

**PERCEIVED SUPERINTENDENTS' LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT
PERFORMANCE IN REGION V EDUCATION SERVICE CENTER:
A COHORT STUDY**

A Record of Study

by

FRED MARTIN BRENT

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 2007

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	John R. Hoyle
Committee Members,	Toby M. Egan
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ABSTRACT

Perceived Superintendents' Leadership and Student Performance in Region V

Education Service Center: A Cohort Study.

May 2007

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. John R. Hoyle

The intent of this study was to measure the perceived superintendents' leadership practices in relation to student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) in Region V Education Service Center, Texas. This is one of four cohort studies conducted in Region V that assessed the relationship between student performance and leadership practices. The study compared selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members and superintendent perceptions of superintendent leadership practices as measured by the Kouzes and Posner (2003) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The study was also designed to determine if selected demographic variables impact the perceived leadership practices of the two identified groups. The research procedures included an analysis of the responses from superintendents and selected DEIC members to the Leadership Practices Inventory assessment of five identified leadership practices, *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. Twenty-eight of the possible 30 school districts participated in this study. Student

performance data for each district were obtained from the Texas Education Agency Academic Excellence Indicator System.

The results of this study indicate that neither a linear relationship nor a statistically significant relationship exists between student performance, as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS), and leadership practices as perceived by selected DEIC committee members and superintendents. While the total LPI scores for the five identified leadership practices revealed no statistical significance; further statistical analysis revealed significance for two domains, *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Challenge the Process*.

The study also indicates that participating superintendents commonly perceived themselves higher in regard to leadership practices than did their observers (DEIC members); however, statistical significance for superintendent ratings was only realized in three of the five leadership practices: *Model the Way*, *Challenge the Process*, and *Enable Others to Act*. The frequency of use for each practice as ranked by superintendents and their observers indicate that *Model the Way* and *Inspire a Shared Vision* are practiced more frequently than *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*.

DEDICATION

Leadership is about relationships. The relationships I've experienced with the individuals in this dedication are the relationships that shape the course of my life. I thank each of you for empowering me with love.

Terri Brent, you have been the constant foundation for our family and your love empowers me. The support, sacrifice and commitment you've extended me throughout this endeavor are humbling. Your voice of reason and value of family keeps me grounded.

Austin Price Brent, Alex Emanuel Brent, and Abby Jane Brent (or as we like to say, "Team Brent"), you live the life of leadership each day. My life as an educator places you in an environment that brings challenges of great opportunity as well as hours away from your father; both may be taxing at times, but I am convinced that our life as a family committed to making a difference will provide you with opportunities not experienced by your peers. Each of you possess great talents and my charge to you is to simply embrace life with passion and be the best you are capable of becoming. I love you, I'm praying for you, and I believe in you.

Ralph and Sandy Brent, thank you for instilling in me a respect for higher education. I am proud of who you are and most of all, I greatly respect and appreciate the values you've instilled in me. Thank you for giving me a name that I am proud to carry.

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lifelong friends whose opinions and observations have significant meaning to me as a person and educator. Completing the program without your support and friendship does not seem possible. My memories of our time together will always be cherished.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is the greatest determinant of an organization's success. It has been seen as the focus of group processes, inducing compliance and exercising influence. Other perceptions of leadership include persuasion, power relation, the attainment of goals and the initiation of structure (Bass, 1990). Bennis and Nanus (1997) contend that leadership is necessary to help organizations develop a vision, commit people to action, and convert followers into leaders, and leaders into change agents. Kouzes and Posner (2002a), recognize the core foundations of leadership that have endured decades of technological expansion and economic fluctuation: honesty, forward looking, competent, and inspiring. Bennis and Thomas (2002) state that recent research has led to the conclusion that one of the most reliable indicators and predictors of true leadership is an individual's ability to find meaning in negative events and to learn from even the most trying circumstances. Chemers (1997) noted that successful and effective leaders commonly stimulate followers with inspiring goals. An identifying fit exists between the leader's orientation, inclination and skills and the demands of the leadership position. Successful leaders practice both the art and science of leadership. The art of leadership entails the practice of human relation and interpersonal communication skills while leadership as a science is grounded in

The style and format for this record of study follows that of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

research and professional development (Weller, 2004).

Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005) recognize the historical beliefs regarding the organizational dependence on leadership and easily make a case that leadership is vital to the effectiveness of today's public schools. They also identify a lack of research in examining the quantitative relationship between building leadership and the academic achievement of students. Sergiovanni (1990) writes that management is necessary in schools, but that school administrators often provide little beyond basic management—leading to a lack of true leadership. Educational leaders in the world of institutional change must have the capacity to assess one's own strengths and weaknesses in order to effectively lead their institutions (Lewis, 1993). Such dynamics have created a relatively new form of educational leadership are the following traits of effective school leaders: leaders must recognize the importance of teaching and learning, clearly communicate the vision and mission of the school to all stakeholders, promote an atmosphere of trust and collaboration, and emphasize the professional development of all educators (Anfara, 2001).

Carter and Klotz (1990) conducted research on effective schools. Their findings indicate that when school leaders have high expectations for student learning and hold teachers accountable, student achievement is high. Bjork (1993) identified research supporting the current belief that improving education requires district level leadership. Such research reveals the effectiveness of superintendents serving as instructional leaders and their contribution to the instructional effectiveness of their school districts.

Historically speaking, the position of school superintendent has been respected. Heightened public demands for school accountability and student performance, greater student diversity, teacher and principal shortages, special interest groups, deteriorating school facilities and increasing time demands, have created a leadership crisis in Texas public schools (Hoyle, 2002). Improving student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) begins with the superintendent and is passed down to each principal, counselor and teacher, creating a more intense learning environment (Hoyle, 2002). Schools will not be effective without strong administrative leadership from principals; therefore strong leadership to foster the growth of such principals must be established by the superintendent. Cuban (1984) writes that school districts are unlikely to create higher student achievement in the absence of superintendents who are highly involved in the district's instructional programs.

Statement of Problem

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 and the Texas state accountability system have created unprecedented changes in public schools. Such changes require school superintendents to bear an increased burden by placing a greater emphasis on student performance and the role of the instructional leader. In 18 of 30 school districts in Region V, fewer than 70% of students met standards on the 2004 Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). While many of these school districts currently meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) performance standards established

by the state as required by NCLB, a lack of continuous improvement will result in districts not meeting the annually increasing AYP standards.

Waters and Marzano (2006) revealed their latest findings in a series of meta-analyses conducted over the past several years. The research indicates a “statistically significant relationship between district leadership and student achievement” (p. 3). These findings support earlier research conducted by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) that identified 21 specific leadership responsibilities significantly correlated with student achievement.

Just as Waters et al. (2003) identified 21 leadership characteristics, Waters and Marzano (2006) identified five district level responsibilities that have a significant impact on student performance: (1) collaborative goal setting; (2) non-negotiable goals for achievement and instruction; (3) board alignment and support of district goals; (4) monitoring goals for achievement and instruction; (5) use of resources to support achievement and instruction goals. In an effort to study perception of leadership practices, Kouzes and Posner (2002a) identified the following leadership practices found in effective leaders: (1) challenging the process; (2) inspiring a shared vision; (3) enabling others to act; (4) modeling the way; (5) encouraging the heart. Effective leaders have the capacity to cultivate relationships that empower the organization to accomplish extraordinary things on a regular basis (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). The challenge for today’s school superintendents is to empower all stakeholders to accomplish the extraordinary task of ensuring increased student performance of all student groups.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between perceived superintendent leadership practices and student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. The study measured the perceptions of superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members regarding superintendent leadership practices. In addition, the study determined if selected demographic variables impact the two identified group's perception of superintendents' leadership. This is one of four studies in a cohort effort to assess the relationship between leadership practices and student performance in Region V Education Service Center, Texas. The remaining cohort studies assessed the leadership practices of elementary, middle and high school principals in Region V ESC in the same context.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected DEIC committee members in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?
2. Are there differences in the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

Operational Definitions

The intent of the following terms is to provide clarity to the operational definitions utilized throughout the course of this study.

Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS): A system utilized by the Texas Education Agency that provides each Texas school district with annual comprehensive data for student performance on two standardized assessments, Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) and State Developed Alternative Assessment (SDAA), by campus, district and state average. The system also provides district and campus accreditation status and performance ratings as determined by identified indicators, and other district, campus and state-level reports on attendance, finance, population and staffing as compared to other Texas school districts.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP): The accountability component of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in which districts and campuses are required to meet student performance and participation criteria for the state developed student assessments on reading/language arts and math. Graduation and attendance rates are additional indicators included in determining AYP.

District Rating System: A component of the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) through which school districts receive an Exemplary, Recognized, Academically Acceptable, or Academically Unacceptable rating based on student

performance on the TAKS and SDAA assessments. Student attendance and completion rates are also included in determining the district rating.

Leadership Practices: The five practices identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002a) which describe the fundamental pattern of leadership behavior that emerges when people are accomplishing extraordinary things in organizations: (1) challenging the process by searching for opportunities or taking risks, (2) inspiring a shared vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in that vision, (3) enabling others to act by fostering collaboration and strengthening others, (4) modeling the way by setting examples and planning small wins, and (5) encouraging the heart by recognizing individual contributions and by celebrating accomplishments.

Perceived: To interpret or look on something or someone in a particular way.

