study.

   $H_{2}$: There is a difference in principal leadership practices as measured by LPI scores among the four urban schools included in the study.

3. To what extent (using the schools’ PTO scores), does teacher morale differ, and is significantly higher among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study?

   $H_{03}$: There is no difference in teacher morale as measured by PTO scores among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study.

   $H_{3}$: There is a difference in teacher morale as measured by PTO scores among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study.

4. What principal leadership practices have the highest mean scores among teachers with high teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

5. What principal leadership practices have the lowest mean scores among teachers with low teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

The secondary purpose of this study was to present researched-based recommendations that could provide assistance to principals to address the issue of teacher morale in urban schools. A study of this kind could possibly provide insight and information that could aid principals in improving teacher morale in urban schools, in addition to creating positive and
productive educational environments conducive for learning and academic achievement for all students.

**Background of the Study**

This research study was conducted to address two specific areas: the practices of principals and the effects on teacher morale in urban schools. The role of principals in schools has evolved from manager to instructional leader and facilitator of operations. It is expected that today’s principals possess the knowledge, skills and charisma to inspire and encourage teachers; especially teachers who work in urban school districts. According to Deal and Peterson (1998), principals are needed to lead instructional improvement, foster effective change efforts, lead the implementation of new standards, and are central to shaping strong, professional school cultures. The demands on principals in urban schools are high, and the challenges can be even greater if you are a principal of a school that is in “priority status” and have been awarded School Improvement Grant (SIG) funds. The pressure to transform these schools from the bottom 30% for academic achievement to high performing schools in three years can be insurmountable. Consequently, a principal’s mental capacity, professional competency, and interpersonal skills are essential components in creating an educational environment conducive to learning and academic achievement.

On the other hand, the role of teachers in urban school districts has evolved from creating lessons, delivering lectures and checking papers to, the facilitators of student centered learning, pseudo mental healthcare workers and security officers. For teachers, with policies and procedures in education changing rapidly, new tenure laws, high stakes testing (which is tied in to some teacher evaluations), discipline issues and school violence teacher morale can be negatively affected. The previously mentioned issues may cause some teachers to experience a
high level of anxiety and stress. According to Hardy (1999); Tye and O’Brien (2002), teachers who do not feel supported, experience the pressures and demands of teaching have a lower morale. Some (teachers) even leave the field of education. Often, the pressure to assist students to achieve academic excellence can be overwhelming for teachers, so the role that principals play to address teacher morale is critical to the success of schools.

During the course of a school-year (180 days of instruction for some school districts) teachers and students are in constant contact. Current research proposes that positive relationships between teachers and students are essential to students’ academic success. According to Whitaker and colleagues (2000), to be able to approach work each day with a positive state of mind is critical to being successful with students and their achievement. In Lumpa’s (1997) study, it was found that a strong predictor of student satisfaction and success was related to the level of teachers’ satisfaction in the school. In essence, when teachers are happy, feel supported and are highly motivated, these feelings are evident in how they approach teaching and their everyday practices. They are more likely to come to work, are active in school-wide events and extra-curricular programs, attend professional developments to develop their craft, and support the principal’s vision and mission for the school. Job satisfaction is clearly related to levels of intrinsic empowerment. Job satisfaction refers to individuals’ affective relations to their work role and is a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it is offering (Lawler, 1973; Locke, 1969).

Today’s teachers in urban school districts look to their principals for leadership and guidance. In addition, they want to feel safe and to be supported, so that they can facilitate lessons and activities in their classes. In Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs, the 2nd need discussed an individual’s ability to feel safe and secure. According to Maslow (1970), when
teachers do not feel safe in schools, they become negative and begin to create an exit (e.g., going out on disability, retirement) plan. Current research studies are showing that it is imperative for principals to recognize the negative impact of not addressing teachers’ concerns early, and to provide them with the support they need to be successful.

**Significance of the Study**

The exodus of teachers in urban school districts in Michigan is increasing at an alarming rate. With the recent appointments of Emergency Managers, continuous teacher pay cuts, violence, a lack of resources and support, the challenge to keep teachers in urban school districts has become a battle for principals. For students in urban districts, their chance of receiving a quality education decreases every time a competent, professional and highly motivated teacher exits the profession or leaves for a suburban school district. Consequently, this research study will be significant to the field of education because it will build on prior research that discusses the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale.

Principal leadership and teacher morale has been studied and discussed in various arenas. However, this study will be germane to schools in urban districts. Urban school districts may find this research study significant, because it could provide insight into how their principals are viewed by teachers. In addition, the information gathered in this study could lead to programs being created and implemented to train principals to address issues that affect teacher morale.

**Definition of Key Terms**

1. Principal leadership -- National Association of Secondary School Principals (2015) describes an effective principal as one who is creating a vision of academic success for all students, one based on high standards, creating a climate hospitable to education in order that safety, a cooperative spirit and other foundations of fruitful interaction prevail,
cultivating leadership in others so that teachers and other adults assume their part in realizing the school vision, improving instruction to enable teachers to teach at their best and students to learn at their utmost and managing people, data and processes to foster school improvement.

2. Teacher morale -- Bentley and Rempel (1980) defined teacher morale as the degree to which the needs of a person are satisfied, and the person's perception of how the job situation brought the state of satisfaction of the worker to fruition.

3. Urban schools -- Osher and Fleischman (2005) defined urban schools as often facing challenges as high student poverty and mobility rates, large numbers of English language learners, and unsafe neighborhoods. However, even in the face of these challenges, many urban schools provide a high-quality education and produce high-achieving students.

4. School climate -- Hoy & Miskel (2001) defined school climate as a teachers’ perceptions of the general work environment of the school; the formal organization, informal organization, personalities of participants, and organizational leadership influence. School climate is a relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behavior, and is based on their collective perceptions of behavior in schools.

**Overview of Methodology**

In an effort to answer the research questions and to address the problem statement by evaluating the hypotheses, quantitative methods were used to conduct this study. Descriptive statistics, correlational analysis and multivariate analysis were used to quantify the results of the study. Four schools were chosen to participate in the study. Teachers were chosen from the
elementary/middle and high school levels. The teachers had various years of experience in education; in addition to diverse ethnic backgrounds.

**Organization of Study**

This study is presented in five chapters. The first chapter was an introduction to the study, purpose of the study, research questions, background of the study, significance of the study, definition of key terms, and overview of the methodology. Chapter Two discussed the relevant literature and conceptual framework. Chapter Three presented the methods and procedures used to conduct the study. The fourth chapter presents the data and results. The fifth chapter summarizes the findings, provides recommendations for future studies and practices, and provides the limitations and conclusions.
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Current research in education has shown that teachers are exiting urban school districts in records numbers, and one of their primary concerns is what they believe is a lack of support from their principals. According to Brodinsky (1994), adversarial contacts and unproductive relationships between principals and teachers contribute to low teacher morale. Recognizing that there are some concerns with teacher morale, the exodus of teachers from urban school districts, and that the behavior of principals may be a contributing factor to low teacher morale, the purpose of this research study was to analyze and measure the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools.

Chapter Two presented a review of the related literature that discussed the role of the principal and how it has evolved over time, urban education and the current expectations of principals. Leadership theories, traits and practices were then presented. Based on the research, this study used the Transformational Leadership Theory as its guide, and the foundation for the conceptual framework. Currently, the Transformational Leadership Model has been used in educational settings, because of its focus on principals and teachers working collectively to establish missions and visions for school communities, in an effort to create positive and productive educational environments. Teacher morale and factors that affect teacher morale were presented to provide insight into the causes and effects of teacher morale. Also, numerous research studies were presented that discussed principal leadership practices and the effect on teacher morale.

The research questions focused on to what extent was there a correlation between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools, were principal leadership
practices higher in some urban schools than others, to what extent does teacher morale differ in the urban schools, and what principal leadership practices have high and low mean scores among teachers with high and low teacher morale in the urban schools. The previously listed questions provided the methodological (quantitative) approach for this research study.

**The Evolution of the School Principal**

As the educational system evolved from a one room school house, to classes being facilitated online, so too has the role of the school principal. Long gone are the days where the principal is viewed as just the manager of the building. The current expectation of today’s principal is one who is the instructional leader, facilitator of operations and financial guru. With policies and procedures being rapidly implemented in the field of education, the 21st century principal is responsible for more duties and roles than ever before.

During the 1800s, the need for school principals began to emerge. With the growing number of children attending school, and a need for more structure, certain individuals were identified to lead the cause. According to Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983), only as the need for more schooling and more complex arrangements arose (e.g., multiteacher schools, high schools, partial state financing of schools, the creation of local school districts) was there a felt need to employ “school administrators.” Even though during this time states were appointing superintendents to assist and monitor funding, there still was a need for an individual to “manage” the buildings. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983) wrote:

At the local school level, the “head” or “principal” teacher position emerged in the 1830s and 1840s with cities, such as Cincinnati and Detroit, appointing principal teachers at each of their “school houses.” The role of the principal teacher essentially was to handle clerical chores and look after the school building, in addition to his or her teaching duties. By 1870, in some large cities (e.g., Cincinnati, New York) the principal teacher had evolved into a full-time “supervising principal.”
As the 18th century came to a close, the need for principals in “urban” areas began to rise. It was becoming challenging for teachers to be both principal and teacher. Educational administration had been characterized as an “evolving profession” (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1983). Eventually, the teaching and other duties that were required became too time consuming, and the principal teachers then concentrated on managing the schools (Leiding, 2004). Consequently, the title of “principal teacher” was dropped, and the term “principal” emerged.

The onset of the 1900s saw a rise in students being educated in urban schools. Urban schools can be defined as areas where students are both economically, socially, and academically disadvantaged. Erskine-Cullen and Sinclair (1996) asserted that schools in large urban settings are places where teachers are faced with a plethora of challenges that range from poverty, violence, cultural diversity and a multitude of languages. According to Kopetz, Lease and Warren-King (2006), urban schools find themselves in a position of being central in the struggle to educate children. For example, students in urban schools tend to have extremely high mobility rates, and the ever-changing set of students becomes disruptive for the teachers, stable students, as well as the movers (Jacob, 2007). For principals who are charged with leading school communities in urban districts, the challenge can be insurmountable. According to Jacob (2007):

Roughly 64% of students in central cities are minorities. About 56% of students in central cities participate in free lunch programs and 40% receive services under Title 1 programs. In addition, urban students score lower on standardized achievement exams than their suburban counterparts.

Research has also shown that principals in urban schools are often faced with a less experienced teaching staff. Urban schools, in particular, have lesser-qualified teachers. Low-income, low-achieving and non-white students, particularly those in urban areas, find themselves in classes with many of the least skilled teachers (Lankford, Loeb, & Wycoff, 2002, p. 37). Additionally, principals in urban areas often have limited resources to assist teachers in helping
students to achieve academic success. According to Jacob (2007), urban and suburban schools differ from each other in terms of the resources available to students and teachers, although the many compensatory state and federal programs reduce the size of the disparities. Jacob (2007) added that an urban school district in New York City where roughly 38% of urban schools used temporary buildings and a large number of teachers did not have their own classrooms. Coupled with crumbling buildings, salaries that are not comparable to suburban teachers and violence, principals in urban schools districts find it difficult attract and retain teachers.

By the mid-1900s, the job of school principal had become even more demanding. Leaders and scholars in the field of education began to focus on developing administrator preparation programs to assist in the growing demand. “The educational system is becoming more complex. Expectations have risen and the number of players has expanded, increasing the scale and complexity of school management tasks” (Bolman, McMahon, Pocklington, & Weindling, 1992, p. 24). Under the leadership of some veteran practitioners, especially large-city superintendents, and some persons associated with educational administration degree programs, efforts were made to deal with some of the preparation program concerns and other problems seen as critical in developing a profession of educational administration. The principal mechanism used was organizational activity (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1983).

Even though educational experts were summoned to assist in the development of the programs, gaps and flaws were found. To adjust with the changing times, and to refine existing programs, academic councils were established. According to Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983), conversations were being held among leaders of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), the W.K. Kellogg Foundation, and persons associated with the academic preparation of educational administrators. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1983) stated:
Regional programs provided stimulation for research and development of training programs and influenced knowledge development in the field. The programs provided an opportunity for professors, practitioners, and advanced-level graduate students to examine the conditions under which school administrators practice and the programs that should be developed to prepare persons for practice. (p. 7)

Administrator development programs began to garner more support at the close of the 19th century. Because of its potential to develop the brightest and best principals to lead schools, administrator development programs began to focus more on specific tasks. These include tasks associated with organization, curriculum and instruction, finance, business management, support services, staff personnel, student personnel, school building, school community relations, and research and evaluation (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1983). The previously listed tasks began to lay the foundation for the 20th century principal, and how they would operate schools.

The onset of the 20th century saw principals being more than just managers of buildings. An alarming number of students were not acquiring the educational skills to compete in a global society. It was becoming more evident that principals needed to focus on curriculum development, instruction and educational program development. In 1984, the report *A Nation at Risk*, presented alarming information that exposed the inadequacies of the educational system and how ill prepared students were to compete academically on a global level. According to Tyack and Cuban (1995), *A Nation at Risk* was one of many elite policy commissions of the 1980s that declared that faulty schooling was eroding the economy and that the remedy for both educational and economic decline was improving academic achievement. During this time, there became a sense of urgency to assist students. And on the heels of this report, principals began to take a more proactive role in developing and refining their administrative skills, so that they could better assist teachers with delivery of instruction. According to Hallinger (1992):

American policy makers have come to view principals as linchpins in plans for educational change and as a favored target for school reforms. This was
particularly true during the 1980s, as education authorities sought to reform the principalship in an image compatible with the currently popular conception of effective schooling. In practical terms, this shift in perspective implied a de-emphasis in the principal’s role as a manager and greater stress on responsibilities for instructional leadership.

The federal government started to require more of principals in reference to how federal dollars would be used and compliance issues. American principals assumed a new set of change implementation functions that ranged from monitoring compliance with federal regulations to assisting in staff development and providing direct classroom support to teachers (Hallinger, 1992). In addition, research in education began to show the impact that principals had on the school community. Studies of change implementation began to solidify what many practitioners already believed; that principals make a difference in the quality of schools as experienced by teachers and students (Hallinger, 1992).

The 20th century also saw a rise in women and minorities being promoted to school principal. Initially, women and minorities were not afforded the same privileges for educational opportunities. According to Leiding (2004), women were ignored in regards to higher education throughout America’s history. However, with the rise in discrimination cases, the judicial system began to hold companies and corporations accountable. This action completely changed the evolution of modern education. From a sociological perspective, schools had to change to meet the needs of modern America (Leiding, 2004).

In an effort to meet the needs of modern day America, the 21st century principal had to acquire additional skills and training to prepare students to become analytical and critical thinkers. Principals were charged with creating academically challenging and stimulating educational environments to assist in the academic success of all students. During this time, it was becoming more apparent than ever that the cost of students not developing critical thinking
skills was having a negative effect on the economic development of the country. According to Hanushek (2006), a more educated society may lead to higher rates of invention and that improvement in schooling outcomes will have a powerful effect on earning and on the economy as a whole. Additionally, Belfield and Levin (2007) stated that “a person’s educational attainment is the most important determinant of a person’s life chances as it refers to employment, health status, income, and housing” (p. 1). Consequently, in a proactive effort to fight the war on what was becoming a battle for the future of the modern day student, principals began to assume (with a focus on implementing instructional strategies) the role of educational leaders.

The primary focus of schools is to provide students with the academic support that they need to be successful. Consequently, the focus in education began to shift towards having high scope curriculums with a focus on higher level thinking skills to master standardized (ACT, SAT, M-STEP, MME, etc.) tests. Principals were being held accountable more than ever for the academic achievement of students. In most states, their evaluations and jobs were being tied to student achievement. According to Davies (2009), the key foci for those who led schools in the last two decades, in many countries, have been school effectiveness and school improvement. These foci are set against an agenda of centralized curriculum and assessment frameworks with a primacy given to test results. According to Hoy and Miskel (2001), schools are service organizations that are committed to teaching and learning, and the ultimate goal of the school is student learning. Scheurich and Skrla (2003) asserted that in order for an educational leader to facilitate activities to lead a school, he or she must believe that all students can learn and that academic achievement is possible and attainable. Scheurich and Skrla (2003) added that
educational leaders must believe in equity and excellence in their quest to become effective leaders:

If you are going to successfully lead a school to attain both equity and excellence, you first have to believe it is possible. If you don’t believe, you are going to have to develop it because, having deepening, and sustaining this belief is central to convincing others, central to creating equitable and excellent schools. (p. 10)

With the belief that all students can learn and have a right to a quality education, the 21st century principal began to focus on implementing new research-based instructional strategies and programs, staff development workshops, testing assessments, multi-tiered systems of support, differentiated instructional practices, least restrictive environments and school improvement plans. The previously listed strategies were only a fraction of what principals were beginning to implement. Peterson and Kelley (2001) stated:

The work of principals has always been complex, but changes in schools, communities and educational policy approaches have increased the demands on these leaders and required new skills and often an even bigger time commitment. Principals now face greater responsibility for working with diverse communities and parents. There is significantly more accountability for student learning. There is more pressure to bring educational reforms and new programs into classrooms. (p. 9)

The 21st century requires principals to be more knowledgeable, creative and patient than ever. “Applying past solutions to current problems leads to failure for today’s principals. We must open ourselves to the possibility that we have to change based on new research, new knowledge, or a deeper understanding. We must believe what we believe” (Brewer, 2001, pp. 30-31). Brewer (2001) added that successful principals should focus on the following concepts:

1. Focus on instruction that puts children first.
2. Build a community of learners. Create a school climate focused on student success.
3. Shared decision making that allows ideas to be expressed.
4. Sustain the basics (i.e. management, budgets, and discipline), the logistics of schedules, personnel, and time.