Region V Education Service Center (ESC): Regional education service centers were created by the state legislature in 1967 when it became apparent that combining certain tasks common to each district would promote operational efficiency and effectiveness. Region V ESC serves the school districts of Hardin, Jasper, Jefferson Orange, Newton and Tyler counties plus High Island ISD.

Relationship: The way in which two or more concepts are connected.

School Districts: Texas independent school districts governed by the Texas Education Code, answerable to the Texas Education Agency, measured by the Academic Educational Indicator System (AEIS), and funded in accordance with the Texas school finance system by ad valorem taxation generated revenue, the foundation school program, and per capita allocations. For the purpose of this study, publicly funded charter schools in Region V ESC will not be included.

Selected District Education Improvement Committee Members: The chairman, or designee, and four other members of the District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) as selected by the committee chairman.

Student Performance: A school pupil's adjusted score on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS).

Superintendent: The chief executive officer of a school district who has executive oversight and is charged with the responsibility of ensuring an effective teaching and learning process, as well as with the oversight of the financial, legal, and personnel aspects of the district.

Assumptions

The following statements were guiding assumptions to the participation, process and methodology of this study.

1. The researcher will be impartial and objective in the collection and analysis of data.
2. The respondents surveyed will understand the scope of the study and the language of the instrument. Each respondent will provide objective and honest responses.
3. Interpretation of the data collected will accurately reflect the intent of the respondents.
4. The methodology proposed and described offers the most logical and appropriate design for this particular research project.

Limitations

1. The scope of this study is limited to the information and data acquired from literature review, student performance data and survey instruments.
2. The scope of this study is limited to the school districts in Region V Education Service Center, Texas.
3. The findings of this study may not be generalized to any group other than the school districts in Region V Education Service Center, Texas.
4. Correlations do not represent a causal relationship.

Significance of the Study

Legislative mandates, school funding and increasing diversity all add to the adapting climate in Texas public schools which affords educational leaders multiple opportunities to initiate change that empowers all stakeholders to prosper and grow. The latest research of Timothy Waters and Robert Marzano indicate that “when district leaders effectively address specific responsibilities, they can have a profound, positive impact on student achievement in their districts” (Waters & Marzano, 2006, p. 8).

The structure of effective schools is initiated and sustained by leaders who possess certain skills and competencies that allow them to forge the independent, research-based characteristics of effective schools into a structured delivery process. “The essence that promotes and sustains effective school outcomes lies in the commonality of these essential leadership skills and competencies” (Weller, 2004).

Many studies exist regarding leadership characteristics, but few studies have been conducted regarding self-perceived practices of superintendents and the relationship to student performance. This study provided useful feedback on leadership practices as exhibited by selected school superintendents. In addition, this research examined the correlation between perceived leadership practices and student performance. Finally, this study will offer suggestions for improving leadership practices of school superintendents.

Contents of the Study

This record of study contains five distinct chapters. Chapter I is an overview of the research that includes the following: a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions, operational definitions, assumptions and limitations of the study, along with an outlining of this studies significance. Chapter II is a comprehensive review of the literature on leadership, establishes a definition of leadership for the purpose of this study, provides insight into leadership traits and provides a brief history of management and behavior theories. Chapter II also is an exploration of specific leadership models and theories that move toward transactional and transformational leadership and the implications of both on today's role of public school superintendents. Chapter III is a description the methodology of the research, while Chapter IV is a discussion of the research results and a statistical analysis of the data. Chapter V is the conclusion of the record of study wherein a summary of findings with conclusions and recommendations for further study are found.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

To communicate the complexity of educational leadership and student performance, this review of literature first provides a comprehensive look at leadership and the pursuit of its definition. Traits of leadership such as emotional intelligence and a brief history of early trait studies provide an introduction of selected leadership styles. The early works of Frederick Taylor, Mary Parker Follett and Chester Barnard formulate a history of management and behavior theories. Such theories provide the foundation for the study of specific leadership models and theories such as Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model and Getzels Guba Systems Theory.

The framework of Hersey Blanchard and Getzels Guba move toward an assessment of transactional and transformational leadership that includes the contrasts between the two as well as practices defined by both. Transactional and transformational leadership affords the introduction of educational leadership and the challenges faced by those in its arena. The focus of educational leadership is that of today's school superintendents. A brief look at three major reforms in education policy and leadership framework provide insight to superintendent practices, student performance and accountability systems.

A greater understanding of these educational leadership components create a need to assess the measurement of leadership behaviors, specifically those of school superintendents. Two instruments, Leadership Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire

(LBDQ) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), were addressed in this review of literature; however, the LPI serving as the data collection instrument for this study received a more in depth analysis.

The future of educational leadership and re-defining the superintendency precedes the summary of this chapter. The components of this summary include the dynamics of school accountability, the need for balanced leadership, and the call for superintendents to serve as instructional leaders. The intent of which is to create a greater understanding for the complexity of leadership and the great challenges faced by today's school superintendents serving in a world of increasing accountability and school reform.

Leadership

“Leadership is one of the world’s oldest preoccupations. The understanding of leadership has figured strongly in the quest for knowledge. Purposeful stories have been told through the generations about leaders’ competencies, ambitions, and shortcomings; leaders’ rights and privileges; and the leaders’ duties and obligations” (Bass, 1990, p. 3). Leadership plays a role in the lives of every human being. At some point and time in life, everyone will lead or be led; therefore, leadership has a different personal meaning for each individual having experienced leadership. Leadership is intrinsic and extrinsic. One may be lead by the desire in his heart to serve. One may lead out of response to a cause for “the greater good.” In all, leadership is action. Leadership is motivation. Leadership is commitment. Leadership is the driving force behind every society. Burns (1978) simply states, “No societies are

known that do not have leadership in some aspects of their social life” (p. 5). While we recognize the natural establishment of leaders within a society, we often question the factors which influence and deem one person as a leader. Burns notes this, asserting that “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (p. 2). From the earliest established societies, there is evidence of cultivating effective leaders. Fiedler (1967) recognizes the deep history of leadership by noting how Plato’s *Republic* “speculates about the proper education and training of political leaders” (p. 3). Likewise, Fiedler also notes that nearly all political philosophers have attempted to deal with this problem since that time.

In an effort to understand the depth and breadth of leadership’s place in society, one should consider the writing of Bass (1990):

The study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders-what they did and why they did it. Over the centuries, the effort to formulate principles of leadership spread from the study of history and the philosophy associated with it to all the developing social sciences. In modern psychohistory, there is still a search for generalizations about leadership, built on the in-depth analysis of the development, motivation, and the competencies of world leaders, living and dead. (p. 3)

Bennis and Nannus (1997) emphasize that thousands of investigations of leaders and leadership have been conducted during 20th century. With such efforts, “no clear unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from nonleaders” (p. 4). The same lack of understanding also exists, perhaps more importantly, in “what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders” (p. 4). The acknowledgement that leadership exists and is critical to society is easy. Since, however,

leadership has many meanings to many people, defining leadership in a contextual manner presents a difficult challenge.

Leadership Defined

What defines a leader? When defining leadership, one should consider Bass' (1990) assertion: "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 11). Relative to various cultures, professions, and environments, characteristics of leaders are not easily delineated. In fact, many leaders and non-leaders may possess many similar traits. As noted by Bennis and Nannus (1997), leadership involves "the marshalling of skills possessed by a majority but used by a minority" (p. 25). The authors continue that leadership is also something that everyone can learn and teach, but also something that can be denied to no one (Bennis & Nannus, 1997). If leadership can be instructed, then what compels one man to accept the challenge, while the other remains in a subordinate role? The writing of Bennis (1959) reveals the complexity of studying leadership by identifying "fundamental issues that every group, organization, nation, and group of nations has to resolve or at least struggle with" (p. 261): Why do people subordinate themselves to the power of a leader? How do leaders arise and from what source does their power arise (Bennis, 1959)? The answers to such questions raised by Bennis may not be realized in this study, but Chemers (1997) provides insight to the leadership process by identifying the additional aspects that create even more complexity to defining leadership: "Intrapersonal factors (i.e., thoughts and emotions) interact with interpersonal processes (i.e., attraction,

communication, influence) to have effects on a dynamic external environment” (p. 1). Fiedler (1967) notes how the controlling of “others for the purpose of accomplishing a common task is a both necessary and a desirable skill” (p. 1). He also contends the desire for the control of others will remain as long as we must accomplish tasks that one man cannot accomplish without help or input from others (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, within any organized body aimed at accomplishing a common task, leadership is paramount in the functioning of the body as one.

When analyzing effective leaders, we must first identify the various expectations and definitions of leadership. The following are selected definitions of leadership discovered in researching this topic. Fielder (1967) defines leadership as “an interpersonal relation in which power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they direct and control his” (p. 11). Bennis and Nanus (1997) define leadership as a process by which a subordinate is induced to behave in a specific manner. To help gain understanding for various studies, Bass creates a complex definition of leadership: “The interaction among members of a group that initiates and maintains improved expectations and the competence of the group to solve problems or to attain goals” (Bass, 1990, p. 20). Green (2001) defines a leader as “an individual who has the capacity to influence others to use their skills and expertise to move the organization toward established goals” (p. 21). Yukl (2002) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives” (p. 7). For the purpose of this

study, leadership must have a definition that is brief and widely accepted. Chemers (1997) provides the definition for such purpose: “Leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task” (p. 1). Acceptance of this definition leads to the challenge of identifying what leaders do and what steps they take to separate themselves from others and be seen as a leader.