5. Leverage time. Identify process, align those processes and integrate the language of change and improvement into the school’s daily routines.

6. Support necessary and ongoing professional development for all staff.

7. Assess and redirect resources necessary to support a multifaceted school plan.

8. Be a person of integrity.

9. Remain competent. To remain competent requires wisdom based on continuous learning and experience.

10. Develop a climate of inquiry and continuous improvement.

It was becoming a necessity that the 21st century principal possessed the skill set that was inclusive of leadership. Cawelti (1984) stated, “Continuing research on effective schools has verified the common sense observation that schools are rarely effective, in any sense of the word, unless the principal is a ‘good’ leader” (p.3). Therefore, in order for principals to be effective leaders, they must evolve to meet the changes and trends in education; for current research has shown that principals must be instructional leaders, charismatic, facilitators of urban education, analytical and critical thinkers, and financial gurus.

**Leadership: Theories, Traits, Practices and Implementation**

As was previously stated, 21st century principals are expected to encapsulate certain qualities that inspire school communities to support their mission and visions. The expectations are higher than ever; which requires principals to be charismatic, competent and professional leaders. There have always been individuals who were considered to possess a particular skill set to inspire others to follow. For example: Alexander the Great, Mahatma Gandhi, Mother Teresa, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., Leonidas, Nelson Mandela, and Abraham Lincoln possessed leadership qualities that some believe were superior to the average person. The previously listed
individuals are said to be some of the greatest leaders of all time. The impact that they made on the world, changed the course of history. And their contributions are still being researched and followed today.

The history of “leadership” can be traced back to the late 18th and 19th centuries, and there are numerous ways leadership can be defined, depending on the situation or circumstance. Bennis (1989) opined that leadership is like beauty—it is hard to define, but you know it when you see it. Common tasks can be accomplished if a person is able to garner the support of others. Hence forth, leadership is a method of influence (Chemers, 1997). One view is that all groups have a specialized leadership role that includes some responsibilities and functions that cannot be shared without jeopardizing the effectiveness of the group (Yukl, 1998). Morphet, Johns, and Reller (1982) asserted that leadership is not domination or coercion, but the promotion of followership. And lastly, Bush and Glover (2003) in their review of the leadership literature for the NCSL define leadership as a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. It involves inspiring and supporting others towards the achievement of a vision.

Not all researchers agree with the notion that the term “leadership” should have various definitions. For instance, Clark and Clark (1990) argue that “you cannot talk about leaders with anyone until you agree on what you are talking about. That requires a definition of leadership and a criterion for leadership acts that can be agreed on” (p. 5). Rost (1991) argued that “lack of attention to the definition has been one of the main impediments to progress in the field” (p. 5). Rost (1991) added that over 60 percent of the authors who have written on leadership since about 1910 did not define leadership in their works.

Even though there are varying views on leadership, in the educational arena however, there appears to be a common thread for effective school leaders; and that is to have an influence
over individuals to accomplish various tasks and/or goals. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999) contend that influence seems to be a necessary part of most conceptions of leadership. This suggests that most of the variation in leadership concepts, types or models can be accounted for by differences in who exerts influence, the nature of that influence, the purpose for the exercise of influence and its outcomes. Some individuals are born with leadership qualities; while others have to develop them. Hence, the definition of leadership presents various views, and so too does its theories and styles.

As the work force and educational arena evolved, numerous leadership theories, frameworks and traits were proposed and developed. Theorists like Frederick Taylor (1911), Max Weber (1922), Mary Parker Follett (1926), Luther Gulick (1937) and Chester Barnard (1938) are just a few of the individuals who contributed to the early evolution of leadership theories and styles (Straker, 2010). Straker (2010) provided a brief description of the theories that the previously listed theorists presented:

1. Frederick Taylor (1911) can be credited with introducing the Scientific Management (time/motion studies of productivity).

2. Max Weber (1922) wrote on bureaucracy. The leaders were in charge just because of their position.

3. Mary Parker Follett (1926) focused on participatory management. In this realm, the issue of power is presented and the effects of having power with individuals, instead of having power over individuals.

4. Luther Gulick (1937) presented research on the importance of being organized. He believed that it was imperative to plan, organize, staff, direct, coordinated, report and budget.

According to modern day research in education, principals must be cognizant of the importance that leadership theories, traits and practices plays in leading school communities; for the implementation of a particular style could be either the success, or downfall of creating an academically stimulating, nurturing and supportive educational environments.
Currently, the leadership theory that is most prevalent in today’s educational arena is “transformational leadership.” The Transformational Leadership Theory involves input from all stakeholders, gets everyone involved in the decision-making process, and inspires and encourages all members of the school community to become active and respected participants to accomplish the mission and vision. Leithwood et al., (1999) asserted that transformational leadership assumes that the central focus of leadership ought to be the commitments and capacities of organizational members, and higher levels of personal commitment to organizational goals and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity. Leithwood (1994) presented eight components that he believed are essential to transformational leadership:

1. Building a school vision
2. Establishing school goals
3. Providing intellectual stimulation
4. Offering individualized support
5. Modeling best practices and important organizational values
6. Demonstrating high performance expectations
7. Creating a productive school culture
8. Developing structures to foster participation in school decisions

The transformation model is comprehensive in that it provides a normative approach to school leadership, which focuses primarily on the process by which leaders seek to influence school outcomes rather than on the nature or direction of those outcomes (Bush, 2003). Straker, (2010), asserted in transformational leadership, the leader examines and searches for the needs and motives of others while seeking a higher (visionary/change agent) agenda of needs. In
essence, all stakeholders of the school community work collectively to ensure that the schools vision comes to fruition. Higher levels of personal commitment to organizational goals and greater capacities for accomplishing those goals are assumed to result in extra effort and greater productivity (Leithwood, et al., 1999:9).

The success or downfall of principals can come from the particular leadership style they implement. Therefore, it is imperative for 21st century principals to select a particular approach to leadership and to implement it with fidelity. Of late, transformational leadership is playing a key role in the educational arena, because of its potential to include all stakeholders of the school community to participate in the decision-making process. Consequently, the Transformational Leadership Theory was selected to support the conceptual framework for this research study.

**Conceptual Framework**

As was stated earlier, transformational leadership is currently playing a vital role in the field of education. Therefore, the conceptual framework in this research study used the tenets of its model. Research is showing that highly effective principals are essential to the academic success of schools. “Leadership can be understood as a process of influence based on clear values and beliefs and leading to a ‘vision’ for the school. The vision is articulated by leaders who seek to gain the commitment of staff and stakeholders to the ideal of a better future for the school, its learners and stakeholders” (Bush, 2007, p. 403). In essence, the previous statement is the core of the transformational leadership model.

James MacGregor Burns (1978) first brought the concept of transformational leadership to prominence in his book *Leadership*. In this leadership style, the leader enhances the motivation, morale and performance of his follower group. Positive change is created in the
followers whereby they take care of each other's interests and act in the interests of the group as a whole (Burns, 1978).

Burns (1978) believed that leadership should have a higher purpose, and less emphasis on power. Burns (1978) added that leadership is a relationship of power for a specific purpose that is consistent, or eventually consistent, with the motives, needs, and values of both the leader and the led. And that leadership is more than wielding power or manipulating others, leadership is a moral endeavor. Burns (1978) discussed the importance of competent and professional leaders; as opposed to basic managers. He elaborated by asserting that there is clearly a difference between management and leadership; and that true transformational leadership is what inspires and encourages others to work collectively to accomplish goals. Burns (1978) listed the four transformational leadership theory components:

1. Charisma or idealized influence - the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways and displays convictions and takes stands that cause followers to identify with the leader who has a clear set of values and acts as a role model for the followers.

2. Inspirational motivation - the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that appeals to and inspires the followers with optimism about future goals, and offers meaning for the current tasks in hand.

3. Intellectual stimulation - the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, stimulates and encourages creativity in the followers - by providing a framework for followers to see how they connect [to the leader, the organization, each other, and the goal] they can creatively overcome any obstacles in the way of the mission.

4. Personal and individual attention - the degree to which the leader attends to each individual follower's needs and acts as a mentor or coach and gives respect to and appreciation of the individual's contribution to the team. This fulfills and enhances each individual team members' need for self-fulfillment, and self-worth, and in doing so, inspires followers to further achievement and growth.

Research has shown that principals, who make honest efforts to implement the transformational model with fidelity, tend to be more successful in creating positive and productive educational environments. The relationship between principals and teachers is vital to the overall climate of
schools. According to Bass (1998), only transformational leaders can arouse their followers to see the threats and their lack of preparedness, and provide goals to transcend self-interests and to provide confident direction.

The transformational leadership theory approach encompasses the qualities to potentially engage all members of the school community to work harmoniously together to achieve the common goal of academic excellence for all students. Bolman and Deal (2010), presented a holistic approach to transformational leadership that focused on the political, structural, humanistic and symbolic framework. According to Bolman and Deal (2010), in the political realm of leadership, it is important to know who the key players of the school are and how politics work in schools. Bolman and Deal (2010) added that in schools, there are loose collection of individuals with different ideas and opinions. Establishing positive and productive working relationships with keys individuals of the school community could assist in the success of the educational leader’s quest in creating a positive and productive educational environment.

In the structural framework, Bolman and Deal (2010) asserted that having a vision and the strategies to how the vision is going to come to fruition is key in establishing structure in schools. Often, principals try to facilitate all of the activities in schools, which leaves teachers disempowered (Bolman & Deal, 2010). When teachers are given the opportunity to have input and to lead activities, they feel encouraged and empowered.

In the human resource framework, Bolman and Deal (2010) discussed the importance of developing respectful relationships with staff; which in turn creates positive school culture. It is important for principals and teachers to give each other feedback (Bolman & Deal, 2010). The premise of this framework is to get honest feedback, so that each individual’s point of view can be heard and respected.
In the symbolic framework, Bolman and Deal (2010) discussed the importance of tradition and respect for the culture that has been established in schools. It is Bolman and Deal’s (2010) belief that principals must support long standing traditions because often times, certain activities are symbols of what a school, city or town represents.

Just as teachers develop their pedagogical approach, so too do educational leaders in their quest to perfect their craft. As education continues to evolve, approaches to school leadership has evolved as well. Therefore, in response to the evolution of school leadership, the transformational theory takes a more contemporary approach to leading school communities. In transformation leadership, all stakeholders of the school community are actively involved in the decision-making process to ensure that everyone’s opinion is heard and respected. Brower and Balch (2005) stated:

Whether the reader is embracing new decision-making theories to enhance leadership practices, or affirming current leadership pedagogies, transformational concepts will meet with the greatest success when leaders raise awareness among other school stakeholders about transformational decision-making. As with all change, it must become a part of a school or district’s culture and permeate the daily climate in order to have significant and meaningful impact. In fact, all school stakeholders, not just school leadership, can reap tremendous benefit from the pedagogical shift of transformational decision-making. (p. 12)

In essence, the blueprint to academic success is created with the end in mind, and getting all stakeholders to buy in to “the change” is essential to the success of the school. Under the transformational leadership model, educational leaders do not operate in a silo. Empowering teachers and including them in the decisions that affect the school helps to build trusting and productive working relationships. “An administrator who empowers a teacher in the school for a leadership task is an example of shared leadership and an institutional dynamic” (Brower & Balch, 2005, p. 15). Transformational leaders operate under a particular set of rules, which
inform their decision making. Brower and Balch (2005) presented a pedagogical constructed set of Transformational Laws that guide educational leaders in their decision making process:

1. Leaders understand and practice a consistent decision-making pedagogy.
2. Leaders are aware of the internal obstacles to decision-making.
3. Leaders recognized the external barriers to decisions making.
4. Leaders align decision-making practices with their mission.
5. Leaders know the fundamental laws of human nature.
6. Leaders define relationships with rapport and respect.
7. Leaders appreciate the value of empowerment and delegation.
8. Leaders value meaningful motivation.
9. Leaders understand capitalism and its competitive influences.
10. Leaders comprehend educational change.
11. Leaders recognized the destructive pitfalls in decision making.
12. Leaders promote a consistent decision-making pedagogy among all stakeholders. (p. 15)

Having a clear set of rules that govern the school community, with the best interest of “everyone” as the focal point, will decrease the likelihood of decisions being made that are detrimental to the educational environment. The previously discussed frameworks encapsulate the essence of transformational leadership by focusing on the premise of the school leader to inspire, encourage and include all stakeholders of the school community. Consequently, for principals and teachers in urban schools to form positive and productive working relationships, implementation of the transformational leadership model with fidelity would assist in creating healthy school climates and cultures.
Teacher Morale

The implementation of the transformational leadership strategies into urban school communities could be beneficial to both principal and teachers; which in turn could assist in creating positive school cultures conducive to learning an academic achievement for students. The climate in today’s urban schools can play a major role in how teachers feel about their working conditions. Research in education is showing that when the morale of teachers is high, students benefit tremendously. Miller (1981) said:

Teacher morale can have a positive effect on pupil attitudes and learning, and that raising teacher morale level is not only making teaching more pleasant for teachers, but also learning more pleasant for the students. This creates an environment that is more conducive to learning. (p. 485)

According to Hoy and Miskel (1987), healthy school environments exist and teacher morale is high when teachers feel good about each other and feel a sense of accomplishment from their jobs.

On the other hand, when teacher morale is low, students may suffer. Research studies have found that low levels of satisfaction and morale can lead to decreased teacher productivity and burnout (Ascher & Farber, 1991). According to Farber (1983), teachers who become burned out may be less sympathetic toward students, may have a lower tolerance for frustration in the classroom, may plan for their classes less often or less carefully, may fantasize or actually plan on leaving the profession, may feel frequently emotionally or physically exhausted, may feel anxious, irritable, depressed, and, in general, may feel less committed and dedicated to their work.

Bentley and Rempel (1980) defined teacher morale as the degree to which the needs of a person are satisfied, and the person's perception of how the job situation brought the state of satisfaction of the worker to fruition. Koerner (1990) stated that staff morale is the quality of
lives within a community that involved “being known and appreciated, having professional knowledge valued, and being given the freedom to act” (p. 3). Mendel (1987) added that morale is a feeling, state of mind, a mental attitude and emotional attitude. The previously listed definitions describe a sense of belonging, self-efficacy and internal gratification that an individual feels when the climates of their work environments are supportive, positive and productive.

Research studies have shown that when teachers are afforded the opportunity to contribute to the mission and vision of the school, are treated with kindness and respect, and receive support from school administrators, they are more likely to become engaged and active in the schools’ climate and culture. In addition, they feel good about themselves and have better relationships with colleagues. Stogdill (1961) conceived morale as the degree of freedom from restraint exhibited by a group working toward a goal objective. According to Chandler and Mathis (1957), teacher morale is a feeling of general well-being and psychological comfort relative to attitudes about the self and the environment. Low morale is associated with frustration, alienation, and powerlessness; while belongingness, togetherness, achievement, and self or group esteem are generally associated with high morale (Andrew et al., 1985). In essence, high or low teacher morale can have either a positive or negative affect on the climate of schools. Consequently, it is imperative that principals are cognizant of the roles that they play as it relates to teacher morale, an address issues and concerns accordingly. In addressing teachers’ issues and concerns, working collectively and involving them in the decision-making process (transformational leadership) principals show their teachers that they are supported, respected and valued for their contributions to the school community.
Factors that Affect Teacher Morale

There are numerous influences that can affect teacher morale. For example, a lack of administrative support, lack of resources, low pay, student discipline issues and violence, can create stressful educational environments for teachers. In reference to administrative support, teachers look to their leaders for assistance and guidance. When the educational environment is hostile, and there is no direction, teacher morale can be adversely affected. According to Kelehear (2004), when leaders are in a high state of stress, they create a culture that is under stress as well. Schools that regularly function in an atmosphere of unmanaged stress begin to be dysfunctional and unhealthy. Teachers’ attitudes and morale deteriorate. The lack of resources to assist teachers with their daily instructional duties, and the support of principals can also contribute to low teacher morale. Baldacci (2006), a former middle school teacher in an urban school in Chicago, Illinois said:

I felt unappreciated and was often exhausted after work. The fatigue was not just physical. It was mental as well. I was drained more every day by the limits of poverty, the unprofessional manner in which our school was run, the criticism, the nitpicking, the zero encouragement or respect. No one ever told you when you did a good job. It was like no other job situation I had ever experienced. (p. 8)

Research studies have shown that it is important for principals to be instructional leaders. Teachers look to their principals to provide researched based strategies, mentoring, data driven instructional methods, and assistance with professional growth and development. According to Fink and Resnick (2001), the idea that principals should serve as instructional leaders, not just as general managers, is widely subscribed to among educators:

In practice, though, few principals act as genuine instructional leaders. Their days are filled with the activities of management; scheduling, reporting, handling relations with parents and the community, and dealing with the multiple crises and special situations that are inevitable in schools. Most principals spend relatively little time in classrooms and even less time analyzing instruction with
teachers. They arrange time for teacher’s meetings and professional development, but they rarely provide intellectual leadership for growth in teaching skill. (p. 598)

The salaries in most urban school districts are considerably lower in comparison to suburban school districts; which in turn can contribute to low teacher morale. For example, the top salaries for teachers in the Detroit Public Schools District and the River Rouge Public Schools District (both urban school districts) are considerably lower than teachers in the Southfield Public School District and the Birmingham Public Schools District (both suburban school districts). The payscales for selected school districts are presented below in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Payscales for Selected School Districts (Payscale, 2015)

Often, the salary that urban teachers receive is not comparable to suburban teachers. In comparing the highest and lowest school districts’ salaries, the previous chart shows a $15,954 difference. The constant reminder in the difference of salaries may contribute to low teacher morale. Lastly, when teachers do not feel safe, their morale can be adversely affected; and the level of instruction may suffer. Stewart (2003) wrote:

Educators in an urban high school in Kansas City taught while fires were set, students walked through the halls without passes and fights were frequent occurrences. Teachers worked in isolation. As a survival tactic, good teachers would go into their classrooms, lock the doors, and try to block out the chaos enough to teach the students who showed up. (p. 78)
Research has shown the correlation between the previously listed examples and the effects on low teacher morale. Leaders create culture and have a responsibility to change it (Patterson & Kelehear, 2003).