Leadership Traits

In his work, *Practicing the Art of Leadership: A Problem-based Approach to Implementing the ISLLC Standards*, Reginald Green states, “One of the first series of theories concerning leadership emerged from the study of leadership traits” (Green, 2001, p. 7). Such efforts to categorize leadership traits in a condensed form are evident as early as Stogbill’s (1948) survey of leadership literature published in the *Journal of Psychology*. Stogbill wrote:

The factors which have been found to be associated with leadership could probably all be classified under the general headings of capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation and status:

1. Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgment).
2. Achievement (scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishments).
3. Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self confidence, desire to excel).
4. Participation (activity, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor).
5. Status (socio-economic position, popularity). (p. 64)

Efforts to categorize leadership traits became unpopular in the study of leadership shortly after Stogbill’s work in 1948. Interest in leadership traits returned, however, in the 1970s. Bass (1990) notes that “personality traits differentiate leaders from followers, successful from unsuccessful leaders, and high-level from low-level

leaders” (p. 86). Bass contends that personality traits alone do not determine leaders. It was noted that competencies such as task, interpersonal, authoritarianism (and its opposite) were significant trait categories as well as a leader’s values and sense of well-being. A leader is characterized by drive, sense of responsibility and the ability to complete tasks. A leader has the ability to pursue goals with consistency and originality as well as the willingness to accept consequences (Bass, 1990). It is also noted that leaders are able to deal with frustrations that arise from delay in progress while maintaining the ability to influence the behavior of others (Bass, 1990). Green acknowledges one result of Stogbill’s efforts in that “leaders with one set of traits might be successful in one situation but not in others” (Green, 2001, p. 7). Leaders arise with a perception of unique qualities that create a desire for others to follow their direction. Such qualities may be hard to identify, but it should be noted that exceptional leaders seem to draw others to them with a sense of emotional stability. Therefore, a vast range of characteristics define leadership, but ultimately, the emotional bond drives a leader. “Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p.1).

Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman (1998) established a key leadership trait in his work entitled *Emotional Intelligence*. He continues to explore emotional intelligence as a leadership trait in his 1998 *Harvard Business Review* article that was reprinted in the *Harvard*

Business Review 2004 edition *Inside the Mind of a Leader*. In his article titled, “What Makes a Leader,” Goleman states that “truly effective leaders are also distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence, which includes self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill” (Goleman, 1998, p. 82). Goleman refers to the classic story of a highly qualified executive being promoted to a significant leadership position, only to end up a failure. He notes that “identifying individuals with the ‘right stuff’ to be leaders is more art than science” (p. 82). Goleman agrees that individual leadership styles and traits vary and that various situations call for specific leadership skills. He has also found that the one crucial commonality among the most effective leaders is that “they all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence” (p. 82). Goleman does not dismiss the need for IQ and critical leadership skills; he simply refers to them as “entry-level requirements for executive positions” (p. 82).

In his research, Goleman grouped personal leadership capabilities into three categories: “purely technical skills, cognitive abilities and competencies demonstrating emotional intelligence” (p. 84). It should be noted that emotional intelligence is composed of the following traits: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skill. Goleman’s research included 188 companies of which the majority were large and global. The results of his analysis state that intellect, cognitive skills, and vision hold significant importance; however, “emotional intelligence proved to be twice as important as the others for jobs at all levels” (p. 84). Evidence also exists supporting that emotional intelligence proves to have even greater significance at the highest levels of company leadership. An additional point from

Goleman's work is the consideration of intuitive knowledge that leaders must effectively manage relationships: "after all, the leader's task is to get work done through other people, and social skill makes that possible" (p. 91). In their work *Primal Leadership*, Goleman et al. (2002) identify the leadership competencies of emotional intelligence: "Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management" (pp. 253-55). Through their identification of emotional intelligence, the authors contend, "At its root, then, the primal job of leadership is emotional" (Goleman et al., 2002, p. viv).

The emotional intelligence factor of leadership and its role is evident from the events of September 11, 2001. It was necessary for local and national leaders to provide direction in response to the attacks on the towers of the World Trade Center; perhaps more important was their role in providing direction in the healing process. During the days following the attacks, our nation turned to leaders for emotional guidance. "Because the leader's way of seeing things has special weight, leaders manage meaning for a group, offering a way to interpret or make sense of, and so react emotionally to, a given situation" (Goleman et al., 2002, p. xii). Offering a sense of security, a genuine sense of empathy, and a reassurance for future success, a leader unites his society and strengthens the resolve of the people to follow his example.

In summation of leadership traits, it is obvious that, in spite of multiple efforts to categorize the specific traits that induce the following of others, one final universal definition of what makes a leader cannot be reached. It is easy to agree with the writings of Warren G. Bennis: "Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social

psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less is known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioral sciences” (Bennis, 1959, pp. 260-61). From the scientific efforts of Stogbill and Bass to categorize leadership traits from thousands of studies, to the scientific research to Goleman’s emotional intelligence (which admits that leadership is both science and art), one must defer to this thought: the traits that cause and individual to be led are truly defined by that specific individual.

History of Management and Behavior Theories

Around the turn of the century, Frederick Taylor began studying leadership as a learned behavior. Taylor is historically labeled as the Father of Scientific Management as he focused on maximizing the productivity of workers through efficiency. Taylor’s rise through the manufacturing ranks included laborer and clerk, machinist, drafter and chief engineer. This background “reinforced his belief that individuals could be programmed to be efficient machines” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 10). Taylor and his associates ignored psychological and sociological factors that may have influenced workers and their efficiency. Instead, Taylor systematically studied job tasks and how long each task took in order to determine the most efficient way possible to increase productivity (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Taylor published his findings and beliefs in 1911, titled, *Scientific Management*.

The writings of Mary Parker Follett created a paradigm shift for the schools of management behavior shortly after Taylor’s focus on the efficiency and productivity

of the individual with little concern for the individual itself. In her work titled *The New State*, Follett (1918) claimed, “Group organization will create the new world we are now blindly feeling after, for creative force comes from the group, creative power is evolved through the activity of the group life” (p. 3). Follett has been credited by many management writers of today for developing a vision of democracy as a vibrant, participatory process based on the integration of differences among individuals and groups. Her works noted that conflict was a normal process by which differences can result in the enrichment of all involved in the process (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Many scholars have credited her original ideas and analysis of power and relationship as establishing the primary foundation for collaborative leadership, conflict resolution, worker empowerment, self-managed teams, the value of diversity and corporate social responsibility.

It is not our tradition to stick to an outworn past, a conventional ideal, a rigid religion. We are children of men who have not been afraid of new continents or new ideas. In our blood is the impulse to leap to the highest we can see, as the wills of our fathers fixed themselves on the convictions of their hearts. To spring forward and then to follow the path of steadfastly is forever the duty of Americans. We must *live* democracy. (Follett, 1918, p. 343)

Perhaps the best transition from the polarity between works of Taylor and Follett can be found in Chester Barnard. His book, *Functions of the Executive*, was first published in 1938 and still stands today as a foundation for defining organizations and the functions of the individuals within the organization. In a sense, Barnard offered balance between Taylor and Follett by considering both structural and dynamic concepts (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). In structural concepts, Barnard focused on “the individual, the cooperative system, the formal organization, the complex formal

organization, and the informal organization” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 19). The dynamic concept included: communication, cooperation, the decision process and authority (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Barnard (1968) defined the formal organization as “a system of consciously coordinated activities or forces of two or more persons” (p. 73). He also noted key functions of the organization:

1. Effective communication
2. Maintain cohesiveness through willingness to serve and stability of authority.
3. The maintenance of the feeling of personal integrity, self-respect and individual choice. (Barnard, 1968, p. 122)

Barnard also identified three kinds of decisions for the decision making executive:

1. Intermediary decisions arise from authoritative communications from superiors that relate to the interpretation, application, or distribution of instruction.
2. Appellate decisions grow out of cases referred by subordinates.
3. Creative decisions originate in the initiative of the executive concerned.
(Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 323)

Barnard’s blend of cooperation with the authoritative purpose of the organization and care for the individuals within the organization to support a cooperative system is supported in his thought on executive responsibility:

For the morality that underlies enduring cooperation is multi-dimensional. It comes from and may expand to all the world; it is rooted deeply in the past, it faces toward the endless future. As it expands, it must become more complex, its conflicts must be more numerous and deeper, its call for abilities must be higher, its failures of ideal attainment must be perhaps more tragic; but the

quality of leadership, the persistence of its influence, the durability of its related organizations, the power of the coordination it incites, all express the height of moral aspirations, the breadth of moral foundations. So among those who cooperate the things that are seen are moved by the things unseen. Out of the void comes the spirit that shapes the ends of men. (Barnard, 1968, p. 284)

Leadership Behaviors, Models, and Theories

In the 1950s and 1960s, some of the most dominant leadership research was conducted using methods such as behavior description questionnaires and critical incidents to measure the contrast between effective and ineffective leaders (Yukl, 2002). Pioneering research programs were developed at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. Questionnaire research at Ohio State University focused on the leader's consideration for those being led and the leader's ability to define and initiate structure toward the attainment of specific goals (Yukl, 2002). A product of the Ohio State research is the Leader Behavior Questionnaire (LBDQ). Attributes of the LBDQ, and its significance in measuring leadership practices will be investigated later in this study.