Numerous research studies have shown that when teachers are afforded opportunities to contribute to the educational environment, are treated with respect, feel supported and have professional development opportunities, morale is high. When leadership stress begins to change, then the school culture changes too. People are more open to critique, they communicate more often and more accurately, and teachers and principals pay attention to student’s needs more easily (Kelehear, 2004). Blase and Blase (2001) expressed that effective principals’ value dialogue that encourages teachers to reflect on their learning and practice. Peterson and Kelley (2001) stated, “The best principals do not lead alone. Without principals encouraging and supporting teacher leadership, collaborative leadership will die” (p. 8). The benefits of open dialogue can assist in building relationships of trust between teachers and principals, because it shows that teachers’ contributions are valued.

Professional development and personal growth opportunities for teachers have been found to have a positive effect on teacher morale. In a study by Blase and Blase (2001), the following principal practices could assist in improving teacher morale:

1. Emphasize the study of teaching and learning.
2. Provide staff development opportunities that address emergent needs.
4. Develop coaching relationships.
5. Encourage teachers to become peer coaches.
6. Encourage support program redesign.
7. Staff development workshops could focus on adult learning and growth.

8. Decisions about what informs instruction could be based on action research. (pp. 23-24)

According to Roby (2009), the research that is available suggests significant professional contribution to the school reflects growth in student learning, and ongoing growth for educators. Peer learning can be extended with collaborative leadership and professional contributions (Roby, 2009). In addition, mentoring programs for new teachers have proven to be beneficial to school climate. Davis (2008) indicated that novice teachers should be properly mentored, so that they do not fall by the wayside:

Successful mentoring of first, second and third-year teachers is imperative for both retention and the continued success of students in the public school setting. Implementation of effective teacher mentor programs is vitally important to teachers’ professional success and can have positive impacts on student achievement and staff morale. (p. 55)

In essence, research studies have shown that activities that allow teachers to share their thoughts and opinions, without repercussion from principals can improve teacher morale. The more all professionals feel a part of decision making, the greater their morale, participation, and commitment in carrying out the school’s goals (Gideon & Erlandson, 2001).

Another component that research has found to have a positive effect on teacher morale is parental involvement and the relationship between teachers, principals and parents. In working collectively, the previously mentioned individuals can foster positive relationships to support the mission and vision of the school. Educating parents is the key step in changing the environment of a school (Mongiello, Brady, Johnson, & Harrison-Berg, 2009). Programs that encourage parents to be a part of the decision-making process can create an atmosphere of respect for all stakeholders involved.
The numerous factors that affect teacher morale could determine how teachers feel about their contributions to the school community. For example, teachers’ contributions to the school community could both support the mission and vision that the principal is trying to implement, or hinder its development, if teacher morale is either high or low. Therefore, principals should be cognizant of the issues and concerns of teachers; particularly in urban schools.

**Principal Leadership Practices and the Effect on Teacher Morale**

Principal leadership practices and its effect on teacher morale has been researched and studied for decades. Both quantitative and qualitative studies have been conducted to analyze the relationship between the two entities. Numerous studies imply that the practices of principals have an influence on the morale of teachers. Several authors have theorized that leadership plays an important role in creating an empowering environment, one that promotes self-determination and self-efficacy (e.g. Bass 1990, Benning & Nanus, 1985; Vogt and Murrell, 1990). On the other hand, the leadership practices of principals can also have an adverse effect on teacher morale. According to Kelehear (2004), leadership style, school culture, teacher morale, and student performance all suffer in a community where tension is high and emotional support is low.

One of the earliest studies to measure the relationship between teacher morale and organizational climate was conducted in the late 1960s. Koplyay and Mathis (1967) performed a study to investigate the relationship between teacher morale and organizational climate, by surveying 299 elementary school teachers in a suburban Chicago school district. The instruments that were used were the Chandler-Mathis Attitude Inventory; which measured the level of morale with respect to self, school, community, administration, and policy, and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ); which measured the degree of openness or
closedness in eight features of school climate: disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration (Koplyay & Mathis, 1967).

The following presents data from Koplyay and Mathis (1967):

1. Morale, as measured by the five subtexts or areas, of the Morale Inventory, was more a function of the particular organizational climate than of the type of salary schedule employed by the school.

2. The open nature of the school climate appears to be associated more with higher morale.

3. The closed nature of the school climate appears to be associated more with low morale.

4. Schools enjoying an "autonomous" climate characterized by freedom and high cooperation between principal and teachers seem to be unaffected with respect to morale by the particular salary policies of the schools. When teachers are assured of cooperation, assistance, guidance, and social need satisfaction, it appears to make no difference whether the salary plan is merit or non-merit. (p. 6)

The results of the study suggested that an "open" climate is associated with high morale regardless of type of salary schedule. In "closed" climate schools, however, higher morale was found in schools with merit, rather than nonmerit, and salary schedules (Koplyay & Mathis (1967).

Peterson and Kelley (2001) conducted a study on principals’ empowering behaviors as they related to teacher motivation, job satisfaction, and job stress. The researchers used Vogt and Murrell’s (1990) model of empowerment as a partial framework for their study because it addressed empowerment from an intrinsic perspective. Thomas and Velthouse’s (1990) cognitive model of intrinsic empowerment was also used in this study because it focused on internal, subjective judgments that occur with individuals as they go about completing job-related tasks. The study involved 660 elementary teachers and 44 principals from public elementary schools in Washington. The instrument that was used to collect the data was the Principals Empowering
Behaviors (PEB) Questionnaire. It was found in Peterson’s and Kelley’s study (2001) study that there was a significant relationship between PEB and teacher motivation.

In Peters and Waterman (1982), study of America’s Best-run Companies, it was found that these companies have an organizational structure, management style, and service philosophy that boosts employee pride and morale. Henceforth, if leaders are to create an empowering organization, they need to establish positive relationships within the work setting, develop groups that work collaboratively in making decisions, inspire and guide the organization, and put in place a process of renewal for the organization (Peterson & Kelley, 2001).

In Hudson’s (1983) analysis of the relationship between middle school principals’ perceived leadership behavior and the organization climate, 11 middle schools were selected to participate in the study. The study included 419 faculty members and 11 principals. The instruments that were used were the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and the Leadership Behavior Questionnaire. It was found in Hudson’s (1983) study that the teachers’ perception of the principal’s leadership does have an effect on the organizational climate of the middle school. Hudson (1983) said:

Teachers, who have a healthy perception of the principal’s leadership behavior, have a healthy perception of the school’s organizational climate. The results also indicate that there is no leadership behavior better than another. But, principals who are high in both dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration (LBDQ) will have a high openness within their school. (p. 4)

Research has shown that teachers, who leave the profession, usually leave in the first five years. Blair-Larsen (1998) stated that the more problems new teachers encounter, the more likely they will leave the education profession. Angelle (2002) performed a qualitative study that examined the experiences of new teachers and the role that principals play in the induction process. The findings in this study showed that Time, Observations, Subject Matter, and
Schedules (T.O.S.S) were components that administrators could control to assist new teachers in having a smooth transition for their first year of teaching; in addition to transitioning from novice to veteran teacher. Angelle (2002) added:

Principals should take an active role in the induction of new teachers including frequent discussions, monitoring, and feedback regarding professional practice. Principals who take seriously their role as instructional leader can do much to shape an effective teaching staff in a school climate geared to learning. (p.15)

Houchard (2005) performed a quantitative study using the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO), the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the North Carolina End-of-Grade/End-of-Course tests to understand and measure principal leadership practices and teacher morale as it related to student achievement at two elementary schools, four middle schools and one high school in North Carolina. Numerous significant correlations were found in this study in reference high teacher morale based on principal leadership practices. Satisfaction with teaching led the way in contributing to higher morale whereas the issue of teacher salary was found to lower morale (Houchard, 2005).

As was presented earlier in this study, professional contribution by teachers to the school plays a major role in morale. According to Roby (2009), the research that is available suggests significant professional contribution to the school reflects growth in student learning, and ongoing growth for educators. In Roby’s (2009) study, 70 teachers enrolled in graduate level course work at Wright State University were surveyed to ascertain information to the extent of the faculty’s involvement and professional contributions to their school. It was found in Roby’s (2009) study that levels of contributions fluctuated. Variables affecting contribution levels included, but were not limited to political climate, self-perception, morale, leadership, style, knowledge base, teamwork, and having a definite purpose or mission. Roby (2009) found that:
Approximately one out of every four teachers (approximately 24%) work most of the time at the influential or respected levels of contribution. Reasons stated for this rating suggest that political climate at the school, or district, along with isolation from colleagues greatly affect contribution to the school. Approximately, one-fifth (22%) of the teachers work most of the time as noncontributors. Having a definite purpose, high morale, and teamwork were listed as factors leading to the highest levels of contribution. (pp. 857-858)

Davies (2009) stated that strategic leaders are concerned with not just managing the now, but setting up a framework of where the organization needs to be in the future, setting a direction for the organization. The function of this strategy is to translate the moral purpose and vision into reality.

Research has shown that the characteristics of the “teacher’s principal” is one who creates avenues of success for teacher growth and professional development. In Blase and Blase (2001) research study, 809 teachers from public elementary, middle and high schools were surveyed using open-ended questionnaires to describe the characteristics of their principals (strategies, behaviors, attitudes, and goals) that influence their classroom instruction. Blase and Blase (2001) found in their study that teachers reported positive effects on their motivation, satisfaction, self-esteem, efficacy, sense of security, and feelings of support. The overall data in Blase and Blase (2001) study indicated that each of the instructional leadership strategies (discussed earlier in this study) enhanced teachers’ well-being, emotionally, cognitively, and behaviorally.

A study conducted by Nguni, Sleegers, and Denessen (2006) was performed to analyze the effects that transformational and transactional leadership had on teacher morale at a school in a developing country in Tanzania. The study examined the responses of primary school teachers. The focus was to analyze the relationship between the principal and teachers; with an emphasis on the effects that the principal’s leadership style had on teacher morale. According to Nguni,
Sleegers, and Denessen’s (2006) study the regression analyses showed transformational leadership dimensions to have strong effects on teacher morale. Transformational leadership had significant add-on effects to transactional leadership in the prediction. In essence, transformational leadership (which motivates through empowerment) had a more positive effect on teacher morale, than transactional leadership (which motivates through an exchange of rewards and punishments).

Using the Teacher Morale Survey developed by the American Federation of Teachers to test the effect of principal leadership style on staff motivation, Gallmeier (1992) conducted a study that surveyed 30-40 graduate students at Chicago State University (Illinois). The data in Gallmeier (1992) study found:

1. Administrators need to have an increased concern with human motivation organizations.

1. Administrators need to give teachers opportunities to perform professionally, perceive their role as important, and value improvement.

3. Personal responsibility through participation in decision making and policy formulation motivates teachers and improves teachers' self-image.

4. The principal is the most significant individual in the creation of an effective school.

The results of this study showed that teachers who work under democratic and transactional administrators do not have a significantly higher motivational level than those who work under dictatorial administrators (Gallmeier, 1992). Gallmeier (1992) added that this study points to the need to continue such research in this area, utilizing a different instrument.

In Rowland’s (2008) research study, the relationship between seven middle principals’ leadership styles and the morale of teachers in a particular Metropolitan Atlanta school district was analyzed. Data was collected using the LPI and the PTO surveys. It was found in Rowland’s
(2008) study that principal leadership practices and teacher morale were significantly correlated and that the leadership practice of Enable Others to Act had the strongest positive correlation to teacher morale. It was found in the study that the daily practices of the principals had an effect on the overall environment of the school (Rowland, 2008).

The previously listed research studies showed a relationship between principal leadership practices and the effects on teacher morale. In nearly all of the studies, the literature showed that the positive practices of principals lead to positive levels of teacher morale. In addition, one of the studies presented data on the effects that high teacher morale had on student achievement. In essence, research has shown that when principals are supportive, provide professional development opportunities and include teachers in the decision-making processes that impact the school, healthy school communities can exist. Consequently, the relationship between principals and teachers, particularly in urban schools is key to the overall climate and culture of schools.

Summary

The current role of the school principal has evolved to meet the needs and expectations of today’s student; in addition to creating positive and productive working relationships with teachers. Current research in education has stated that the relationship between principals and teachers is essential in creating school climates and cultures conducive to learning an academic achievement for students. Consequently, the practices of principals as it relates to teacher morale is key to creating healthy school communities.

Both principals and teachers in urban schools are faced with a plethora of challenges, and when the relationship between both entities are strained the educational environment may suffer. Hence, this literature review presented related collected works that encompassed various resources that show a connection between principal leadership practices and teacher morale. The
conceptual framework presented information on the transformational theory and its influence in past research studies and its influence on this research study. In addition, various studies were presented to show the relationship between principal leadership practices and the effects on teacher morale. Implications from the review of literature showed that there was a relationship between the leadership practices of principals and teacher morale.

As was stated earlier in this research study, teachers are exiting urban school districts because of what they believe is a lack of support from principals. Consequently, this research study will use a quantitative approach to ascertain information to address the gaps in literature as it relates to principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze and measure the association between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools. This chapter described the methods and procedures that were used to conduct the study. This chapter presented the research perspective and design of the study, research context and participants, instruments, data collection procedures and analysis. Two specific areas, practices of principals and effects on teacher morale in urban schools, were investigated. The literature review presented collected research studies that discussed the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale. Consequently, a nonexperimental (quantitative) correlational research design method was used to measure and analyze the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools.

Research Perspective and Design

As was previously stated, this research study used a nonexperimental (quantitative) correlation research design method. This type of research design is used when the independent variable is not manipulated and no treatment or intervention is provided to the participants. The primary data collection tools were electronic surveys provided on Survey Monkey. Descriptive statistics, correlational analysis, and multivariate analysis were used to analyze the results of the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO, Bentley & Rempel, 1967) and Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI, Kouzes & Posner, 1980) surveys, and address the research questions by testing the associated hypotheses.
Research Context

This study took place in an urban school district in a large Midwestern city. For confidentiality purposes, the school district was not identified. However, the schools were listed as School A, School B, School C and School D. The school district included six elementary/middle schools, six high schools and three charter schools for a total of 15 schools, and has been in existence for a little over four years. Approximately 6,750 students were enrolled in the school district during the 2015-2016 academic year. Approximately 96% of students are African-American, 1% are Caucasian, 3% are Hispanic and 1% students are listed as other. The graduation rate for the district was 8.33% (for the 2014-2015 school year) and 74.8% of the students were economically disadvantaged as determined by their qualification for free or reduced lunch programs.

Participants

The participants in this research study project were teachers from one elementary/middle school and three high schools. A total of 150 teachers were working in the four schools. These teachers were teaching general and special education students and were considered highly qualified under the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) guidelines. Among the teachers, 27 were from the “Teach for America” program.