The Michigan research was conducted at approximately the same time as the Ohio State questionnaire research. Its focus "was the identification of relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measures of group performance" (Yukl, 2002). The research identified types of behaviors that separated effective and ineffective leaders:

1. Task-oriented behaviors encompass clarifying roles, planning and organizing operations, and monitoring organizational functions.

2. Relations-oriented behaviors include supporting, developing recognizing, consulting, and managing conflict.
3. Change-oriented behaviors consist of scanning and interpreting external events, articulating an attractive vision, proposing innovative programs, appealing for change, creating a coalition to support and implement changes. (Hoy & Miskel, 2001).

Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The Hersey Blanchard model, like the LBDQ, focuses on the task and relationship behavior of the group being led. Hersey Blanchard places the leader's behavior in four quadrants that are based on the maturity/task level of the group. The leader can assess the level of the group and determine the right balance of leadership styles from telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The model provides the leader with a decision making instrument that provides a quick reference for diagnosing the level of follower readiness, selecting high probability leadership styles and communicating styles to effectively influence follower behavior (Hersey, 1984). Hersey's book, *The Situational Leader*, states that "leadership success is much more than just showing up. It is the application of tested concepts and the 'timing' skills necessary to get things done" (Hersey, 1984, p. 15). He contends that influencing follower behavior demands great commitment, effort and time on the behalf of the leader (Hersey, 1984). Hersey identifies the contrast between leadership and management by defining management as the task of working through others for goal attainment; while leadership is an act of influencing the behavior of others, be it individual or group (Hersey, 1984). This

portrays the duality of leadership: one must be able to manage the tasks that come with the organizational goals; while leading direction and organizational development.

The following diagram in Figure 1, retrieved from an Internet Web site, offers an example of the Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model. The maturity of the followers determines the directive and supportive behaviors of the leader. The format provides a system of analysis and measurement to help determine the level of involvement on the leaders' behalf (Hersey & Blanchard, n.d.).

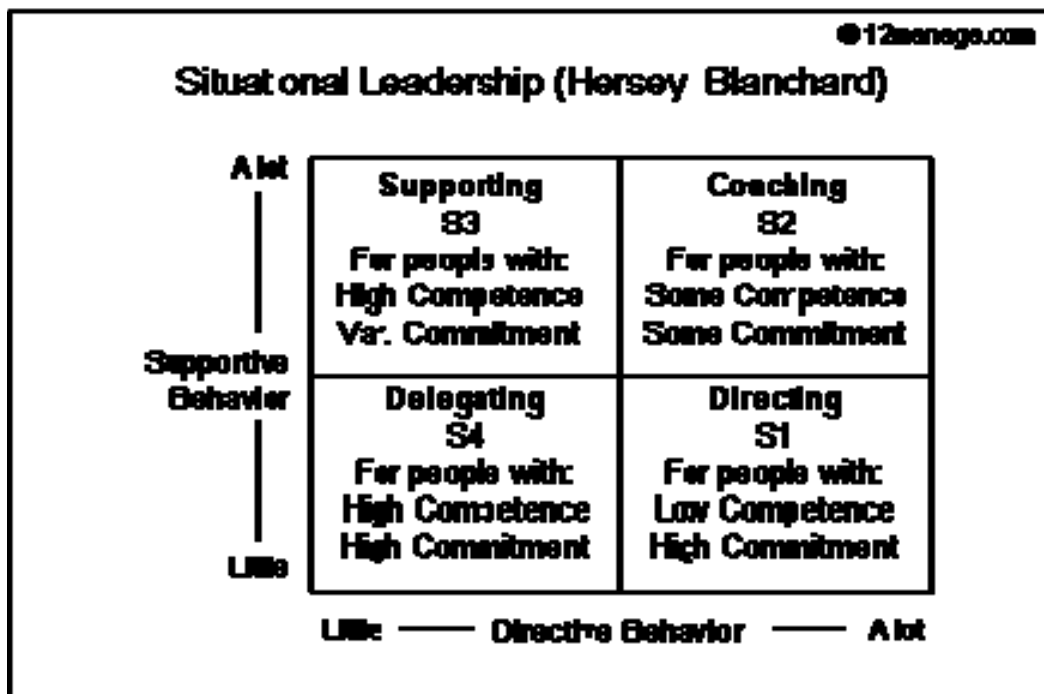


FIGURE 1. Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Diagram

Getzels-Guba Systems Theory

Getzels-Guba Systems Theory consists of two dimensions—nomothetic and ideographic. The nomothetic dimension is the institutional dimension that defines the roles and expectations of the leader. Key questions considered by the leader are: What is our purpose? What is your role? What do you contribute to the organization? The ideographic dimension focuses on the individuals within the organization and their needs. “The relevance of this general model for administrative theory and practice becomes apparent when it is seen that the administrative process inevitably deals with the fulfillment of both nomothetic role expectations and idiographic need-dispositions while the goals of a particular social system are being achieved” (Getzels & Guba, 1957, p. 430). The key for the leader operating in this model is finding the right balance or interaction. The leader must be able to determine his behavior by identifying the expectations, roles, and responsibilities of those involved.

The framework provided by Hersey Blanchard and Getzels-Guba affords the opportunity to identify different styles of leadership. Each situation identified through these models requires specific strategies or qualities; therefore, creating the need for a framework of leadership practices that can be identified and studied by leaders in order to better understand their actions.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Though we have briefly reviewed a portion of leadership’s rich history and context, perhaps the most comprehensive summation of leadership and leadership practices can be realized through transactional and transformational leadership. The

exploration of the two leads to the realization that both practices are of benefit to a leader. Transformational leadership, however, can be realized through what its name implies—a leader’s transformation into a leadership style that transcends that of transactional. To introduce transactional and transformational leadership, Burns (1978) describes the essence of the relationship between leaders and followers as the “interaction of persons with different levels of motivations and of power potential, including skill, in pursuit of a common or at least joint purpose” (p. 19).

Transactional Defined

The emotional relationship between a leader and his followers is the basis of transactional leadership. Burns (1978) states, “The relations of most leaders and followers are transactional—leaders approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another” (p. 4). Chemers (1997) explains transactional theories of leadership as being focused on motivating follower through “fair exchanges and by clarifying mutual responsibilities and benefits” (p. 77). This theory implies that levels of influence rest solely on the followers’ perceptions of authority and its legitimacy (Chemers, 1997). In his 1996 study conducted for the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, Bass offers that transactional leadership can provide stability, structure and readiness during times of crisis or urgency (Bass, 1996). Transactional leadership simply focuses on the transactions between leaders, colleagues, and followers (Bass, 1996). “This exchange is based on the leader discussing with others what is required and specifying the conditions and rewards these others will receive if they fulfill those requirements” (p. 4). Bass also identifies what

transactional leadership alone fails to do: Although transactional leadership provides management of emergencies with structures that have already been set up while supplying immediate needs as perceived by members, there will not be “long-term positive effectiveness in coping with the stressful conditions” (p. 47). Transactional practices alone do nothing to grow the individual or the group toward a greater state of being or fulfillment.

Transformational Defined

Transformational leadership focuses on the intellectual perceptions of the leader. Burns (1978) introduces transformational leadership by identifying intellectual leaders; he explains that intellectual leaders seek to change their “social milieus” (p. 142). He contends that “the concept of intellectual leadership brings in the role of conscious purpose drawn from values” (p. 142). Intellectual leadership, therefore, leads us to the discovery of transforming leadership. “Out of the varying motives of persons, out of the combat and competition between groups and between person, out of the making of countless choices and the sharpening and steeling of purpose, arise the elevating forces of leadership and the achievement of intended change” (p. 432). Transformational leadership can be seen as transactional leadership expanded to the extent that “transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they thought possible. They set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performances” (Bass, 1996, p. 4).

Contrasts of Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Yukl (2002) recognizes the feelings of trust, respect and admiration towards the leader as a product of transformational leadership. He identifies three avenues of transforming and motivating followers: (1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes; (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team; (3) activating their higher-order needs” (p. 254). The discovery of higher-order needs as a product of transformational leadership contrasts with the exchange, compliance product of transactional leadership (Yukl, 2002). Enthusiasm and commitment are common attributes of transformational leadership while transactional leadership will often provide nothing more than compliance with leader requests (Yukl, 2002).

Transformational Leadership Practices

Burns (1978), an early transformational leadership scholar, offers the following insight:

The transforming leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents (p. 4).

Chemers (1997) refers to the findings of empirical literature regarding the most productive relationships between leaders and followers. Such productive relationships are built upon a foundation of “mutual respect and trust” (p. 77). Further realizations were the success of influence strategies employing rational appeals and shared

interest. Also, “the most acceptable forms of power are those that rely on the leader’s legitimate expertise (expert power) and the follower’s trust and respect for the leader (referent power)” (p. 77). Transformational leadership supplements the organizational structure through an influence that encourages the follower to transcend “their own immediate self-interests and by increasing their awareness of the larger issues” (Bass, 1996, p. 44). The followers move away from personal needs such as “safety and security towards achievement, self-actualization , and the greater good” (p. 44).

Transformational Leadership in Relation to Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Bass’ implication that transformational leadership can move others to self-actualization brings to mind the work of Abraham Maslow. His need hierarchy model is the standard perspective of human motivation (Hoy & Miskell, 2001). Maslow’s Need Hierarchy Theory teaches us “the more pre-potent a need is, the more it precedes other needs in human consciousness and demands to be satisfied” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 129). This leads to the fundamental postulate of Maslow’s theory, “higher-level needs become activated as lower-level needs become satisfied” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 129). Maslow’s five categories of needs are:

1. Physiological needs: consist of fundamental biological functions.
2. Safety and security needs: desire for a peaceful, stable society.
3. Belonging, love and social needs: satisfactory associations with others as well as giving and receiving friendship and affection.
4. Esteem needs: reflect the desire to be highly regarded by others; including achievement, competence and confidence.
5. Self-actualization: the need to be what an individual wants to be, to achieve fulfillment of life goals. (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, pp. 127-8)

Just as Maslow's level 1 (physiological needs) and level 2 (safety and security) do not serve as alternatives to levels 3, 4, and 5, transactional leadership is not an alternative to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership simply transcends it once the principal levels of organizational stability have been established.

Transformational leaders tend to be self-defining by having strong internalized values and ideals. They are able and willing to forgo personal payoffs and, when necessary, to risk loss of respect and affection to pursue actions that they are convinced are right. These leaders have a sense of self-worth that is self-determined: not in a self-serving way, but in a manner that allows them to make tough, unpopular decisions. They exhibit a strong sense of inner purpose and direction, which often is viewed by others as the great strength of their leadership. (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p.19)

Such commitment to serving a greater cause inspires a transformation within organizations and the individuals within the organization. For such transformation to occur, the lower physiological levels of Maslow's Hierarchy in terms of transactional leadership must be consistently affirmed. This, in turn, should provide a foundation for organizational self-actualization. The need for organizational self-actualization in public schools grows with the emotional needs of students. Today's school leaders must face greater emotional distress in students than in previous generations. The complexity of student needs grows with the increasing complexity of our society.

Educational Leadership

Tim Waters, Rober Marzano, and Brian McNulty released a publication in 2003 that reports on a study of leadership practices and its effects on student achievement. The study includes a meta-analysis of nearly every available publication that studied the effects of leadership on student achievement since the 1970s (Waters et al., 2003).

Their efforts resulted in another leadership framework, *Balanced Leadership*. This framework is “predicated on the notion that effective leadership means more than simply knowing what to do—it’s knowing when, how, and why to do it” (p. 2). Such leadership capacities are essential to the success of educational leaders in today’s public schools. Transactional teaching practices, however, may seem, leadership in schools demands the ability to be well-balanced amid a system loaded with fragile and unstable circumstances.

Effective leaders understand how to balance pushing for change while at the same time, protecting aspects of culture, values and norms worth preserving. They know which policies, practices, resources and incentives to align and how to align them with organizational priorities. They know how to gauge the magnitude of change they are calling for and how to tailor their leadership strategies accordingly. Finally, they understand and value the people in the organization. They know when, how, and why to create learning environments that support people, connect them with one another, and provide the knowledge, skills, and resources they need to succeed. This combination of knowledge and skills is the essence of balanced leadership. (Waters et al., 2003, p. 2)

Transactional and Transformational Practices in Education

The need for balanced leadership framework can be referred to the balancing act of educational leaders to manage transactional and transformational demands. Kirby, Paradise, and King (1992) analyzed the results of two studies of leadership in education. The purpose of the first study was to determine the extent of which educational leaders were perceived to use transactional and transformational leadership practices, and to determine the best predictors of leadership effectiveness through follower satisfaction. The purpose of the second study was to reveal aspects of transformational leadership that could not be explained with quantitative data (Kirby et al., 1992). Both studies discovered that “extraordinary or transformational

leadership can be found in educational settings” (p. 309). Respondents preferred transformational practices of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation coordinated with the transactional practice of “contingent reward” (p. 309).

Extraordinary leaders “also engaged in many of the task-related behaviors referred to as an initiation of structure” (p. 309), which implies transactional leadership. It should also be noted that “respondents viewed structuring activities as a necessary prelude to extraordinary accomplishments” (p. 309). The initiation of structure, therefore, may provide valuable insight to identifying extraordinary leadership (Kirby et al., 1992). “Our leaders took initial steps in providing resources and selecting key participants, but they were careful not to over define the structure. Instead, involvement continuously expanded. The leader’s role was flexible; it was often deemphasized as others proved increasingly capable of self-direction” (p. 309). This realization reflects the use, by some educational leaders, of the Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model for determining levels of worker maturity and leader involvement.

Challenges of Educational Leadership

Hoerr’s (2005) book, *The Art of School Leadership*, provides a transition into the evolution of educational leadership. The leadership models of earlier research are evident in multiple formats of school leadership practices. The complexities of today’s public schools, however, have outgrown standard “models of leadership.” Hoerr (2005) addresses such complexities in the following: “I believe that the challenges

facing school leaders are greater than those facing leaders in other arenas. This stems from the nature of education and how our schools are organized. Three particular challenges quickly come to mind: (1) Balancing measurement tensions, (2) herding cats and (3) being caught in the middle” (Hoerr, 2005, p. 2).

The art of balancing measurement tensions: “In for-profit organizations, the outcomes are agreed upon and the bottom line is very clear” (Hoerr, 2005, p. 2). The measurement of student success in schools, however, is continuously debated by educators, but perhaps the most disturbing aspect of the debate is the final determinant of what defines student success—legislation written by non-educators. Is it right that success of every student, group of students and entire school districts be evaluated on the results of a standardized test (Hoerr, 2005)? The bottom line for education is student performance. Educational leaders must focus the efforts of the entire school system on what is being measured. This must be done without regard for the misgivings they hold about the inadequacy of the measurement tools (Hoerr, 2005). The balancing act required to meet testing demands while addressing the other issues critical to the growth and development of their school system is what truly separates exceptional leaders from their colleagues.

Hoerr (2005) identifies the second challenge as herding cats: “Leading teachers has been likened to conducting a symphony orchestra, coaching a basketball team, or herding cats” (p. 3). A conductor must get each individual to play as one. A coach creates relationships that cause players to feed off one another and pull together. Success is measured by victories. A cat herder must keep the goal at the forefront of

his or her actions with the realization that getting all cats to move in the same direction will never be easy. The cat herder often asks, “Why am I doing this?” (p. 3).

Being caught in the middle is the third challenge identified by Hoerr: Principals answer to just about everyone. Officially, they are responsible to a superintendent and assistant superintendents. They are also, officially or other-wise, responsible to associate superintendents, area superintendents, directors of education, and curriculum directors. Let’s not forget board of education members, who sometimes have difficulty recognizing what is policy and what is administration. Clearly, principals have multiple official bosses. (p. 4)

A Principal must coordinate his or her efforts with not only the demands of those just mentioned, but also with the demands of teachers, parents and students. In short, the principal is the glue that holds the system together. “Leadership is about relationships” (Hoerr, 2005, p. 5).

Furthermore, not only do leaders in education have a responsibility to the mandates of the state and national expectations, but moreover, they serve as nurturers on the overall self-esteem and self-perceptions of students. In *Leadership for the Schoolhouse*, Sergiovanni (1996) asserts the ultimate purpose of school leaders “is to transform the school into a moral community” (p. 45). He also believes that schools should not function as businesses nor school leaders as business owners (Sergiovanni, 1996). His acknowledgment of the need for principle guided leadership is stated as follows:

The roots of school leadership reach not only into the moral voice of community and the ministerial role of the principal, but reach as well to our own personal commitments as parents, teachers, and principals to do the right thing for our children; to accept as part of our role responsibilities the necessity to practice leadership as a form of pedagogy. (p. 96)

Although agreeing with Sergiovanni’s quest to morality-based leadership through relationships and conviction may be easy, one must also consider the demand such

belief places on school leaders. Noam (2003) defends the efforts of school principals in the following:

Virtually all educators share the strong sense that we're putting too much emphasis and too much of a burden on schools. They are supposed to handle everything: mental health issues, social work issues, community problems, and violence. All of these issues are now placed on the schools, and they're connected to achievement" (Noam, 2003, p. 70).

Such burdens can be demanding therefore creating the feeling that school leadership truly can be compared to "herding cats." (Hoerr, 2005)

Campus principals are held directly responsible for the performance of their students on standardized tests. Ultimately, the principal may lose his or her job if students do not meet testing standards. The same can be said for the superintendent of schools; if the principals of his or her district are not providing satisfactory results, the superintendent's job may be lost as well. Björk (1993) offers a transition for the role of the school superintendent as an instructional leader: "Although the role of the principal was initially emphasized, research studies on instructionally effective schools indicate that superintendents use their 'bureaucratic' positions in the formal organization to improve instruction" (p. 246). High-stakes testing brings high stakes accountability for educational leaders, and more accountability faces the superintendent than ever before, therefore making his/her role as an instructional leader one of utmost importance.

Superintendents and Sustainability in Educational Leadership

Waves of Reform

Historically speaking, the position of school superintendent has been respected. Heightened public demands for school accountability and student performance, greater student diversity, teacher and principal shortages, special interest groups, deteriorating school facilities and increasing time demands, have created a leadership crisis in Texas public schools (Hoyle, 2002). Improving student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) begins with the superintendent and is passed down to each principal, counselor and teacher, creating a more intense learning environment (Hoyle, 2002). Schools will not be effective without strong administrative leadership from principals; therefore, strong leadership to foster the growth of such principals must be established by the superintendent. Cuban (1984) writes that school districts are unlikely to create higher student achievement in the absence of superintendents who are highly involved in the district's instructional programs.