Instruments

Two instruments, the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (Bentley & Rempel, 1967) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1980) were used in the present study. Because of their ease in use, confidential format, and rapid turnaround for data collection, researchers have used the LPI and PTO in many studies to examine teacher morale and teachers’ perceptions of principal leadership practices.
Purdue Teacher Opinionaire

This research study used the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO). The PTO is a survey created by Bentley and Rempel that consists of 100 statements (Bentley & Rempel, 1967). The purpose of this study was to determine teachers’ perceptions of factors that affect teacher morale in 10 areas (how teachers feel about their rapport with the principal, how satisfied they are with teaching, the relationships amongst teachers, teacher salaries, teachers’ work-loads, issues with curriculum, the status of teachers, how the community supports education, the pressures that teachers face from the community and the school facilities and services (Bentley & Rempel, 1980). Table 1 presents the items on each subscale.

Table 1

Purdue Teacher Opinionaire – Subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Test-Retest**</th>
<th>$\alpha$ for present study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with principal</td>
<td>2, 3, 5*, 7, 12, 33, 38, 41, 43, 44, 46, 61, 62, 69, 70, 72*, 73, 74, 92, 93, 95</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teaching</td>
<td>19, 24, 26, 27, 29, 30*, 46, 47, 50, 51, 56*, 58, 60*, 76*, 78, 82, 83, 89</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among teachers</td>
<td>18*, 22, 23, 28, 48, 52, 53, 54*, 55, 77, 80, 84, 87, 90</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher salary</td>
<td>4, 9, 32, 36, 39, 65, 75</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher load</td>
<td>1*, 6*, 8*, 10*, 11*, 14*, 31*, 34*, 40*, 42*, 45*</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curricular issues</td>
<td>17, 20, 25*, 79*, 88</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher status in the community</td>
<td>13, 15, 35, 37, 63, 64, 68, 71*</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support for education</td>
<td>66, 67, 94, 96, 97</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School facilities and services</td>
<td>16, 21, 49, 57, 59</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community pressures</td>
<td>81*, 85*, 91, 98*, 99*</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Items were recoded prior to scoring

**Bentley & Rempel (1980)
**Scoring.** Teachers are asked to rate each of the items on the PTO using a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 for disagree to 4 for agree. After recoding the negatively worded items, the numeric ratings are summed for each subscale, with the total score divided by the number of items on the subscale to obtain a mean score. The use of a mean score provides a score that reflects the original unit of measure and allows for comparison across the subscales with different number of items.

**Reliability.** The PTO has been used in numerous research studies, because of its reliability. Bentley and Rempel (1980) used test-retest at a four-week interval to determine the stability of the instrument. The obtained coefficient of .87 was evidence of good overall test-retest reliability. The internal consistency of the responses from teachers in the present study was obtained using Cronbach alpha coefficients. The alpha coefficients ranged from .96 for rapport with the principal to .57 for community pressures. These coefficients indicated that the PTO had good to adequate internal consistency as a measure of reliability for the present study.

**Validity.** Construct validity was determined with the use of a principal components factor analysis on the 100 items included on the scale. Using an oblique rotation, the eight largest factors accounted for 56.13% of the variance in teacher morale (Bentley & Rempel, 1980). Additional analysis resulted in 10 factors being used for the final scale. In addition, validity was determined by comparing principal’s perceptions of teacher morale in schools in Indiana and Oregon. The comparison of the median scores for each of the factors was similar leading to the conclusion that the instrument was valid (Bentley & Rempel, 1980). The instrument was also found to discriminate among schools and among teachers in particular schools. Although Bentley and Rempel (1980) indicated that additional analyses were necessary, they noted that teachers in
schools with low morale tended to have higher teacher turnover than schools with high teacher morale.

**Leadership Practices Inventory**

This research study also used the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). For the purposes of this research study, the teachers completed the LPI Observer form; which discussed the principal’s practices. The LPI is a survey that was developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997) and had 30 items that measured five subscales: modeling the way, inspiring shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others, and encouraging the heart. These subscales reflected transformational leadership behaviors as described by Brown and Posner (2001). A 10-point scale Likert scale was used to assess the respondents’ perception of self-behavior. The scale ranged from 1 for almost never to 10 for almost always. The subscales, a short description of the subscales and the items included on each subscale are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Leadership Practices Inventory – Subscales*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>α**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modeling the Way</td>
<td>Achieve small goals while aiming for higher ones.</td>
<td>1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring Shared Vision</td>
<td>Encourage others to pursue future aspirations like theirs.</td>
<td>2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging the Process</td>
<td>Willing to take risks. Seeks creativity and change while searching for opportunities.</td>
<td>3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling Others</td>
<td>Empower others by providing respect, trust, and professional courtesy. Promotes collaborative teams.</td>
<td>4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging the Heart</td>
<td>Acknowledging the hard work and effort of others. Reward accomplishments.</td>
<td>5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Kouzes & Posner, 1980)

** Cronbach alpha coefficients for the present study
**Scoring.** The teachers’ responses to each of the items on each subscale were summed to obtain a total score. The total score is divided by 5 to obtain a mean score that reflects the original scale of measurements.

**Reliability.** All instruments have measurement errors than can result in differences in scores among participants. Instruments that have fewer errors are more likely to be reliable, with reliability coefficients greater than .60 considered adequate (Kouzes & Posner, 2000). Extensive research has been completed to verify the reliability of the LPI. Kouzes and Posner (2000) used Cronbach alpha coefficients to determine the internal consistency of the LPI. Alpha coefficients for the leaders (self-report) in Kouzes and Posner LPI ranged from .75 for enabling others to .87 for inspiring shared vision. Similar results were found for other managers and executives. For example, Kouzes and Posner (2000) reported alpha coefficients ranging from .89 to .92 for managers in engineering firms, with women in executive positions having alpha coefficients ranging from .71 to .82. College presidents’ alpha coefficients ranged from .71 to .84. These findings indicated consistency among the different groups being studied, providing assurances that the LPI has adequate to good internal consistency as a measure of reliability.

The internal consistency of the LPI with participants in the present study was assessed by computing Cronbach alpha coefficients for each of the subscales. The coefficients ranged from .90 for modeling the way to .96 for encouraging the heart. These results provided support that the LPI has good to excellent internal consistency for the present sample.

Test-retest is a measure of reliability that Kouzes and Posner used to assess the stability of the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2000). Riley (1991) in her doctoral dissertation reported a test-retest coefficient for school superintendents at .86, which indicates good stability. Because the
participants in the present study completed the LPI once, stability with the present sample could not be assessed.

**Validity.** Validity is used to determine if an instrument is measuring what it purports to measure (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). For example, standardized tests in a curriculum area must be validated to provide assurances that the items are measuring the curriculum area (e.g., science or social science) and not reading ability. The LPI has been tested for face validity and predictive validity (Kouzes & Posner 2001). Expert panels provide feedback on whether the instrument has face validity and is measuring what it intends to measure (Vogt & Johnson, 2011).

The construct validity of the LPI was assessed using principal components factor analysis using a varimax rotation. Five factors (modeling the way, inspiring shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others, and encouraging the heart) emerged from the 30 items on the scale (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). Each factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 and the five factors accounted for 60.5 percent of the variance in leadership practices being measured. Kouzes and Posner (2000) repeated the factor analyses with data obtained from several diverse samples to test the consistency of the factor analysis across different types of participants. The results for each test provided the same results.

By correlating scores on the LPI with other behavior performance measures, Kouzes and Posner (2000) found the LPI had good concurrent validity. Subordinate employees reported on the leadership practices of their managers using the LPI Observer. The results of the multiple regression analysis found that more than 55% of the variance in observer scores were explained by leadership practices (Kouzes & Posner, 2000).

Discriminant validity was used to determine if the LPI could distinguish between high and low performing supervisors, the instrument was assessed for discriminant validity. Kouzes
and Posner (2000) used a canonical correlation analysis and found that scores on the LPI correctly classified 92.6% of the supervisors into high and low performance categories. Kouzes and Posner (2000) assessments for the validity of the LPI provided evidence that the scale has excellent face, predictive, content, concurrent, and discriminant validity.

**Procedures and Data Collection**

The researcher submitted permission to conduct the research study, information sheet, and copies of the PTO and LPI surveys to the designee of the urban school district. After permission to conduct the study was approved, the researcher selected schools that participated in the study. The researcher called each principal to obtain approval to conduct the study at their schools. Once approval was given (both verbal and written confirmation) by the principals, the researcher attended the weekly staff meetings at each school to introduce the study and invite the teachers to participate.

During the staff meetings, the researcher explained the purpose of the study to teachers. The information sheet was distributed to all teachers in attendance, and the researcher explained the role they would play in the study. The researcher assured all teachers that their responses would be kept confidential, and that their participation was voluntary. A total of 150 information sheets were submitted to the participants.

The teachers were instructed to complete the surveys online through Survey Monkey. The links to both of the surveys were given to the teachers at their staff meetings. The researcher sent a follow-up message (via email/phone call) to all principals one week after initial meetings with the teachers, asking them to remind teachers (who had not completed their surveys) to complete the surveys. All data collection was considered complete three weeks following the initial distribution of the survey link.
Data Analysis

After closing the survey on Survey Monkey, the researcher downloaded the data to an Excel file. The Excel file was imported into IBM SPSS ver. 23 for analysis. The data analysis was divided into two sections. The first section used descriptive statistics to provide baseline information on the subscales for the LPI and PTO. The second section of the analysis used inferential statistical analyses to address the research questions and test the associated hypotheses. All decisions on the statistical significance of the findings were made using a criterion alpha level of .05. Table 3 presents the statistical analyses that were used to address each research question.

Table 3

Statistical Analyses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Statistical Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To what extent is there a correlation between principal leadership practices and teacher morale?</td>
<td>Purdue Teacher Opinionaire • Rapport with principal • Satisfaction with teachers • Rapport among teachers • Teacher salary • Teacher load • Curricular issues • Teacher status in the community • Community support for education • School facilities and services • Community pressures Leadership Practices Inventory • Modeling the Way • Inspiring Shared Vision • Challenging the Process • Enabling Others • Encouraging the Heart</td>
<td>Pearson product moment correlations was used to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the subscales on the PTO and LPI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H0: Principal leadership practices, as measured by the LPI, are not correlated to teacher morale, as measured by the PTO.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1: Principal leadership practices, as measured by the LPI, are correlated to teacher morale, as measured by the PTO.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Based on the principal leadership practices (using the schools’ LPI scores), to what extent are principal leadership</td>
<td>Dependent Variables Leadership Practices Inventory • Modeling the Way • Inspiring Shared Vision</td>
<td>One-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine if the five subscales on the LPI differ among the four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Statistical Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practices significantly higher in some urban schools than others?</td>
<td>• Challenging the Process&lt;br&gt;• Enabling Others&lt;br&gt;• Encouraging the Heart</td>
<td>If a statistically significant difference was found on the MANOVA, the univariate F tests was examined to determine which of the five subscales are contributing to the statistically significant difference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₀₂: There is no difference in principal leadership practices as measured by LPI scores among the four urban schools included in the study.</td>
<td>Independent Variable School</td>
<td>If any of the subscales were differing on the univariate F Tests, Scheffé a posteriori tests was used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons to determine which schools are contributing to the statistically significant findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂: There is a difference in principal leadership practices as measured by LPI scores among the four urban schools included in the study.</td>
<td>Dependent Variables Purdue Teacher Opinionaire • Rapport with principal&lt;br&gt;• Satisfaction with teachers&lt;br&gt;• Rapport among teachers&lt;br&gt;• Teacher salary&lt;br&gt;• Teacher load&lt;br&gt;• Curricular issues&lt;br&gt;• Teacher status in the community&lt;br&gt;• Community support for education&lt;br&gt;• School facilities and services&lt;br&gt;• Community pressures</td>
<td>One-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine if the 10 subscales on the PTO differ among the four schools included in the study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To what extent (using the schools’ PTO scores), does teacher morale differ, and is significantly higher among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study?</td>
<td>Independent Variable School</td>
<td>If a statistically significant difference was found on the MANOVA, the univariate F tests was examined to determine which of the 10 subscales are contributing to the statistically significant difference.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₀₃: There is no difference in teacher morale as measured by PTO scores among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study.</td>
<td></td>
<td>If any of the subscales were differing on the univariate F Tests, Scheffé a posteriori tests was used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons to determine which schools are contributing to the statistically significant findings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₃: There is a difference in teacher morale as measured by PTO scores among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study.</td>
<td></td>
<td>An examination of the mean scores for each subscale was made to determine which of the PTO subscales have the highest mean scores.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What principal leadership practices have the highest mean scores among teachers with high teacher morale as measured by the PTO?</td>
<td>PTO subscale scores Purdue Teacher Opinionaire • Rapport with principal&lt;br&gt;• Satisfaction with teachers&lt;br&gt;• Rapport among teachers&lt;br&gt;• Teacher salary&lt;br&gt;• Teacher load&lt;br&gt;• Curricular issues&lt;br&gt;• Teacher status in the community&lt;br&gt;• Community support for education&lt;br&gt;• School facilities and services&lt;br&gt;• Community pressures</td>
<td>An examination of the mean scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. What principal leadership practices have the highest mean scores among teachers with high teacher morale as measured by the PTO?</td>
<td>PTO subscale scores</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question | Variables | Statistical Analysis
--- | --- | ---
practices have the lowest mean scores among teachers with low teacher morale as measured by the PTO? | Purdue Teacher Opinionaire  
- Rapport with principal  
- Satisfaction with teachers  
- Rapport among teachers  
- Teacher salary  
- Teacher load  
- Curricular issues  
- Teacher status in the community  
- Community support for education  
- School facilities and services  
- Community pressures | for each subscale will be made to determine which of the PTO subscales have the lowest mean scores.

Summary

This chapter presented the research questions, described the research perspective, and design of the study. In addition, the participants/location, instruments, procedures for data collection procedures, and data analyses were presented. The results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter Four.
CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

Chapter Four presented the results of the data analyses that were used to address the research questions and test the associated hypotheses. The chapter was divided into two sections. The first section provided baseline data on the subscales for the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire and the Leadership Practices Inventory. The second section presented the results of the inferential statistical analyses used to address the research questions and test the hypotheses.

A total of 150 teachers in four schools were invited to participate in the study. Of this number, 101 completed and submitted their surveys for a response rate of 67.3%.

Description of the Sample

The ethnicity and teaching experience were obtained for the teachers in the study. Their information was summarized using frequency distributions for presentation in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequency Distributions: Ethnicity and Teaching Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity and Teaching Experience</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 5 years</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 10 years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 to 20 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 101 teachers participated in this study. The largest percentage of teachers had less than five years of experience, and 55 percent of the teachers were Caucasian.
Scaled Variables

Description of the Scaled Variables

The responses to the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire (PTO; Bentley & Rempel, 1967) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI; Kouzes & Posner, 1980) were scored using the scale developers’ protocols. The mean scores were summarized to provide baseline data. Table 5 presents results of these analyses.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics: Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and Leadership Practices Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purdue Teacher Opinionaire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with principal</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teaching</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among teachers</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher salary</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher load</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>2.73</td>
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<td>4.00</td>
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<td>Community support for education</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School facilities and services</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
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<td>Community pressures &amp; expectations</td>
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<td>.61</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Modeling the way</td>
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<td>7.64</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring shared vision</td>
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<td>8.33</td>
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<td>10.00</td>
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<td>10.00</td>
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<td>8.00</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>10.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging the heart</td>
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<td>7.44</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Purdue Teacher Opinionaire

Rapport with principal. This subscale measured teachers’ perceptions of the principal in regard to his/her professional competency, interest in the teachers and their work, ability to
communicate, and human relations skills. The mean score on this subscale was 3.07 (SD = .69), with a median of 3.10. The actual scores ranged from 1.25 to 4.00, with higher scores indicating more positive perceptions of their rapport with the principal.

Satisfaction with teaching. Teacher relationships with students and satisfaction with teaching was measured with this subscale. Teachers with high morale love to teach, are competent in their positions, enjoy their students, and have faith in the future of teaching. The mean score for this subscale was 3.10 (SD = .46), with a median of 3.13. The range of actual scores was from 1.63 to 4.00, with higher scores indicating the teachers were more satisfied with teaching.

Rapport among teachers. The interpersonal relations among the teachers were the focus of this subscale. Teachers’ perceptions of cooperation, preparation, ethics, influence, interests, and competency of their peers was measured on this subscale. The mean score was 3.08 (SD = .49), with a median of 3.07. Actual scores ranged from 1.43 to 4.00, with higher scores providing support that teachers had higher levels of rapport with their peers.

Teacher salary. The subscale measuring teacher salary was concerned with teachers’ perceptions of their salaries and policies regarding salaries. Some items included comparability of teacher salaries with other school systems, fairness of salary policies, and teacher participation in the development of salary policies. The range of actual scores on this subscale was from 1.00 to 4.00, with a median of 2.33. The mean score was 2.38 (SD = .76). Higher scores on this subscale indicated teachers were satisfied with their salaries and salary policies.

Teacher load. This subscale measures teachers’ perceptions of issues related to record-keeping, clerical work, red tape, community demands on teachers’ time, extracurricular load, and maintaining professionalism. The mean score on this subscale was teacher load was 2.75 (SD =
.60), with a median of 2.73. The actual scores on this subscale ranged from 1.45 to 4.00, with higher scores indicating more positive perceptions of teacher load.

**Curricular issues.** Teacher perceptions regarding the adequacy of the school’s curriculum in meeting the needs of the students, providing for individual differences, and preparing students to be productive citizens were measured with this subscale. The mean score for this subscale was 2.37 (SD = .68), with a median of 2.40. The actual scores ranged from 1.00 to 3.80. Higher scores on this subscale indicated more positive perceptions of curricular issues.

**Teacher status.** This subscale measured perceptions of teachers regarding the prestige, security, and benefits associated with being a teacher. Some items on this subscale are concerned with how the teacher feels he/she are accepted by the school community. The mean score for this subscale was 2.55 (SD = .58), with a median of 2.54. The range of actual scores was from 1.25 to 4.00, with higher scores indicating teachers perceived their status as teachers were higher.

**Community support for education.** Teachers’ perceptions of the extent to which the community understands and supports the school’s educational program was assessed with this subscale. The mean score for this subscale was 2.42 (SD = .73), with a median of 2.40. The range of actual scores was 1.00 to 4.00. Higher scores on this subscale were associated with more positive perceptions regarding the community support for education.

**School facilities and services.** This subscale measured the perceptions of teachers regarding the adequacy of facilities, supplies, and equipment and the ease with which they could acquire materials and services. Actual scores on this subscale ranged from 1.00 to 4.00, with a median of 2.60. The mean score for this subscale was 2.52 (SD = .67). Higher scores on this subscale provided support of the adequacy of school facilities and services.
Community pressures. The teachers’ perceptions of community expectations in the teachers’ personal standards, their participation in outside school activities, and their freedom to discuss controversial issues with the students was measured with this subscale. The mean score on this subscale was 2.91 (SD = .61), with a median of 3.00. The actual scores on this subscale ranged from 1.00 to 4.00, with higher scores indicated more positive perceptions of community pressures.

Leadership Practices Inventory.

Modeling the way. Modeling the way measures teachers’ perceptions of the ability of the principal to achieve small goals while aiming for higher ones. The mean score on this subscale was 7.64 (SD = 2.16), with a median of 8.33. Actual scores ranged from 1.00 to 10.00, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 10.00. Higher scores on this subscale indicated more positive perceptions of principal’s modeling the way.

Inspiring shared vision. This subscale measured teachers’ perceptions of the principal’s ability to encourage others to pursue future aspirations like theirs. The mean score for inspiring shared vision was 7.81 (SD = 1.86), with a median score of 8.33. The range of actual scores was from 2.00 to 10.00, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 10.00. Higher scores were indicative of more positive perceptions of the principal’s ability to inspire a shared vision.

Challenging the process. Teachers’ perceptions of their principal’s willingness to take risks by seeking creativity and change while searching for opportunities. The mean score for this subscale was 7.65 (SD = 1.92), with a median of 8.00. The range of actual scores was from 2.00 to 10.00, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 10.00. Higher scores on this subscale indicated teachers had more positive perceptions regarding the principal as challenging the process.
Enabling others. This subscale measured teachers’ perceptions regarding the principal’s willingness to empower others by providing respect, trust, and professional courtesy. The mean score for this subscale was 7.62 (SD = 1.84), with a median of 8.00. The actual scores ranged from 1.67 to 10.00, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 10.00. Higher scores on this subscale indicated that teachers had more positive perceptions regarding the principal’s willingness to enable others.

Encouraging the heart. Teachers’ perceptions of the principal’s acknowledgement of the hard work and effort of others and rewarding of accomplishments were measured by this subscale. The mean score for this subscale was 7.44 (SD = 2.33), with a median of 8.00. The range of actual scores was from 1.00 to 10.00, with possible scores ranging from 1.00 to 10.00. Higher scores on this subscale indicated that teachers had more positive perceptions regarding the principal’s willingness to reward accomplishments and hard work and effort by the teachers.

Research Questions and Associated Hypotheses

Five research questions were posed for this study. Inferential statistical analyses were used to address these questions and test the hypotheses. All decisions on the statistical analyses were made using a criterion alpha level of .05.

Research Question 1. To what extent is there a correlation between principal leadership practices and teacher morale?

Pearson product moment correlations were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the subscales for the LPI and the PTO. Table 6 presents results of these analyses.
Table 6

Pearson Product Moment Correlations: Leadership Practices Inventory and Purdue Teacher Opinionaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purdue Teacher Opinionaire</th>
<th>Leadership Practices Inventory</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modeling the Way</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Inspiring Shared Vision</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Challenging the Process</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Enabling Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with principal</td>
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<td>.10</td>
<td>.337</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.831</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.963</td>
<td>.10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teachers</td>
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<td>.504</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.330</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among teachers</td>
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<td>.05</td>
<td>.655</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>.03</td>
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<td>.064</td>
<td>-.09</td>
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<td>-.16</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>-.20</td>
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<td>.12</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.12</td>
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<td>.11</td>
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<td>-.15</td>
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<td>-.16</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>-.10</td>
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<td>-.10</td>
<td>.340</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>-.05</td>
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<td>Community support for education</td>
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<td>-.06</td>
<td>.542</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.889</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>.04</td>
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<td>.962</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.974</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>-.01</td>
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<td>.252</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.462</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.472</td>
<td>.08</td>
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</table>

The correlation between curricular issues on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and enabling others as measured on the Leadership Practices Inventory was statistically significant, \( r = -.22, p = .036 \). The negative relationship between these two variables indicated that teachers who had higher scores for curricular issues were more likely to have lower scores on enabling others. The remainder of the correlations were not statistically significant. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis of no relationship between principal’s leadership practices and teacher morale was retained.
Research Question 2. Based on the principal leadership practices (using the schools’ LPI scores), to what extent are principal leadership practices significantly higher in some urban schools than others?

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine if the five subscales measuring leadership practices differ among the four schools in the study. The five subscales; modeling the way, inspiring shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others, and encouraging the heart; were used as the dependent variables, with the four schools used as the independent variable. Table 7 presents results of this analysis.

Table 7

*One-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance – Leadership Practices by School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling’s Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>η2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.89</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>15, 266</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the one-way MANOVA comparing leadership practices among the four schools was statistically significant, $F (15, 266) = 5.28, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$. The moderate effect size of .23 indicated that the results have some practical significance in addition to being statistically significant. To further determine which of the five subscales that are contributing to the statistically significant result, the univariate F tests were examined. Table 8 presents results of this analysis.

Table 8

*Univariate F Tests – Leadership Practices by School*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Sum of</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>η2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
The results of the univariate F tests provided evidence that each of the five subscales were differing significantly among the four schools. The comparison of modeling the way among the four schools was statistically significant, $F(3, 94) = 9.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$. When inspiring shared vision was compared among the four schools, the result was statistically significant, $F(3, 94) = 8.14, p < .001, \eta^2 = .21$. The results of the comparison of challenging the process among the four schools was statistically significant, $F(3, 94) = 7.65, p < .001, \eta^2 = .20$. A statistically significant outcome was obtained for the comparison of enabling others among the four schools in the study, $F(3, 94) = 5.93, p = .001, \eta^2 = .16$. The comparison of encouraging the heart among the four schools was statistically significant, $F(3, 94) = 8.34, p < .001, \eta^2 = .21$. The moderate effect sizes for these subscales provided support that in addition to the statistical significance of the findings the comparisons also had practical significance. To determine which of the schools was contributing to the statistically significant results, Scheffé a posteriori tests were used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons among the subscales. Table 9 presents results of this analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Squares</th>
<th>Square</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modeling the way</td>
<td>106.49</td>
<td>3, 94</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.23</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inspiring shared vision</td>
<td>68.94</td>
<td>3, 94</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging the process</td>
<td>70.09</td>
<td>3, 94</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling others</td>
<td>52.18</td>
<td>3, 94</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging the heart</td>
<td>110.55</td>
<td>3, 94</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9

Descriptive Statistics – Leadership Practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Practices</th>
<th>Number</th>
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<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Modeling the way</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring shared vision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
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<td>8.07</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
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<td>8.82</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging the process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
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<td>8.23</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
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<td>6.30</td>
<td>2.16</td>
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<td>School C</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>1.02</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enabling others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.91</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>2.32</td>
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<td>School C</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.48</td>
<td>0.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging the heart</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.73</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Means in a cell sharing a subscript are significantly different. In all cases, higher mean scores reflect more positive perceptions of the particular leadership practice.

*Modeling the way.* The results of the Scheffé a posteriori tests provided evidence of statistically significant differences between School A (M = 8.45, SD = 1.74) and School B (M = 6.61, SD = 2.24). A statistically significant difference was found between School A and School C (M = 6.63, SD = 2.45). A statistically significant difference was found between School D and School C (M = 8.86, SD = .77). The mean scores for School B and School C did not differ significantly. The mean scores for School A and School D did not differ significantly.
Inspiring shared vision. The comparison of mean scores for School A (M = 8.07, SD = 1.74) and School B (M = 6.29, SD = 2.27) was statistically significant. A statistically significant difference was found between School B and School D (M = 8.82, SD = .77). School C (M = 7.55, SD = 1.86) was significantly different from School D. School A did not differ from School C or School D.

Challenging the process. When the mean scores for School A (M = 8.23, SD = 1.47) and School B (M = 6.30, SD = 2.16) were compared, the difference was statistically significant. The difference between School B and School D (M = 8.61, SD = 1.02) was statistically significant. School C (M = 7.15, SD = 2.12) differed significantly from School D. School A did not differ significantly from School C and School D. School B did not differ significantly from School C.

Enabling others. The difference between School B (M = 6.31, SD = 2.32) and School D (M = 8.48, SD = .81) was statistically significant. When the mean scores for School C (M = 7.35, SD = 1.88) were compared to School D, the result was statistically significant. School A did not differ from School C and School D. School B did not differ from School C.

Encouraging the heart. The comparison of the mean score for School B (M = 6.24, SD = 2.58) with the mean score for School D (M = 8.73, SD = 1.01) was statistically significant. The difference between School C (M = 6.51, SD = 2.65) and School D was statistically significant. No statistically significant differences were found between Schools A and School D. School B did not differ from School C.

Based on the statistically significant findings for the one-way MANOVA and the univariate F tests, the null hypothesis of no difference in leadership practices among the four schools was rejected.
Research Question 3. To what extent (using the schools’ PTO scores), does teacher morale differ, and is significantly higher among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study?

A one-way MANOVA was used to determine if mean scores for the 10 subscales measuring teacher morale differed among the four schools. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

One-way MANOVA – Teacher Morale by School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling’s Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.93</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>30, 254</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison of the 10 subscales measuring teacher morale among the four schools was statistically significant, $F(30, 254) = 2.62$, $p < .001$, $η^2 = .24$. The moderate effect size of .24 provided support that in addition to the statistically significant findings of the comparison, the results also have practical significance. To determine which of the 10 subscales were contributing to the statistically significant results of the MANOVA, the univariate F tests were compared. Table 11 presents results of these analyses.

Table 11

Univariate F Tests – Teacher Morale by School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with principal</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>3, 95</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teachers</td>
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<td>3, 95</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.06</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Two subscales, rapport with the principal (F [3, 95] = 5.17, p = .002, η² = .14) and teacher salary (F [3, 95] = 5.28, p = .002, η² = .14) differed significantly among the four schools. The remainder of the subscales measuring teacher morale were not statistically significant. To determine which of the schools was contributing to the statistically significant differences for rapport with the principal and teacher salary, Scheffé a posteriori tests were used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons. Table 12 presents the results of the descriptive statistics for all of the subscales and the Scheffé tests for rapport with the principal and teacher salary.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics – Teacher Morale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Practices</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rapport with the principal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.28a</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.74ab</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.31b</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport among teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Practices</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher salary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.01\textsubscript{a}</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.70\textsubscript{a}</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher load</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curricular issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher status in the community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support for education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School facilities and services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community pressures expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School D</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Means in a cell sharing a subscript are significantly different. In all cases, higher mean scores reflect more positive perceptions of the particular leadership practice.

The results of the Scheffé a posteriori test comparing all possible pairwise comparisons for the four schools produced two statistically significant results for the subscale measuring rapport with the principal. Teachers from School A (M = 3.28, SD = .54) had statistically significant higher scores for rapport with the principal than teachers in School C (M = 2.74, SD =
The comparison between School C and School D (M = 3.31, SD = .48) also was statistically significant. School A did not differ from School B or School D.

The comparison of School A (M = 2.01, SD = .63) and School C (M = 2.70, SD = .72) for teacher salary was statistically significant. The remainder of the schools did not differ in regard to teacher salary.

The other subscales, satisfaction with teachers, rapport among teachers, teacher load, curricular issues, teacher status in the community, community support for education, school facilities and services, and community pressures expectations did not differ among the four schools. Based on these findings, the null hypotheses could not be rejected.

Research Question 4. What principal leadership practices have the highest mean scores among teachers with high teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

Research Question 5. What principal leadership practices have the lowest mean scores among teachers with low teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

Research Questions 4 and 5 were analyzed together. The scores for the 100 items on the PTO were summed to obtain a total score for the measure. Using the information from Bentley and Rempel (1967), the scores were dichotomized at the fifth stanine to divide the teachers in to two groups, low and high teacher morale. The two groups were used as the independent variables in a one-way MANOVA, with the five subscales measuring leadership practices used as the dependent variables. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hotelling’s Trace</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>5, 87</td>
<td>.658</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The comparison of leadership practices between teachers with high and low morale was not statistically significant, \( F(5, 87) = .66, p = .658, \eta^2 = .04 \). This finding provided support that leadership practices did not differ between teachers with high and low teacher morale. To determine which group had the highest mean scores for leadership practices, descriptive statistics were obtained. Table 14 presents results of this analysis.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics – Leadership Practices by Low and High Teacher Morale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Practices</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modeling the way</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher morale</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher morale</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.19</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring shared vision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher morale</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher morale</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging the process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher morale</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>7.80</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher morale</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher morale</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>7.74</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher morale</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging the heart</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low teacher morale</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High teacher morale</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seventy-seven teachers had low teacher morale and 16 teachers had high teacher morale. Twelve teachers did not provide enough responses to have a total score and were not considered in this analysis. The mean scores for the five leadership practices were higher for teachers with low teacher morale than for teachers with high teacher morale.
Among the teachers with high teacher morale, inspiring shared vision (M = 7.53, SD = 2.27) and challenging the process (M = 7.41, SD = 2.27) had the highest scores. Teachers with high morale had the lowest mean score for modeling the way (M = 7.19, SD = 2.52).

In contrast, teachers with low teacher morale had the lowest scores for encouraging the heart (M = 7.54, SD = 2.28) and enabling others (M = 7.74, SD = 1.85). Inspiring shared vision (M = 7.92, SD = 1.81) had the highest mean score among teachers with low teacher morale.

Summary

The results of the data analyses that were used to describe the sample and address the research questions was presented in this chapter. The conclusions and implications that were made from these findings are included in Chapter Five.
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES AND PRACTICES, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The final chapter of this research project reiterates the problem and purpose of the study. The methodology is briefly restated, and significant results of the findings are summarized. Next, the researcher’s insight (as a result of the findings) in relation to prior research, theoretical implications and recommendations for future studies and practices are given. Last, limitations and the conclusion are presented.

As was presented in Chapter One, current research in education has shown that teachers are exiting urban school districts at an alarming rate. And one of their main concerns is the lack of support from principals. Consequently, this research study project analyzed and measured the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools.

This research study project used a nonexperimental, (quantitative) correlation design method. The researcher provided two surveys (The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and the Leadership Practices Inventory) to 150 teachers (in four schools) in an urban school district in a large Midwestern city. Of the 150 teachers invited to participate in the study, 101 submitted the surveys for a response rate of 67.35%.

Data analysis was divided into two sections. The first section used descriptive statistics to provide baseline information on the subscales for the LPI and PTO surveys. The second section of the analysis used inferential statistical analyses to address the research questions and test the associated hypotheses. All decisions on the statistical significance of the findings were made using a criterion alpha level of .05.

Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the subscales for the LPI and PTO for Research Question 1. For
Research Question 2, a MANOVA was used to determine if the five subscales measuring leadership practices differed among the four schools in the study. The five subscales; modeling the way, inspiring shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others, and encouraging the heart, were used as the dependent variables, with the four schools used as the independent variable. A one-way MANOVA was also used to determine if mean scores for the 10 subscales measuring teacher morale differed among the four schools, for Research Question 3. Last, Research Question 4 and Research Question 5 were analyzed together. The scores for the 100 items on the PTO were summed to obtain a total score for the measure. Using the information from Bentley and Rempel (1967), the scores were dichotomized at the fifth stanine to divide the teachers into two groups, low and high teacher morale. The two groups were used as the independent variables in a one-way MANOVA, with the five subscales measuring leadership practices used as the dependent variables.

Research Question 1. To what extent is there a correlation between principal leadership practices and teacher morale?