In their text, *The Superintendent as CEO*, Hoyle, Björk, Collier, and Glass (2005) confirm that accountability standards for student performance has created a paradigm shift for educational leadership, especially the role of the superintendent: "The old, less visible role of the school superintendent has changed to that of a highly visible chief executive who needs vision, skills, and knowledge to lead in a new and complex world" (p. 1). The authors identify three waves of educational reform that began with a report from the National Commission on Excellence in Education titled, *A Nation at Risk*. Released in 1983, the report created a shockwave of change in the educational

community; “The first-wave reforms (1982-86) promulgated by state legislatures typically expanded regulatory controls over school districts and schools and reached into the classroom” (Hoyle et al., p. 1). Such reforms called for improved student performance on standardized tests, monitored school progress, increased graduation requirements, increased teacher certification standards and prolonged the school day and year (Hoyle et al., 2005). The initial push for school reform has moved the concept of instructional leadership “beyond a simple description of the principal’s role to understanding it as a multi-level, multi-dimensional, and highly interactive activity that may require a more consultative leadership style” (Björk, 1993, p. 246).

The second wave of school reform (1986-89) maintained the call for improved student performance while acknowledging the need for instructional diversity designed to meet the needs of diverse and underprivileged student populations (Hoyle et al., 2005). The second wave also introduced the call for school decentralization measures such as site-based decision making committees. The intent of site-based committee implementation was to encourage collaboration through bridging the gap between school bureaucracy and leadership, by promoting campus driven decisions that included a variety of teachers, campus leaders, parents and students (Hoyle et al., 2005).

The third wave (1989-2003) demanded a sharper focus on ensuring the well-being of children and inspired future legislation like No Child Left Behind, therefore, creating a platform for future educational standards—“defining how effective schools should be organized, governed, and led, describing how they should interact with a

wide array of community-based service agencies, and reconfiguring the roles of school leaders” (Hoyle et al., 2005, p. 2).

Proposals emerging from each wave of school reform reports and legislative initiatives created contradictory demands on educational administrators; instructional leadership was imperative and non-negotiable (Björk, 1993). In her research for the Southwestern Educational Development Laboratory, Hord (1990) writes, “The school district creates the context in which schools operate, and district policies have the cumulative effect of determining instructionally important decisions at the district level” (p. 2). An emphasis must be placed on creating a climate designed on performance instead of procedure (Hord, 1990). Thus, with the continual paradigm shifts in the accountability and expectations, the only true constant is the positive climate created by the superintendent as instructional leader.

Superintendent Practices, Student Performance, and Accountability Systems

Superintendents and Student Performance

As more recent educational reform efforts have shifted from a focus on “organizational, managerial, and environmental issues into the broader discussion of the role of leadership in school improvement and student learning” (Brunner & Björk, 2001, p. ix), it is necessary to review previous studies that support the need for transforming the role of school superintendents. Hord (1990) is one of the more inclusive studies in reassessing the role of school superintendents. She offers an extensive review of the superintendency and its role in instructional leadership. Throughout her writings, Hord is adamant that school superintendents must learn to “execute a balance of

competing forces to make a 'sanctuary' for independent and shared decision making. The executive needs to listen well in order to persuade and mobilize people" (Hord, 1990, p. 21). Hord recognizes that providing instructional leadership to a school district is an arduous task for superintendents. She also encourages superintendent leadership in guiding the district's process of change and improvement though it requires the leader's continuous attention. "The imperative of such leadership is unquestioned" (Hord, 1990, p. 78).

Change agency is a must for school superintendents. Hord recognizes the multitude of literature supporting superintendent standards and responsibilities, yet contends that few studies actually measure what superintendents really do in their position of leadership (Hord, 1990). An effort to measure such is evident in a study of multiple California districts that measured superintendent influence on math and reading on sixth and twelfth grade students analyzed the testing sample of districts that experienced a change of superintendent during the six-year period of study:

The results found that superintendents do exert influence on the academic performance of school districts, and that they had a greater influence on sixth grade test scores than on twelfth grade scores. Superintendents accounted for 9.4 percent and 2.4 percent of variation in sixth grade and twelfth grade math scores respectively and 7.7 percent and 3.1 percent variation in sixth and twelfth grade reading scores. (Hord, 1990, p. 40)

Although the results are characterized as "incidental" influence, the findings suggest a need for further study to determine the levels and nature of superintendent influence (Hord, 1990).

Additional studies cited by Hord note that superintendents who impact student performance excelled at maneuvering within the social constraints of their job. They

initiated contacts and controlled meeting topics. They also controlled channels of information while organizing operations in the manner they desired (Hord, 1990). Instructionally driven superintendents “enact their instructional leadership roles through a broad array of activities including staff selection, principal supervision, establishing clear instructional goals, monitoring instruction, and financial planning for instruction to improve instruction” (Björk, 1993, p. 246). Other studies “indicate that the success or failure of public schools has been linked to the influence of the district superintendent, particularly those who maintain a high level of involvement in instructional programs” (Björk, 1993, p. 249).

Additional studies such as Instructionally Effective School Districts (IESD) have identified several functions that are characteristic of effective superintendents’ instructional leadership activities. These five major competencies include: “(1) staff selection and recruitment; (2) principal supervision and evaluation; (3) establishing clear instructional and curricular goals; (4) maintaining and monitoring an instructional and curricular focus; and (5) financial planning for instruction” (Björk, 1993, p. 252). The IESD data indicate that 83% of the superintendents were personally responsible for principal supervision and evaluation and were assessed according to the degree of instructional goal attainment in their schools as measured by standardized test scores” (Björk, 1993, p. 253). Other principal evaluation measures included classroom observations, student discipline, school climate, and faculty in-service planning (Björk, 1993). Evaluation practices that create interaction suggest that “superintendents can have a significant influence on the instructional leadership behavior of building principals” (Björk, 1993, p. 253).

Björk also observed leader effectiveness when “superintendents exerted a strong influence in establishing instructional and curricular goals and staff awareness of these basic objectives is best communicated through participatory goal formation processes, which also constituted an important instructional leadership function” (Björk, 1993, p. 253). His research also indicates “superintendents in the IESD reported that a strong leadership role in maintaining and monitoring instructional and curricular goals was essential and included visiting schools on a regular basis to determine the extent to which district goals were implemented” (Björk, 1993, p. 254).

The breadth of superintendent responsibilities varies greatly from that of the campus principal; however, his/her commitment to instructional leadership will determine the academic wellness of the entire district. In closing Björk extends a great challenge to practicing and aspiring educational leaders:

Superintendents focus district resources, create the conditions and provide public advocacy, the essential framework, in which curriculum, instruction and learning in their school districts may be altered. Their role in setting goals; identifying desirable teacher characteristics; recruiting, selecting and supervising staff; establishing clear curricular and instructional goals; monitoring progress; and focusing on financial planning for instruction are substantive acts that have become recognized benchmarks for their instructional leadership role. (Björk, 1993, p. 255)

In September 2006, Timothy Waters and Robert Marzano published a study titled; *School District Leadership that Works: the effect of superintendent leadership on student achievement*. In the executive summary, Waters and Marzano identified four major findings: (1) District-level leadership matters, (2) Effective superintendents focus their efforts on creating goal-oriented districts, (3) Superintendent tenure is positively correlated with student achievement, and (4) Defined autonomy;

“indicating that an increase in building autonomy is associated with an increase in student achievement” (Waters & Marzano, 2006, p. 4). The authors noted the affirmation of the “long-held, but previously undocumented, belief that sound leadership at the district level adds value to an education system” (Waters & Marzano, 2006, p. 8). This study is one of many in a series of meta-analyses that Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) has conducted to determine the attributes of effective school and school leaders. McREL has utilized data from 2,817 districts and the student achievement scores of 3.4 million students; such numbers lead McREL to believe this is the largest “quantitative examination of research on superintendents” (Waters & Marzano, 2006, p. 3). The most significant findings in support of superintendent leadership practices and student performance can be identified in finding 2 as identified by Waters and Marzano: “Effective Superintendents focus their efforts on creating goal-oriented districts” (p. 3). This finding revealed five leadership practices that have a statistically significant correlation with student performance (Waters & Marzano, 2006): (1) Collaborative goal-setting—effective superintendents include central office staff, building administrators, and board member in the goal setting process. (2) Non-negotiable goals for achievement and instruction—effective superintendents ensure that goals for student achievement and classroom instruction include specific targets for schools and students. (3) Board alignment and support of district goals—districts with high levels of student performance have specific student performance goals that are supported by school boards that do not allow other initiatives detract attention or resources from accomplishing such goals. (4) Monitoring goals for achievement and instruction—effective superintendents “continually

monitor district progress toward achievement and instructional goals to ensure that these goals remain the driving force behind a district's actions" (Waters & Marzano, 2006, p. 4). (5) Use of resources to support achievement and instruction goals—effective superintendents ensure that all campuses have the necessary resources such as time, money, personnel, and materials to accomplish the goals for student performance (Waters & Marzano, 2006). This latest study supports the need for effective super-intendent leadership practices that ensure student success in the area of mandated academic assessments such as the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS).

School Accountability

Leithwood (2001) produced a research study to explore the implications for school leaders of the accountability context common to school leaders in several countries around the world. Analysis of the data collected from the study identified a "four-fold classification of approaches to educational accountability: market, decentralization, professional, and management approaches" (p. 218).