Discussion. Pearson Product Moment Correlations were used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools. The correlation between curricular issues on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and enabling others as measured on the Leadership Practices Inventory was statistically significant, \( r = -.22, p = .036 \). The negative relationship between these two variables indicated that teachers who had higher scores for curricular issues were more likely to have lower scores on enabling others. The mean score for curricular issues was 2.37. The maximum range for this subscale was 3.80. This mean score (2.37) indicated that teachers believed the current curricular that was being implemented, was not highly effective in assisting them with helping students to achieve
academic success. In reference to enabling others, the mean score was 7.62. The maximum range for this subscale was 10.00. This mean score (7.62) indicated that teachers believed that their principals were challenged with empowering them to develop their craft, and may not be treating them with professional courtesy, trust and respect. The remainder of the correlations of principal leadership practices and teacher morale were not statistically significant.

**Theoretical Implications and Recommendations for Future Practices.** In discussing the negative correlation between curricular issues and enabling others, the data showed that teachers believed principals were not utilizing their expertise as professional educators to assist in refining and developing the current curriculum. In reference to curricular issues, current literature proposes that principals and teachers should work collectively to make the decisions that affect the school environment; particularly in reference to the academic development and achievement of students. Davis and Wilson (2000) said “if leaders are to create an empowering organization, they need to establish positive relationships within the work setting, develop groups that work collaboratively in making decisions, inspire and guide the organization, and put in place a process of renewal for the organization” (p.35). According to Blase & Blase (1994) there is a belief (among educators) that the more teachers share in decision making the greater their job satisfaction. Blase and Kirby (1992), believed that effective principals serve as guardians for teachers; in addition to supporting instructional time, helping with discipline, working collectively to develop procedures and codes, and supporting teachers in enforcing the policies that are put in place. Tirozzi (2001), stated:

The principal--the instructional “artist in residence”--establishes a climate for excellence, puts forth a vision for continuous improvement in student performance, promotes excellence in teaching, and commits to sustained, comprehensive professional development for all staff members. The principal ensures that curriculum, instructional strategies, and assessment of student
progress are coherent components in the teaching and learning process (p. 435).

The data showed that teachers believed developing relationships that respect what they had to offer, were not always being formed, in reference to enabling others. According to current literature in education, teachers want to be empowered, in addition to being respected for their contributions to the educational environment. Hudson (1983) stated “a positive school climate is characterized by staff and student cohesiveness, high morale, and an environment where caring, mutual respect, and trust are evident. These factors are enhanced by opportunities to participate in decision making, deep involvement in activities, and high levels of communication” (p. 27).

Conrad-Cozart and Gerstly-Pepin (2002), added:

“Most teachers in urban school districts believe that they do not have a voice in the decisions that affect the school. So many times in education, decisions are top-down, with teachers and students having no input, thus making teachers feel like their opinions are not special, important, innovative or even legitimate.” (p. 29)

In Smylie’s (1992), study of transformational change, the results showed that teachers are more likely to support their principals when collaborative and trusting relationships are formed.

The findings of this study suggest that teachers’ willingness to participate in school decision making is influenced primarily by their principals. Teachers appear substantially more willing to participate in all areas of decision making if they perceive their relationships with their principals are more open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive. They are much less willing to participate in any area of decision making if they characterize their relationships with principals as closed, exclusionary, and controlling. (p. 63)

Current research in education has stated that an alarming number of teachers believe they do not have a voice in the development of curriculum and programs to assist students. Some teachers have expressed their dislike, and believe that it is condescending for them to implement a curriculum that they do not believe is working, in addition to not having collaborative conversations in reference to the creation of the curriculum. Of late, some curriculums that are being implemented in public schools do not always take into account the issues and challenges
that both urban students and teachers encounter. Tirozzi (2001), said “at the dawn of this millennium, the challenges for secondary schools and principals in the United States include changing demographics, schools and curricular that are inappropriately designed for today’s adolescents, principals trained to be managers rather than instructional leaders, and a dramatic shortage of qualified candidates willing to take on the principalship” (p. 434). The findings in this research study are similar to that of the previous quote. Additionally, a study that was conducted in an urban New York City school district echoed the sentiments of the teachers in this research study as well. Costigan (2005) wrote:

High-stakes testing and increased accountability are factors’ in all public teachers’ lives, even those in wealthy districts. Yet, the lack of autonomy is particulary acute in poor urban areas of New York, where mandated curricula and scripted lessons have become the norm. The NYCTF program seeks to recruit talented people with strong academic backgrounds and a high vocational commitment to teach, yet the reality of the situation seriously diminishes these new teachers’ ability to develop a personally rewarding teaching practice. This lack of autonomy has a direct impact on their prediction that urban teaching may not be a place where they can engage in any meaningful professional growth. (p. 135)

Based on the findings in this study, the null hypothesis of no relationship between principal’s leadership practices and teacher morale was retained. The findings suggested that teachers believed that the lack of a viable curriculum was contributing to low morale; but the selection of the curriculum may not be due to the fault of the principals. Hence, the practices of the principals were not a contributing factor to low teacher morale; however various outside entities were.

The unexpected findings in this research study was the role that central office administrators played in the decision-making processes that negatively affected teacher morale. The data consistently showed that teachers were discouraged with process and policies that principals did not control. Often, the school superintendents, school boards and other outside
entities are in control of the selection of the curriculum, and the principal is charged with implementation. Portin (2004), wrote:

“In traditional public schools, principals were sometimes unable to exert much authority in such areas as instructional leadership--because the district drove the curriculum. Principals in the most-constrained environments generally had trouble ascending beyond middle management functions. They spent much of their time complying with and implementing directives established by either the district superintendent or the school board.” (p. 16)

The school district in this study has only been in existence for four years. Therefore, a conclusion could be made that both principals and teachers should work collectively with district leadership to develop a more rigorous, research-based and comprehensive curriculum, to assist with the development an academic achievement of students.

Recommendations for future research. A study should be conducted inclusive of teachers, principals, central office administrators, parents and community members to get additional insight into ways to address curricular issues and concerns. A study of this kind could assist the educational arena to enhance our knowledge and understanding of developing curriculums that takes a holistic approach to address the needs of “all” stakeholders in urban school communities.

Research Question 2. Based on the principal leadership practices (using the schools’ LPI scores), to what extent are principal leadership practices significantly higher in some urban schools than others?

Discussion. A MANOVA was used to determine if the five subscales measuring principal leadership practices differed among the four schools in the study. The five subscales; modeling the way, inspiring shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others, and encouraging the heart; were used as the dependent variables, with the four schools used as the independent variables. The results of the one-way MANOVA comparing principal leadership practices among the four schools were statistically significant. The moderate effect size of .23
indicated both practical and statistically significant evidence, that there was a difference in how teachers perceived their principals’ leadership practices was being implemented, in the four urban schools that were studied.

The univariate F tests were examined to determine which of the five subscales contributed to the statistically significant results. In comparing the subscales, modeling the way yielded the highest F Ratio of 9.62. Encouraging the heart was next with an F Ratio of 8.34. Inspiring shared vision was third with an F Ratio of 8.14. Challenging the process was fourth with an F Ratio of 7.65. And enabling others was last with an F Ratio of 5.93. A conclusion could be made from the findings that teachers believed principals were highly effective in modeling the way, but not as effective in enabling them to act.

In an effort to determine which of the schools that was contributing to the statistically significant results, Scheffé a posteriori tests were used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons among the subscales. The results of these analyses showed statistically significant differences among schools; in addition to schools that did not differ. Higher mean scores in the subscales reflected more positive perceptions of a particular leadership practice. For example, the findings showed that School A and School D had more favorable results than School B and School C; which is an indication that the principals at School A and School D are more supportive, and try to work collectively with teachers to accomplish the mission and vision of their schools. In contrast, the results showed that the principals at School B and School C were less supportive in implementing strategies to empower teachers.

An in depth analysis showed that School D’s perception of their principal’s leadership practices was higher in every subscale in comparison to School A, School B and School C. For example: Modeling the way $M = 8.86$, $S = .77$, Inspiring shared vision $M = 8.82$, $S = .77$, etc.
Challenging the process $M = 8.61$, $S = 1.02$, Enabling others $M = 8.48$, $S = .81$, and Encouraging the heart $M = 8.73$, $s = 1.01$, the mean scores were higher (closer to 10.00) and the standard deviation scores were lower. In contrast, School B’s perception of their principal’s leadership practices was lower. In every subscale: Modeling the way $M = 6.61$, $S = .2.24$, Inspiring shared vision $M = 6.29$, $S = .2.27$, Challenging the process $M = 6.30$, $S = 2.27$, Enabling others $M = 6.31$, $S = 2.32$, and Encouraging the heart $M = 6.24$, $s = 2.58$, the mean scores were lower and the standard deviations were higher.

**Theoretical Implications and Recommendations for Future Practices.** As was stated earlier, modeling the way (F Ratio of 9.62) had the highest scores on the LPI, in comparison to the other subscales. For example, the data showed that most of the teachers believed their principals were highly effective in: presenting the mission and vision of the schools, shared their philosophy of leadership, modeled what they expected to see, asked for feedback on their performance and followed through on promises and commitments that they made. The previously listed examples are deeply rooted in transformational leadership practices. And based on the findings, the principals in this study received favorable scores as it relates to transformational leadership. Brower and Balch (2005) wrote:

> For many leaders, transformational decision making will confirm their pedagogical practice, offering contemporary leaders peace of mind as they continue their leadership journey. Whether the reader is embracing new decision-making theories to enhance leadership practices or affirming current leadership pedagogies, transformational concepts will meet with the greatest success when leaders raise awareness among other stakeholders about transformational decision making. As with all change, it must become part of a school or district’s culture and permeate the daily climate in order to have a significant and meaningful impact. In fact, all school stakeholders, not just school leaders, can reap tremendous benefit from the pedagogical shift of transformational decision making. (p. 12)
When “modeling the way” is implemented effectively and with fidelity, principals express to teachers what their expectations are, in addition to providing relevant and research based examples in an effort to assist them in perfecting their craft. Davis (2008) stated “principals can gain respect by letting new teachers see how they themselves deliver instruction, teaching with the same high expectations you will hold them accountable for in the future. As administrators take on an active role in assuring that novice teachers are valued and appreciated, it will set a tone for the school that the majority of the faculty will follow” (p. 55). Murphy (2002) presented five critical questions that transformation leaders should ask their teachers:

1. What are our goals for students?
2. What must we learn in order to help our students reach these goals?
3. What is the best design for this learning?
4. What must we change in our school to meet our learning goals?
5. How will we know if we are achieving our goals? (pp. 16-17)

When principals provide clear expectations and sets the tone for the school, in collaboration with the teachers, there is less ambiguity and confusion. In essence, principals are in a better position to lead their school communities with the support of their teachers, when they embrace the nuances of change in leadership and implement the practices of transformational leadership with fidelity.

The findings for encouraging the heart (F Ratio of 8.34) an inspiring a shared vision (F Ratio of 7.65) were closely related, and were the next two subscales with the highest scores. The results implied that the principals were fairly effective in working collectively with teachers and supporting their quest to become highly qualified educators and future leaders. “The message is clear. People want to work where their humanity is acknowledged and celebrated. Teachers
perform better and feel more positive about students in schools where the principal takes a personal interest in their professional development” (Keleher, 2004, p. 32). Houchard (2005) would attest that “teachers like all humans need to feel and know how important and appreciated they are”. (p. 34) According to Hord and Hirsh (2008), the principal’s role in supporting learning communities comes with a basic set of principles:

1. Emphasize to teachers that you know they can succeed.
2. Expect teachers to keep knowledge fresh.
4. Make data accessible.
5. Teach discussion and decision-making skills.
6. Show teachers the research.
7. Take time to build trust.

Treating teachers with kindness and respect, giving them a voice in the decisions that impact the school, allowing them to perfect their teaching craft, in addition to supporting their aspirations to become leaders as well, is essential to creating educational environments of trust, respect and growth, is transformational leadership at its best.

The results of the subscale, enabling others was last with an F Ratio of 5.93. The scores for this subscale showed that teachers’ perception of their principal’s practices were less than favorable. However, this data may be skewed and attributed to the previous findings and assumptions in response to Research Question 1; that teachers believed they are not being allowed to assist with the development/refinement of the current curriculum. However, the decision not to include teachers in assisting with developing the curriculum may not be due to a lack of support from their principals.
For school districts to be successful, they must make a conscious effort to enable teachers to act. Research is showing that top-down directives from central office administrators, for principals to carryout to teachers can often be detrimental, if what teachers have to offer is not taken into consideration. Every human has challenges and strengths. It is imperative that leaders understand their own challenges and build capacities in the institution that compensates for this (Brower & Balch, 2005, p. 40). A release of power to all stakeholders of the school community would create an atmosphere where contributions are being respected and valued. Brower and Balch (2005) added:

The hierarchy of importance is a completely different phenomenon. Everyone in an institution must be valued equally. Transformational leaders must build capacities in which everyone feels valued and equally important. This can be hard to do when our society attaches status to job titles. In order for an institution to work effectively and efficiently, all occupations must be valued and revered. (p. 41)

The difference in how schools viewed their principals’ leadership practices in this study showed that there are some areas for improvement. In essence, principals should work with the end in mind, for the success of their schools lies in how effectively they implement transformational leadership strategies. Based on the statistically significant findings for the one-way MANOVA and the univariate F tests, the null hypothesis of no difference in leadership practices among the four schools was rejected.

Recommendations for future research. A study focusing on central office administrators and their perceptions of their leadership practices should be conducted. Based on the findings in this study, teachers had the most issues and concerns with areas that focused on elements that central office administrators’ control. Often, when superintendents and central office administrators have reached a certain level in their professional careers, they fail to stay abreast of the issues that affect urban educators, as well as principals who are charged to lead these
schools. Consequently, for all stakeholders of the school community to benefit, central office administrators and school boards, should be cognizant of the effect that their role plays in affecting teacher morale.

Research Question 3. To what extent (using the schools’ PTO scores), does teacher morale differ, and is significantly higher among teachers in the four urban schools included in the study?

Discussion. A one-way MANOVA was used to determine if mean scores for the 10 subscales measuring teacher morale differed among the four schools. The comparison of the 10 subscales measuring teacher morale among the four schools was statistically significant, $F(30, 254) = 2.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .24$. The moderate effect size of .24 supported that in addition to the statistically significant findings of the comparison, the results also have practical significance. To determine which of the 10 subscales were contributing to the statistically significant results of the MANOVA, the univariate F tests were compared.

Two subscales, rapport with the principal ($F[3, 95] = 5.17, p = .002, \eta^2 = .14$) and teacher salary ($F[3, 95] = 5.28, p = .002, \eta^2 = .14$) differed significantly among the four schools. The remainder of the subscales measuring teacher morale was not statistically significant.

To determine which of the schools that were contributing to the statistically significant differences for rapport with the principal and teacher salary, Scheffé a posteriori tests were used to compare all possible pairwise comparisons. The findings showed that in reference to teachers’ rapport with their principals, School D and School A, scores differed; in comparison to School B and School C. For example, School D ($M = 3.31$) and School A ($M = 3.28$) had the highest (closer to 4.0) mean scores. School C ($M = 2.70$) and School B ($M = 2.90$) had the lowest mean scores. The assumption could be made that School D and School A appeared to have a good
rapport with their principals; while School C and School B did not. In reference to teacher salary, School C (M = 2.70) and School A (M = 2.01) differed. However, all schools reported low mean scores for teacher salary. The assumption could be made that teachers in the four schools believed that they are not being compensated fairly.

Theoretical Implications and Recommendations for Future Practices. Transformational leadership focuses on creating and building positive and productive working relationships, among leaders and their workers. Building great working relationships is essential to building great school communities. Brubaker (2006) discussed a concept called the “table manners of leadership”. In this process, leaders create environments where people can learn from each other, in lateral relationships with each other. “Table manners of leadership are skills and tools that let others know that you value your relationships with them--an attitude that others respect” (Brubaker, 2006, p. 8). Prestine (1991) found that “the role of the principal in cultivating a network of relationships is of importance not only in developing collaborative, participatory decision making but in maintain the restructuring effort as a whole” (p. 16). In the educational setting, administrators must understand the existence and importance of the dynamics and relationships that exist in a working environment and that they are essential elements to improvement in morale (Whitaker & Whitaker et al., 2000). Based on the findings in this study, the teachers and principals at School D and School A have created trusting and respectful relationships; which based on prior research in education, can have a positive impact on school culture and climate.

In contrast, for School B (M = 2.90) and School C (M = 2.74) the assumption could be made that teachers at both schools do not have a fairly good rapport with their principals; because the means scores were low and closer to 1.0. Based on the findings, it was evident that
the principals at both schools were challenged with building relationships with their staff. Houchard (2005) said “when teachers are convinced that their principal honestly takes their needs seriously and genuinely cares about their success as a professional person, discontent will not prevail” (p. 34). Barth (1990) found that “no characteristic of a good school is more pervasive that a healthy teacher-principal relationship--and no characteristic of a troubled school more common than a troubled, embattled administrator-teacher relations” (p. 19). According to Davis (2008), principals could implement the following strategies to build better working relationships with teachers:

1. Principals can become public servants to their teachers by blocking off one or two teacher work days to work closely with teachers. Principals could provide a budget for teachers to purchase supplies for their classrooms, help them set up their classrooms, and co-teach and lesson.

2. Survey teachers to see what their needs are for staff development.

3. Help to ease the pressure by providing support during stressful (i.e. checking papers, academic deadlines) situations. This process could send a strong message to teachers that they are valued and that the administration will do whatever is necessary to make them successful, and in turn, do what is best for each individual child.

4. At the end of the year, principals could take their teachers off campus for a day of staff development, reflection, and rejuvenation.

5. Provide a mentor to all new teachers.

The previously listed strategies could assist with breaking down barriers between teachers and principals, because it would allow principals to roll up their sleeves, and work side-by-side with their teachers. This process could also open the door to conversations about how both entities could work together to improve the school community.

A more in depth analyses for teacher salary showed the mean scores for School C (M = 2.70 and School A (M = 2.10) differed tremendously. The differences in mean scores showed
that teachers in School C viewed their salaries more favorably than teachers in School A. However, based on the lower mean scores for all schools, the teachers believed that they were not being fairly compensated for their work. In addition, the teachers believed that their salaries were not comparable to teachers in other school districts, and the salary policies were not fair. The previously reported findings support what current research in education has stated, that teachers in urban schools believe they are not being fairly compensated for educating students.

The influx of teachers from urban to suburban school districts has increased tremendously over the years. And one of the primary attractions for teachers is higher salaries. Wadsworth (2001) stated that “difficult working conditions and relatively low pay discourage talented young people from entering teaching” (p. 24). Teacher salaries in urban and suburban school districts differ tremendously. As was stated earlier in this study, the salaries of teachers in (Michigan) urban school districts like Detroit, Pontiac and River Rouge pay considerably less than teachers in suburban school districts like Southfield, Birmingham and West Bloomfield.

There has been much discussion about the role that compensation plays in the ability of schools to attract and retain high quality teachers. And a large body of literature suggests that teachers respond to wages (Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2002, p. 39). Hence, the findings in this study provide support to the previously listed statement, for all of the schools in this study reported low mean scores (M = 2.38) for teacher salary. Even though teachers report that one of their greatest sources of satisfaction is assisting students to achieve academic excellence, they still want to be fairly compensated. In essence, urban school districts will continue to lose good teachers if the issue of comparable salaries is not addressed. Lankford and colleagues (2002) found that teachers are more likely to quit when they work in districts with lower wages. (p. 39)

Based on these findings, the null hypotheses could not be rejected.
Recommendations for future research. Based on the findings in this study, positive and productive relationships between principals and teachers in urban schools are still an area of concern. Consequently, additional studies could be conducted to gather information to provide various strategies to address this concern. Also, additional studies should be conducted to analyze the relationship between teacher salaries and teacher morale. The findings in this study showed that teacher salary is still an issue for teachers; which in turn is affecting teacher morale in urban schools.

Research Question 4. What principal leadership practices have the highest mean scores among teachers with high teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

Research Question 5. What principal leadership practices have the lowest mean scores among teachers with low teacher morale as measured by the PTO?

Discussion. Research Question 4 and Research Question 5 were answered together. The PTO scores were summed to obtain a total score for measure. Based on the Bentley and Rempel (1967) protocol, the scores were divided into two groups to show low teacher morale and high teacher morale. The two groups were used as the independent variables in a one-way MANOVA; with the five subscales measuring principal leadership practices used as the dependent variables. The findings showed that in comparing principal leadership practices between teachers with high and low morale, the results were not statistically significant, F (5, 87) = .66, p = .658, η² = .04. For example, the mean scores did not differ significantly between both teachers with high and low teacher morale. The findings showed that 77 teachers had low teacher morale, 16 teachers had high teacher morale, and 12 teachers did not provide enough responses to have total score and were not considered in this analysis.
Theoretical Implications and Recommendations for Future Practices: In analyzing the results of the 16 teachers with high morale, inspiring shared vision (M = 7.53, SD = 2.27) and challenging the process (M = 7.41, SD = 2.27) yielded the highest mean scores. According to Koerner (1990) good leaders, encourage clear, shared goals, promotes a school climate that reflects a feeling of unity, pride, cooperation, acceptance of differences and security, and provide quality time for collegial interaction—planning, educational dialogue, decision-making and problem solving. Based on the findings in this study, the assumption could be made that teachers with high morale believed that their principals afforded them the opportunity to work collectively with them to create the mission and vision of the school; in addition to allowing them to be creative and seek opportunities to become leaders as well. However, teachers with high morale appeared to have some concerns with how their principals modeled the way. For example, modeling the way yielded the lowest (M = 7.19, SD = 1.85) mean scores. The results of this subscale could mean that teachers believed that principals were challenged with showing teachers how to achieve small goals while aiming for higher goals. Consequently, the assumption could be made that more training is needed for principals to develop their leadership skills in this area.

The implementation of new strategies and activities are excellent building blocks for the 21st century educational leader to develop their leadership skills; in addition to improving teacher morale. However, the foundation for these concepts to be constructed lies in training programs for school administrators. Peterson and Kelley (2001) presented the following examples of current programs that provided assistance to educational leaders in various urban school districts:

1. In St. Paul, Minnesota, the district established an aspiring principals’ academy that offers three weeks of rigorous summer training in a beautiful off-site location combined with additional work during the year.
2. In Cincinnati, Ohio local foundations and business leaders provided the funding for a state-of-the-art facility, the Mayerson Academy, where district teachers and principals receive ongoing, focused training. District needs for leadership training are addressed by programs developed by academy staff.

3. The national principal institutes of Harvard and Vanderbilt have been serving school leaders for more than 20 years, providing professional development to practicing principals.

4. The Chicago Public Schools, in cooperation with the Chicago Principals and Administrators Association, developed the LAUNCH Program where principals and administrators participate in an intense summer program, inclusive of hands-on seminars, mentoring, case studies, simulations, reflective analysis and coaching.

It is assumed that principals, like teachers need to learn continuously in order to lead their schools (Fink & Resnick, 2001). And in transformational leadership, professional growth and continuous learning is essential for educational leaders to be successful. According to Peterson and Kelley (2001), an enhanced system would provide stronger relationships between the career stages of the principalship and the need for new skills and knowledge (p. 10). In essence, training programs and professional developments should be not only be required for teachers, but for educational leaders as well. This process will keep educational leaders abreast of current trends and developments in educational leadership.

In analyzing the results of the LPI means scores, 77 teachers with low morale had higher scores than the 16 teachers with high teacher morale. Inspiring shared vision ($M = 7.92, SD = 2.11$) and challenging the process ($M = 7.80, SD = 1.83$) yielded the highest mean scores. While, encouraging the heart had the lowest ($M = 7.54, SD = 2.28$) mean scores. Based on these findings, the assumption could be made that there are other factors contributing to low teacher morale; and not solely the leadership practices of the principal. For example, the mean scores showed that teachers for the most part perceived their principals to be fairly supportive, respectful and competent in carrying out their duties. However, other factors (i.e. teacher salary,
teacher load, curricular issues, teacher status, community support, school facilities and community pressures) were contributing to low teacher morale. The previously listed factors are entities that most principals do not control, and are often put in place by central office administrators and school boards. To address this concern, transformation leadership strategies should be implemented to discuss a process in which; both teachers and principals can benefit.

Transformational leadership calls for leaders on all levels to take into account how their decisions can positively or negatively affect a school community. Research in education is showing that teachers in urban schools feel neglected, dejected and disrespected. And there appeared to be some validity to this claim, because the findings in this study showed, 82% of the teachers having low morale. Brower and Balch (2005) proposed that central office administrators must value what teachers have to bring to the table:

“Decision making also requires that hierarchy of structure not be confused with hierarchy of importance and input. Hierarchies of structure are inherent in institutions on grounds of efficiency and accountability, but the hierarchy of importance or input is a completely different phenomenon in which everyone in an institution must be valued equally” (Brower & Balch, 2005, p. 42).

Urban school districts should keep into account how teachers feel in reference to: teacher salary, teacher load, curricular issues, teacher status, community support, school facilities and community pressures, etc. According to Koerner (1990), great school communities can be created when attention is giving to the professional needs of teachers in reference to salary and benefits, stress management, good health and social interaction. If a positive school culture and climate is to be created, the previously issues and concerns must be addressed, for the teachers in this study viewed their principals in a somewhat of a favorably light, but other issues and concerns are affecting their abilities to assist students to achieve academic success.
The results of the 77 teachers with low morale showed that the subscales encouraging the heart (M = 7.54, SD = 2.28) and enabling others (M = 7.74, SD = 1.85) had the lowest mean scores. The assumption could be made that teachers do not believe that their work is being acknowledged regularly, and that they are not always being rewarded for the work that they do. In addition, they have concerns about being empowered. Peterson (2002) presented the following activities in his study that had a positive impact on teacher morale:

1. Schools should have rituals and ceremonies—communal events to celebrate success, to provide closure during collective transitions, and to recognize people’s contributions to the school.

2. School cultures should include symbols that communicate core values, reinforce the mission and build a shared sense of commitment. Symbols are an outward sign of inward values.

3. School cultures should include stories that communicate the core values of the school. Stories are group representations of history and meaning.

4. Staff meetings can begin with a story of a positive action a teacher took to help a student.

5. Teachers should receive tokens of appreciation (teacher of the month parking space, ceremonial school coffee mugs, tickets to the movies, etc.).

6. On staff development days, different departments should be allowed to bring food, the principal can provide lunch.

7. During each staff meeting, a teacher can share a personal story about themselves or their families; with the focus being on a humorous event.

As was stated in previous discussions in this study, teachers in urban schools want to be treated with kindness and respect. They want to be valued and acknowledged for their contributions to the school community. Consequently, the previously listed strategies could assist principals and central office administrators with creating positive school climates and cultures.

An unexpected finding in this study, showed that 82% of teachers had low morale, but the findings showed that it was not due to the leadership practices of the principals. However,
other factors was contributing to low teacher morale. In reflecting on the results of the findings in this study, the challenge with improving low teacher morale in urban schools extends more from the principals, but to that of the central office administrators and school boards as well; for the findings in this study showed that both teachers with low and high morale ranked inspiring shared vision and challenging the process as the two highest subscales as it pertains to their principals’ leadership practices, but modeling the way, enabling others and encouraging the heart continued to rank last. In essence, central office administrators, along with principals should take an active role in creating educational environments were teachers feel valued.

The findings in this study continued to reiterate the importance of allowing teachers to contribute to the decision-making processes that affect the school community; particularly in reference to curricular issues. As was presented earlier in this study, teachers did not believe that they were “enabled to act” as it related to the selection, development and refinement of the current curriculum. For teachers in urban schools self-efficacy, being afforded the opportunity to have a sense of control over their work, and to feel empowered plays an important role in how they feel about their working conditions. Consequently, teacher morale in urban schools can be improved tremendously when proactive approaches are taken to include them in the decisions that impact the educational environment.

*Recommendations for future research.* Although there were 16 teachers who had high morale, the mean scores were not that different from the 77 teachers who had low morale. Consequently, additional studies could be conducted to analyze how teachers with low morale, still view their principals in a fairly positive light. A study of this kind could provide another layer to the role that central office administrators and school boards could play in improving low teacher morale. Also, a study inclusive of quantitative and qualitative (mix-methods) research
design methods could provide additional insight into why the teachers responded to the questions in the manner of which they did.

Limitations

Limitations to the current research study were inclusive of the following: a) The return rate (67%) of the surveys could have been higher. This process would have afforded the researcher more data to analyze; making the data more reliable. b) The participants may not have been as forth coming with their responses, because they knew their responses would be used in a research study project. Even though the researcher explained that their responses would be kept confidential, the participants still may have had some concerns. c) The PTO survey contained 100 questions; taking a considerably longer time to complete than the LPI; which contained 30 questions. The participants may have responded too quickly to the answers on the PTO, so that they could complete it. d) A mixed-method (quantitative and qualitative) design could have been implemented to ascertain additional information for teachers to explain their responses. e) Based on the findings, the teachers in this study appeared to view their principals in a fairly positive light. Therefore, the teachers may have responded the way that they did, because they did not want to portray their principals in a negative light.

Conclusions

Based on the analysis of the findings, the leadership practices of principals were not related to teacher morale, in the urban schools in this study. The correlation between curricular issues on the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire and enabling others as measured on the Leadership Practices Inventory was (negative relationship) statistically significant, \( r = -0.22, p = 0.036 \). The remainder of the correlations of principal leadership practices and teacher morale were not statistically significant.
This research study found that 82% of the teachers in the urban schools had low morale, but the findings showed that it was not due to the leadership practices of the principals; which support the findings that other entities were contributing to low teacher morale. For example, the mean scores did not differ significantly between both teachers with high (16 teachers) and low teacher (77 teachers) morale. The results of the findings were not statistically significant; with the alpha at .04. The findings showed that teachers believed their principals were fairly supportive. For example, the overall mean score for the five subscales on the LPI was M = 7.63; which indicated that teachers viewed their principals in a favorable light. However, curricular issues (M = 2.37) mean score for all urban schools, and teacher salary, (M = 2.38) mean score for all urban schools, were the two key factors that contributed to low teacher morale. Additionally, teacher load (M = 2.75), teacher status in the community (M = 2.55), community support (M = 2.42), school facilities (M = 2.52) and community pressures (M = 2.91) were contributing to low teacher morale, as well.

Even though the LPI scores showed principal leadership practices differing (see Table 9) in some of the schools, both teachers with high and low morale (see Table 14) reported that their principals were supportive. Most of the teachers reported that they had a good rapport with their principals (M = 3.07), liked working with the other teachers (M = 3.08) and loved teaching (M = 3.10). In addition, teachers reported that their principals were highly effective in inspiring a shared vision (M = 7.81), challenging the process (M = 7.65) and modeling the way (M = 7.64). However, the findings showed that principals were challenged with enabling others (M = 7.62) and encouraging the heart (M = 7.44). Based on the findings and research in this study, the assumption could be made that central office administrators, along with school board officials
may be a contributing factor that has affected the decision-making process of the principals and teachers; which in turn was negatively affecting teacher morale.

The results of the findings also concluded that the urban school district in this study should move towards implementing the Transformational Leadership Theory with fidelity. Current and prior research studies have shown the positive effects of this model. Implementation of transformational leadership strategies would assist teachers, principals, and central office administrators to improve morale in urban schools.
APPENDIX A

PURDUE TEACHER OPINIONAIRE

Created by Ralph R. Bentley and Averno M. Rempel

The Purdue Teacher Opinionaire was created to provide teachers with the opportunity to express their opinions and/or feelings about their daily practices, various issues and concerns as it relates to their respective school environments. There are no right or wrong answers. Your responses will be submitted directly to the Researcher, and will be kept confidential. Thank you so much for your participation in this research study project.