The purpose of the classification system established by Leithwood is to help "identify leadership practices suitable for the policy contexts in which many school leaders find themselves" (p. 218). Leithwood addresses the market approach to accountability and how such approaches increase competition among schools for students (Leithwood, 2001). Versions of the market approach are currently available in the USA, Canada, New Zealand, Australia and other European countries (Leithwood, 2001). Several tools for increasing competition among schools with the

hope of improving student performance are currently in practice, including school privatization, vouchers, charter and magnet schools as well as specialized educational facilities (Leithwood, 2001).

Competition among school leaders has also seen a significant increase throughout the accountability wave of school reform. Two specific tools have been utilized in many countries (especially in the state of Texas); the manipulation of school funding options such as vouchers and tuition tax credits, and publicly ranking schools based on student achievement scores on standardized tests. Both tools create forces of pressure from state and local stakeholders on school leaders to develop increased aspirations of securing additional funding through increased student enrollment and improved student performance (Leithwood, 2001).

Advocates of the tools mentioned have a general belief that schools are bureaucratic and unresponsive to the needs of those they serve. “Members of such organizations are assumed to have little need to be responsive to pressure from their clients because they believe they are not likely to lose them” (Leithwood, 2001, p. 221). Therefore, market approaches to accountability advocates share the following assumptions of how competition will improve student achievement.

1. Increased competition allows parents and students to select schools with which they are more satisfied and which better meet their educational needs.
2. Parents who are more satisfied with their child’s school provide greater support to that school and to their child’s learning.
3. Students are likely to be more deeply engaged when their own learning styles are matched to a particular school.
4. When teachers have chosen their work settings and have been active in designing their own schools’ programmes, they will be more committed to implementing those programmes effectively.

It is believed by market approach advocates that “all of these outcomes will combine to increase student achievement, attendance, and educational attainment” (Leithwood, 2001, p. 221).

No Child Left Behind

The dominant force in the realm of policy contexts described by Leithwood (2001) is the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001. NCLB “reauthorizes and amends federal programs established under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965” (Adequate Yearly Progress [AYP], 2005, p. 8). The law brings accountability provisions originally intended for schools and school districts receiving federal education funds to all districts and campuses (AYP, 2005). Therefore, “all public school districts, campuses and the state are evaluated annually for Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)” (AYP, 2005, p. 8). The Texas AYP Plan is based on student performance as measured by the following standardized assessments:

- Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS)
- State-Developed Alternative Assessment II (SDAA)
- Locally-Determined Alternate Assessments (LDAA)
- Reading Proficiency Tests in English (RPTE) for recent immigrant limited English proficient (LEP) student who were exempted in Reading/Language Arts by the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC)
- Linguistically Accommodated Testing (LAT) of the TAKS or SDAA II Mathematics assessments for recent immigrant LEP students who were exempted by the LPAC. (AYP, 2005)

Table 1 is an example of the 2005 AYP Standards as indicated in the 2005 Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) Guide:

TABLE 1. 2005 AYP Indicators

Reading/Language Arts 2004-05 tests (TAKS, SDAA II, LDAA, and RPTE in Grades 3-8 & 10) All students and each student group that meets minimum size requirements: - African American - Hispanic - White - Econ. Disadvantaged - Special Education - Limited English Proficient	Performance Standard: 53% % counted as proficient on test* for students enrolled the full academic year subject to the Federal 5% cap	Performance Improvement: 10% decrease in percent not proficient on test* <i>and</i> any improvement on the other measure (Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate)
	Participation Standard: 95% Participation in the assessment program for students enrolled on the date of testing (no more than 5% of students absent)	Average Participation Rate: 95% participation based on combined 2003-04 and 2004-05 assessment data
Mathematics 2004-05 tests (TAKS, SDAA II, LDAA, and LAT in grades 3-8 & 10) All students and each student group that meets minimum size requirements (see above)	Performance Standard: 42% % counted as proficient on test* for students enrolled the full academic year subject to the Federal 5% cap	Performance Improvement: 10% decrease in percent not proficient on test* <i>and</i> any improvement on the other measure (Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate)
	Participation Standard: 95% Participation in the assessment program for students enrolled on the date of testing (no more than 5% of students absent)	Average Participation Rate: 95% participation based on combined 2003-04 and 2004-05 assessment data
Other Indicator** All students Graduation Rate Class of 2004 Attendance Rate 2003-04	Graduation Rate Standard: 70% or any improvement. Graduation Rate for high schools, combined elementary/secondary schools offering grade 12, and districts offering grade 12	Attendance Rate Standard: 90% or any improvement. Attendance Rate for elementary schools, middle/junior high schools, combined elementary/secondary schools not offering grade 12, and districts not offering grade 12

*Student passing standard on TAKS at panel recommendation. No more than 5% of students in the district's participation denominator can be counted as proficient based on meeting ARD expectations on 1) SDAA II for students tested below enrolled grade level, or 2) LDAA. Results for the RPTE are counted based on number of years in U.S. schools.

**Student groups are not required to meet the Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate standards; however, they may be required to show improvement on the Graduation Rate or Attendance Rate as part of performance improvement for Reading/Language Arts or Mathematics. (AYP, 2005, p. 16)

The framework of accountability created by NCLB is similar to the accountability framework that has existed in Texas for over a decade. Therefore, adjusting to the demands of AYP may not have been as painful for Texas educators as for those in states with little mandated accountability prior to NCLB.

Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS)

The creation of the Texas School Accountability System, as enacted in 1993 by the Texas Legislature, was designed to rate Texas school districts and evaluate campuses (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2005b). According to the 2005 Accountability Manual, “a viable and effective accountability system could be developed in Texas because the state already had the necessary supporting infrastructure in place: a pre-existing student-level data-collection system; a state-mandated curriculum; and a statewide assessment tied to the curriculum” (TEA, 2005a, p. 7). Continuous legislative actions led to the development of a new assessment, the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). The first TAKS administration occurred in the Spring of 2003 (TEA, 2005a). The new assessment “includes more subjects and grades, and is more difficult than the previous statewide assessment” (TEA, 2005a, p. 7). Such fundamental changes provoked a need for the redesign of the accountability system (TEA, 2005a). “As soon as results from the 2003 TAKS were available and analyzed, development of the new accountability system began in earnest. Ratings established using the newly designed system were first issued in the

fall of 2004” (TEA, 2005a, p. 7). A comparison of accountability standards for 2004 and 2005 indicate significant changes that include:

- The incorporation of alternative education accountability (AEA) procedures;
- A higher student passing standard for TAKS;
- An increase in the rigor of the dropout rate Academically Acceptable standard;
- An increase in the rigor of the minimum size criteria for both the dropout and completion rate indicators;
- An increase in the rigor of the underreported students indicator which can prevent a district from being rated Exemplary or Recognized;
- And additional required improvement opportunities for the dropout and completion rate indicators;
- The use of the new SDAA II assessment results, which will include more special education students;
- The removal of the provision to allow new and otherwise Academically Unacceptable campuses to be Not Rated; and,
- The addition of comparable Improvement as a new GPA indicator (TEA, 2005a, p. 7).

The Academic Excellence Indicator System is a product of the Texas Education Agency. The system is designed to comply with NCLB criteria and produces the following ratings as determined by student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) and State Developed Alternative Assessment II (SDAA II). The report also accounts for high school completion rate and student drop-out rates for previous school years. The AEIS report is the vehicle of communication for the accountability system and must be publicly communicated by every school district in Texas. This study utilized the ranking of each school district in Region V Education Service Center, Texas, as shown in Table 2 and produced in the 2005 Accountability Manual:

TABLE 2. Requirements for Accountability Rating Category

	Academically Acceptable	Recognized	Exemplary
Base Indicators			
Spring 2005 TAKS • All students <i>and each student group meeting minimum size:</i> • African American • Hispanic • White • Econ. Disadv.	Meets each standard: • Reading/ELA... 50% • Writing..... 50% • Social Studies.. 50% • Mathematics.... 35% • Science..... 25% OR meets Required Improvement	meets 70% standard for each subject OR meets 65% floor and Required Improvement	Meets 90% standard for each subject
Spring 2005 SDAA II All students (if meets minimum size criteria)	Meets 50% standard (<i>Met ARD Expectations</i>)	Meets 70% standard (<i>Met ARD Expectations</i>)	Meets 90% standard (<i>Met ARD Expectations</i>)
Completion Rate II (class of 2004) • All students <i>and each student group meeting minimum size:</i> • African American • Hispanic • White • Econ. Disadv.	Meets 75.0% standard OR Meets Required Improvement	Meets 85.0% standard OR Meets 80.0% floor and Required Improvement	Meets 95.0% standard
Annual Dropout Rate 2003-04 • All students <i>and each student group meeting minimum size:</i> • African American • Hispanic • White • Econ. Disadv.	Meets 1.0% standard OR Meets Required Improvement	Meets 0.7% standard OR Meets 0.9% floor and Required Improvement	Meets 0.2% standard

Source: TEA, 2005a.

Accountability standards established by NCLB and the state of Texas have created many changes in the role of educational leaders. Such change as created an

even greater need to understand leader behaviors and the perception of leader behaviors among those being led.

Measuring Leadership Behaviors

Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between student achievement and leadership practices of school superintendents in Region V, Texas. The implications of balanced leadership are an excellent reference to what today's superintendents must accomplish to provide a foundation for student success. It is, therefore, necessary to assess the study of educational administration leadership behaviors. According to Hoy and Miskel (2001), "The most well-known leader research inquiries are the leader behavior description questionnaire (LBDQ) studies" (p. 400). The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) consists of two key dimensions of how leaders behave or interact with employees: Initiating structure and Consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). The initiating structure behavior is what the words represent; the leader has a specifically defined relationship with subordinates. The leader "establishes defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure" (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 400).