Directions: Read each statement carefully. Select your response based on the following:
- (A) Agree
- (PA) Probably Agree
- (PD) Probably Disagree
- (D) Disagree

1. Details “red tape,” and required reports absorb too much of my time.
   A  PA  PD  D

2. The work of individual faculty members is appreciated and commended by our principal.
   A  PA  PD  D

3. Teachers feel free to criticize administrative policy at faculty meetings called by our principal.
   A  PA  PD  D

4. The faculty feels that their suggestions pertaining to salaries are adequately transmitted by the administration to the board of education.
   A  PA  PD  D

5. Our principal shows favoritism in her relations with the teachers in our school.
   A  PA  PD  D

6. Teachers in this school are expected to do an unreasonable amount of record keeping and clerical work.
   A  PA  PD  D

7. My principal makes a real effort to maintain close contact with the faculty.
   A  PA  PD  D

8. Community demands upon the teacher’s time are unreasonable.
   A  PA  PD  D

9. I am satisfied with the policies under which pay raises are granted.
   A  PA  PD  D

10. My teaching load is greater than that of most of the other teachers in our school.
    A  PA  PD  D

11. The extra-curricular load of the teachers in our schools is unreasonable.
    A  PA  PD  D

12. Our principal’s leadership in faculty meetings challenges and stimulates our professional growth.
    A  PA  PD  D

13. My teaching position gives me the social status in the community that I desire.
    A  PA  PD  D

14. The number of hours a teacher must work is unreasonable.
    A  PA  PD  D
15. Teaching enables me to enjoy many of the material and cultural things I like.
   A  PA  PD  D
16. My school provides me with adequate classroom supplies and equipment.
   A  PA  PD  D
17. Our school has a well-balanced curriculum.
   A  PA  PD  D
18. There is a great deal of gripping, arguing, taking sides, and feuding among our teachers.
   A  PA  PD  D
19. Teaching gives me a great deal of personal satisfaction.
   A  PA  PD  D
20. The curriculum of our school makes reasonable provision for student individual differences.
   A  PA  PD  D
21. The procedures for obtaining materials and services are well defined.
   A  PA  PD  D
22. Generally, teachers in our school do not take advantage of one another.
   A  PA  PD  D
23. The teachers in our school cooperate with each other to achieve common, personal, and professional objectives.
   A  PA  PD  D
24. Teaching enables me to make my greatest contribution to society.
   A  PA  PD  D
25. The curriculum of our school is in need of major revisions.
   A  PA  PD  D
26. I love to teach.
   A  PA  PD  D
27. If I could plan my career again, I would choose teaching.
   A  PA  PD  D
28. Experienced faculty members accept new and younger members.
   A  PA  PD  D
29. I would recommend teaching as an occupation to students of high scholastic ability.
   A  PA  PD  D
30. If I could earn as much money in another occupation, I would stop teaching.
   A  PA  PD  D
31. The school schedule places my classes at a disadvantage.
   A  PA  PD  D
32. Within the limits of financial resources, the school tries to follow a generous policy regarding fringe benefits, professional travel, professional study, etc.
   A  PA  PD  D
33. My principal makes my work easier and more pleasant.
   A  PA  PD  D
34. Keeping up professionally is too much of a burden.
   A  PA  PD  D
35. Our community makes its teachers feel as though they are a real part of the community.
   A  PA  PD  D
36. Salary policies are administered with fairness and justice.
   A  PA  PD  D
37. Teaching affords me the security I want in an occupation.
   A  PA  PD  D
38. My school principal understands and recognizes good teaching procedures.
   A  PA  PD  D
39. Teachers clearly understand the policies governing salary increases.
   A    PA    PD    D
40. My classes are used as “dumping grounds” for problem students.
   A    PA    PD    D
41. The lines and methods of communication between teachers and the principal in our school are well
devolved and maintained.
   A    PA    PD    D
42. My teaching load at this school is unreasonable.
   A    PA    PD    D
43. My principal shows a real interest in my department.
   A    PA    PD    D
44. Our principal promotes a sense of belonging among the teachers in our school.
   A    PA    PD    D
45. My teaching load unduly restricts my nonprofessional activities.
   A    PA    PD    D
46. I find my contacts with students, for the most part, highly satisfying and rewarding.
   A    PA    PD    D
47. I feel that I am an important part of this school system.
   A    PA    PD    D
48. The competency of the teachers in our school compares favorably with that of teachers in other schools
with which I am familiar.
   A    PA    PD    D
49. My school provides the teachers with adequate audio-visual aids and projection equipment.
   A    PA    PD    D
50. I feel successful and competent in my present position.
   A    PA    PD    D
51. I enjoy working with student organizations, clubs, and societies.
   A    PA    PD    D
52. Our teaching staff is congenial to work with.
   A    PA    PD    D
53. My teaching associates are well prepared for their jobs.
   A    PA    PD    D
54. Our school faculty has a tendency to form into cliques.
   A    PA    PD    D
55. The teachers in our school work well together.
   A    PA    PD    D
56. I am at a disadvantage professionally because other teachers are better prepared to teach than I am.
   A    PA    PD    D
57. Our school provides adequate clerical services for the teachers.
   A    PA    PD    D
58. As far as I know, the other teachers think I am a good teacher.
   A    PA    PD    D
59. Library facilities and resources are adequate for the grade or subject area which I teach.
   A    PA    PD    D
60. The “stress and strain” resulting from teaching makes teaching undesirable for me.
   A    PA    PD    D
61. My principal is concerned with the problems of the faculty and handles these problems sympathetically.
   A    PA    PD    D
62. I do not hesitate to discuss any school problem with my principal.
   A    PA    PD    D
63. Teaching gives me the prestige I desire.
   A    PA    PD    D
64. My teaching job enables me to provide a satisfactory standard of living for my family.
A  PA  PD  D

65. The salary schedule in our school adequately recognizes teacher competency.
A  PA  PD  D

66. Most of the people in this community understand and appreciate good education.
A  PA  PD  D

67. In my judgement, this community is a good place to raise a family.
A  PA  PD  D

68. This community respects its teachers and treats them like professional persons.
A  PA  PD  D

69. My principal acts interested in me and my problems.
A  PA  PD  D

70. My school principal supervises rather “snoopervises.”
A  PA  PD  D

71. It is difficult for teachers to gain acceptance by the people in this community.
A  PA  PD  D

72. Teachers’ meetings as now conducted by our principal waste the time and energy of the staff.
A  PA  PD  D

73. My principal has a reasonable understanding of the problems connected with my teaching assignment.
A  PA  PD  D

74. I feel that my work is judged fairly by my principal.
A  PA  PD  D

75. Salaries paid in this school system compare favorably with salaries in other systems with which I am familiar.
A  PA  PD  D

76. Most of the actions of students irritate me.
A  PA  PD  D

77. The cooperativeness of teachers in our school helps make our work more enjoyable.
A  PA  PD  D

78. My students regard me with respect and seem to have confidence in my professional ability.
A  PA  PD  D

79. The purposes and objectives of the school cannot be achieved by the present curriculum.
A  PA  PD  D

80. The teachers in our school have a desirable influence on the values and attitudes of their students.
A  PA  PD  D

81. This community expects its teachers to meet unreasonable personal standards.
A  PA  PD  D

82. My students appreciate the help I give them with their schoolwork.
A  PA  PD  D

83. To me, there is no more challenging work than teaching.
A  PA  PD  D

84. Other teachers in our school are appreciative of my work.
A  PA  PD  D

85. As a teacher in this community, my nonprofessional activities outside of school are unduly restricted.
A  PA  PD  D

86. As a teacher, I think I am as competent as most other teachers.
A  PA  PD  D

87. The teacher with whom I work have high professional ethics.
A  PA  PD  D

88. Our school curriculum does a good job of preparing students to become enlightened and competent citizens.
A  PA  PD  D
89. I really enjoy working with my students.
   A  PA  PD  D

90. The teachers in our school show a great deal of initiative and creativity in their teaching assignments.
   A  PA  PD  D

91. Teachers in our community feel free to discuss controversial issues in their classes.
   A  PA  PD  D

92. My principal tries to make me feel comfortable when visiting my classes.
   A  PA  PD  D

93. My principal makes effective use of the individual teacher’s capacity and talent.
   A  PA  PD  D

94. The people in this community, generally, have a sincere and wholehearted interest in the school system.
   A  PA  PD  D

95. Teachers feel free to go to the principal about problems of personal and group welfare.
   A  PA  PD  D

96. This community supports ethical procedures regarding the appointment and reappointment of members of the teaching staff.
   A  PA  PD  D

97. This community is willing to support a good program of education.
   A  PA  PD  D

98. Our community expects the teachers to participate in too many social activities.
   A  PA  PD  D

99. Community pressures prevent me from doing my best as a teacher.
   A  PA  PD  D

100. I am well satisfied with my present teaching position.
     A  PA  PD  D
APPENDIX B

Leadership Practices Inventory
Create by James M Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner

To what extent does your principal typically engage in the following behaviors?

Directions: Read each statement carefully. Select the number that best applies to each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 = Almost Never</th>
<th>6 = Sometimes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 = Rarely</td>
<td>7 = Fairly Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 = Seldom</td>
<td>8 = Usually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 = Once in a While</td>
<td>9 = Very Frequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 = Occasionally</td>
<td>10 = Always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He or She (The Principal):

1. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
3. Seeks out challenging opportunities that tests his/her own skills and abilities.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
4. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
5. Praises people for a job well done.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
6. Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principal standards we have agreed on.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
8. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
9. Actively listens to diverse points of view.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
11. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
13. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
14. Treats others with dignity and respect.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
16. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people’s performance.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
18. Asks “What can we learn?” when things don’t go as expected.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
19. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
21. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
22. Paints the “big picture” of what we aspire to accomplish.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
23. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
24. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
26. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
27. Speaks with a genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
28. Experiments and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
29. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Purpose
You are being asked to participate in a research study that will discuss the relationship between principals and teachers in urban schools. The study will be an examination of principal leadership practices and teacher morale. You have been asked to participate in this study, because you are a teacher in an urban school district. This study will be conducted in an urban school district in the United States of America, and the estimated number of study participants to be enrolled in this study is 150-200 teachers.

Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.
According to current research in education, the morale of teachers who work in urban schools is low, and there are several factors that are contributing to this issue. Consequently, the primary purpose of this research study will be to analyze and measure the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools.
Study Procedures
If you agree to take part in this research study, you will be asked to respond to questions on two surveys; the Purdue Teacher Opinoinaire and the Leadership Practices Inventory. Both surveys have been used in numerous research studies to measure the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale. Your responses will be submitted through Survey Monkey directly to the Researcher. The surveys can be completed in one session; in about 30-45 minutes. You will have two weeks (from today) to submit complete and submit the surveys.

The following procedures will be implemented in reference to completion of the two surveys:

1. You will be asked to respond to questions about your principal’s everyday leadership practices and what you believe affects teacher morale. You will have the option “not” to respond to any question that makes you feel uncomfortable, and still be allowed to remain in the study.

2. The links to the two surveys have been provided for you. The directions for completion/submission are notated on the surveys.
   a. Complete your responses by selecting one answer per question.
   b. Once you have completed both surveys, submit your responses.
   c. Your responses will be submitted directly to the Researcher.

3. The two surveys can be completed in about 30-45 minutes in one setting. You will have two weeks (from today) to complete and submit the surveys.

Benefits
There are not direct benefits to you for participating in this study. However, this research study project could have future benefits to society; particularly in the field of educational administration.

Risks
There are no known risks at this time to participate in this study.

Study Costs
Participation in this study will be of no cost to you.

Compensation
You will not be paid for taking part in this study.
Confidentiality
All information collected during the course of this study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. You will not be identified. However, the study sponsor, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Wayne State University, or federal agencies with appropriate regulatory oversight [e.g., Food and Drug Administration (FDA), Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP), Office of Civil Rights (OCR), etc.] may review your records. When the results of this research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity.

Voluntary Participation/Withdrawal
Taking part in this study is voluntary. You have the right to choose not to take part in this study. If you decide to take part in the study you can later change your mind and withdraw from the study. You are free to only answer questions that you want to answer. You are free to withdraw from participation in this study at any time. Your decisions will not change any present or future relationship with Wayne State University or its affiliates, or other services you are entitled to receive.

The Researcher may stop your participation in this study without your consent. The Researcher will make the decision and let you know if it is not possible for you to continue. The decision that is made is to protect your health and safety, or because you did not follow the instructions to take part in the study.

Questions
If you have any questions about this study now or in the future, you may contact Tonya R. Norwood (The Researcher) at (313) 575-8826, or her research team Advisor, Dr. Ben Pogodzinski at (313) 577-1728. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, the Chair of the Institutional Review Board can be contacted at (313) 577-1628. If you are unable to contact the research staff, or if you want to talk to someone other than the research staff, you may also call the Wayne State Research Subject Advocate at (313) 577-1628 to discuss problems, obtain information, or offer input.

Participation
By completing the surveys, you are agreeing to participate in this study. The data that you provide may be collected and used by Survey Monkey as per its privacy agreement. Additionally, participation in this research study is for residents of the United States over the age of 18; if you are not a resident of the United States and/or under the age of 18, please do not complete this survey.
APPENDIX D

LPI Permission Letter

April 12, 2016

Tonya Norwood
25403 Saint James
Southfield MI 48075

Dear Ms. Norwood:

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® in your dissertation. This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observed/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research. You may reproduce the instrument in printed form at no charge beyond the discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy; however, you may not distribute any photocopies except for specific research purposes. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Eli Becker (ebecker@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions.

Permission to use either the written or electronic versions is contingent upon the following:

1. The LPI may be used only for research purposes and may not be sold or used in conjunction with any compensated activities;
2. Copyright in the LPI, and all derivative works based on the LPI, is retained by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The following copyright statement must be included on all reproduced copies of the instrument(s); “Copyright © 2013 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved. Used with permission”;
3. One (1) electronic copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data must be sent promptly to my attention at the address below; and,
4. We have the right to include the results of your research in publication, promotion, distribution and sale of the LPI and all related products.

Permission is limited to the rights granted in this letter and does not include the right to grant others permission to reproduce the instrument(s) except for versions made by nonprofit organizations for visually or physically handicapped persons. No additions or changes may be made without our prior written consent. You understand that your use of the LPI shall in no way place the LPI in the public domain or in any way compromise our copyright in the LPI. This license is nontransferable. We reserve the right to revoke this permission at any time, effective upon written notice to you, in the event we conclude, in our reasonable judgment, that your use of the LPI is compromising our proprietary rights in the LPI.

Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Ellen Peterson
Permissions Editor
Epetersen4@gmail.com
APPENDIX E

IRB Approval Letter

NOTICE OF EXPEDITED APPROVAL

To:        Tonya Norwood
College of Education

From: Dr. Deborah Ellis or designee  S. Early 122
Chairperson, Behavioral Institutional Review Board (BIRB)

Date:        February 26, 2016

RE:          IRB #: 01411693E
Protocol Title: The Relationship Between Principals and Teachers in Urban Schools: An Examination of Principal Leadership Practices and Teacher Morale
Funding Source:
Protocol #: 1601014585
Expiry Date: February 25, 2017
Risk Level / Category: Research not involving greater than minimal risk

The above-referenced protocol and items listed below (if applicable) were APPROVED following Expedited Review Category (87) by the Chairperson/designee for the Wayne State University Institutional Review Board (BIRB) for the period of 02/26/2016 through 02/25/2017. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals that may be required:

- Revised Protocol Summary Form (revision received in the IRB office 02/25/16)
- Research Protocol (received in the IRB office 01/11/16)
- Medical records are not being accessed therefore HIPAA does not apply
- A waiver of written documentation of consent has been granted according to 45CFR 46.117(c) and justification provided by the Principal Investigator in the Protocol Summary Form. This waiver satisfies: 1) risk is no more than minimal, data are survey responses with minimal risk content, 2) That the research involved no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside the research context, consent would not be required for these procedures outside the research context, 3) The consent process is appropriate, 4) An information sheet disclosing the required and appropriate additional elements of consent disclosure will be provided to participants.
- Research Information Sheet (revision dated 2/24/2016)
- Data Collection Tools (2): Leadership Practices Inventory, ii) Purdue Teacher Opinionaire

* Federal regulations require that all research be reviewed at least annually. You may receive a "Continuation Renewal Reminder" approximately two months prior to the expiration date; however, it is the Principal Investigator’s responsibility to obtain review and continued approval before the expiration date. Data collected during a period of lapsed approval is unapproved research and cannot be reported or published as research data.

* All changes or amendments to the above-referenced protocol require review and approval by the IRB BEFORE implementation.

* Adverse Reactions/Unanticipated Events (AR/UE) must be submitted on the appropriate form within the timeframe specified in the IRB Administration Office Policy (http://www.rb.wayne.edu/policies-human-research.php).

NOTE:
1. Upon notification of an impending regulatory site visit, hold notification, and/or external audit the IRB Administration Office must be contacted immediately.
2. Forms should be downloaded from the IRB website at each use.

*Based on the Expedited Review List, revised November 1999
REFERENCES


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Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

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ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN URBAN SCHOOLS: AN EXAMINATION OF PRINCIPAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND TEACHER MORALE

by

TONYA R. NORWOOD

December 2016

Advisor: Dr. Ben Pogodzinski

Major: Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

A pervasive issue facing today’s educational environment is teacher morale in schools. Recognizing that teacher morale in urban schools is an area of concern, and the behavior of the principals may be a contributing factor, the primary purpose of this quantitative research study was to analyze and measure the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale in urban schools. The research questions focused on the relationship between principal leadership practices and teacher morale, significant differences among schools in reference to principal leadership practices, significant differences among schools in reference to teacher morale, and the principal leadership practices that had the highest and lowest mean scores in reference to teachers who had high morale and teachers who had low morale.

The Transformational Leadership Theory, which focuses on the leader enhancing the motivation, morale and performance of their follower group, was utilized as the conceptual framework. A total of 101 teachers (who worked in an urban school district) participated in the study by completing two surveys, the Leadership Practices Inventory (which measures principal leadership practices) and the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (which measures teacher morale).
The results showed that the leadership practices of principals were not related to teacher morale, in the urban schools in this study. The findings showed that teachers believed their principals were fairly supportive. However, curricular issues and teacher salary were the two key factors that were contributing to low teacher morale. Additionally, teacher load, teacher status in the community, community support, school facilities and community pressures were contributing to low teacher morale, as well. Based on the findings in this study, the assumption could be made that central office administrators, along with school board officials may be a contributing factor that has affected the decision-making process of the principals and teachers; which in turn has negatively affected teacher morale.

Implications from the findings suggest that the urban school district in this study move towards implementing the transformational leadership theory with fidelity. Current and prior research studies have shown the positive effects of this model. Implementation of transformational leadership strategies would assist teachers, principals, and central office administrators to improve morale in urban schools.
AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Tonya Renee’ Norwood

EDUCATION:

Education Specialist in General Administration and Supervision – 2007
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Master of Arts in Counseling – 2005
Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, Michigan

Master of Arts in Teaching: English and Speech – 2002
Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

Bachelor of Arts in Journalism – 1993
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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

Academic Engagement Administrator 2015 – present
Carstens Academy of Aquatic Science K-8
Detroit Public Schools Community District Detroit, Michigan

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Ann Visger Preparatory Academy K-5
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