The consideration behavior indicates a more relaxed relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates. Such behaviors are characterized by "friendship, trust, warmth, interest, and respect in the relationship" (p. 400) between leader and subordinate. The LBDQ found that effective leaders exhibit behavior in both dimensions. The following are four major findings from the LBDQ studies.

- Initiating structure and consideration are fundamental dimensions of leader behavior.
- Effective leader behavior tends most often to be associated with frequent behaviors on both dimensions.
- Superiors and subordinates tend to evaluate the contributions of the leader behavior dimensions oppositely in assessing effectiveness. Superiors tend to emphasize initiating structure; subordinates are more concerned with consideration.
- Only a slight relationship exists between how leaders say they should behave and how subordinates describe that they do behave. (Hoy & Miskel, p. 400)

There are times when the leader must make tough decisions that require more structure to incorporate the decision. The effective leader must also be able to motivate subordinates through positive relationships and by providing a vision for the purpose of their organization. It should therefore be noted that “to neglect initiation of structure limits the leader’s impact on the school; to ignore consideration reduces the satisfaction of the subordinates” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 401). Leader behaviors must have a sound balance between structure and consideration. As noted by Hoy and Miskel (2001), “The matching of leadership style with the appropriate situation in order to maximize effectiveness is a knotty problem” (p. 401).

Leadership Practices Inventory

Kouzes and Posner developed the instrument for this study of the relationship between student performance and leadership practices. The Leadership Practices Inventory originated from a research project conducted by the two authors in 1983 (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Their work began with the pursuit of knowing what people did when they were at their highest level of leadership performance (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Kouzes and Posner asked ordinary people to describe

extraordinary experiences in leadership accomplishments through standards established by the individual. The patterns of success lead to the discovery of a knowledge base of courageous leaders who truly made a difference. A result of their research acknowledges, they noted, “The most significant contribution leaders make is not simply to today’s bottom line; it is to the long-term development of people and institutions so they can adapt, change, prosper, and grow” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. xxvii). The research of Kouzes and Posner (2002a) realized a pattern of effective leadership behaviors identified as ten commitments of leadership. The authors placed these effective leadership practices into five categories and each is supported by two commitments necessary for that specific practice. The authors believe that “when getting extraordinary things done in organizations, leaders engage in these Five Exemplary Practices of Exemplary Leadership: (1) Model the way; (2) inspire a shared vision; (3) challenge the process; (4) enable others to act; (5) encourage the heart” (p. 13).

Model the way. Leaders must have a definite position and serve as models to followers. “To effectively model the behavior they expect of others, leaders must first be clear about their guiding principles” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 14). Commitment one requires leaders to find his or her voice by clarifying personal values. “Leaders must find their own voice, and then they must clearly and distinctively give voice to their values” (p. 14). The authors contend that if leaders are supposed to stand up for their beliefs, they’d better have some beliefs to stand up for” (p. 14). Commitment two encourages leaders to set the example by aligning actions with

shared values: “Eloquent speeches about common values, however, aren’t nearly enough. Leaders’ deeds are far more important than their words when determining how serious they really are about what they say” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 14). A leader’s words and deeds must be consistent with his or her actions. The leader must be the first to step out of the comfort zone. “They go first by setting the example through daily actions that demonstrate they are deeply committed to their beliefs” (p. 14). Relentless effort, steadfastness, competence, and attention to detail are key traits of modeling the way. “Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and the respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan” (p. 15).

Inspire a shared vision. Commitment three consists of envisioning the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) discovered that best leadership experiences were realized when leaders “imagined an exciting, highly attractive future for their organization. They had dreams of what could be” (p. 15). Leaders must inspire a shared vision. They must have the ability to “gaze across the horizon of time, imagining the attractive opportunities that are in store when they and their constituents arrive at a distant destination” (p. 15). To possess such vision, leaders must have a compelling desire to make something happen, to create a new paradigm, to create something that no one else has ever created before (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Enlisting others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations is the essence of commitment four. The authors realize that visions seen only by leaders are insufficient to create an organized

movement or a significant change in a company (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). “A person with no constituents is not a leader, and people will not follow until they accept a vision as their own. Leaders cannot command commitment, only inspire it” (p. 15). For a leader to enlist others in the vision, he or she must know the language of their people, and the people must believe that leaders understand their needs and have their interests at heart. “Leadership is a dialogue, not a monologue. To enlist support, leaders must have intimate knowledge of people’s dreams, hopes, aspirations, visions, and values” (p. 15). Truly effective leaders are incredibly enthusiastic about their projects. Such enthusiasm is catching and spreads from leader to constituents, sparking the flame of inspiration (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

Challenge the process. Those who lead others to greatness, beyond the expectations of those being led, seek and accept challenge; they venture out. Commitment five encourages leaders to search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve. Leaders are willing to step out into the unknown; they learn how to listen to clients and stakeholders. Leaders respect the knowledge of those in the front lines and listen to doing the actual work. “The leaders primary contribution is in the recognition of good ideas, the support of those ideas, and the willingness to challenge the system to get new products, processes, services, and systems adopted” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 17). Commitment six encourages leaders to experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes. Leaders learn through successes and failures. They challenge the process

through small incremental steps that build confidence and prove or disprove new ideas and innovations; “in other words, leaders are learners” (p. 17).

Enable others to act. Commitment number seven promotes the fostering of collaboration through cooperative goals and trust building. Commitment eight is the strengthening of others by sharing power and discretion. Enabling others to act demands the inclusion of peers, managers, customers and clients; all stakeholders of the vision must be included in the change process. “When leadership is a relationship founded on trust and confidence, people take risks, make changes, and keep organizations and movements alive. Through that relationship, leaders turn their constituents into leaders themselves” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 19).

Encourage the heart. Recognizing the contributions of others to the organization with an appreciation for individual excellence is the essence of commitment number nine. Commitment ten consists of the celebration of values and victories with a spirit of community. Kouzes and Posner acknowledge the long and arduous journey required to reach the pinnacle on any organizations endeavor. They recognize the uplifting spirit of leaders who care for their people, therefore drawing all constituents closer to themselves. Effective leaders “know that celebrations and rituals, when done with authenticity and from the heart, build a strong sense of collective identity and community spirit that can carry a group through extraordinarily tough times” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 20).

The Future of Educational Leadership

Re-defining the Superintendency

Increased accountability measures through the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 and the Texas state accountability system require school leaders to bear an increased burden by placing a greater emphasis on student performance and the role of the instructional leader. Studies such as those by Hord (1990) and Björk (1993) have instigated a redefining of the superintendency. Brunner and Björk (2001) have made additional contributions with the intent of preparing tomorrow's superintendents for the ever changing face of education administration. "To adequately address issues facing schools, discourse must be pushed towards the pragmatist notion of 'knowing how' to change schools as well as the constructivist notion of 'knowing why' reforms are needed. In no small measure, these perspectives can help sharpen the focus on defining the new superintendency" (Brunner & Björk, 2001, pp. ix-x).

Fullan is one of today's leading authorities on educational leadership. His 2005 work, *Leadership & Sustainability: System Thinkers in Action*, addresses the complexities of educational reform and the need to reach sustainability in such efforts. He refers to the pendulum effect of educational reform in the following terms:

Top-down versus bottom-up; short-term versus long-term results; centralization versus decentralization; informed prescription versus informed professional judgment; transactional versus transformational leadership; excellence versus equity. And how does one achieve large-scale reform, anyway; reform that is characterized by serious accountability and ownership? (Fullan, 2005, p. ix)

Sustainability

Fullan's (2005) answer to the multiple education reform's quest of satisfying accountability standards as well as educating the whole child is, sustainability; "As it turns out, 'sustainability' is at the heart of all these dilemmas" (p. ix). Sustainability is defined as "the capacity of a system to engage in the complexities of continuous improvement consistent with deep values of human purpose" (p. ix).

Fullan (2005) acknowledges district level leadership presents greater complexities than campus level leadership because the breadth of district driven sustainability exists on a larger scale. His research identifies 10 key attributes of district level sustainability:

1. Leading with a compelling, driving conceptualization—True reform requires leadership with a clear understanding where the district needs to go and the professional capacity to establish such direction.
2. Collective moral purpose—Moral purpose is a commitment to increased performance while closing the gap for all stakeholders; ethical treatment of others; and a commitment to district-wide improvement.
3. The right bus—The right bus refers to the right structures. Districts must be willing to reorganize roles with the intent of providing a sharper focus on teaching and learning while managing issues that may distract from teaching and learning.
4. Capacity building—School districts are complex and contain uncertain environments. The district leader must coordinate specific measures to develop

capacities and collaboration. Everyone must be working together through clear mechanisms for improvement while building leadership for the future.

5. Lateral capacity building—Facilitate learning from a district-wide concept, not just within specific schools or academic teams.
6. Ongoing learning—Commitment to developing professional learning mechanisms that offer energy and satisfaction while monitoring strategy and structure through stakeholder feedback.
7. Productive conflict—Differences will arise due to the complexities of school districts and the levels of interest within. Districts must balance commitment to sustainability with conflict. Working through barriers without losing site of the vision is critical.
8. A demanding culture—Competence is demanded. High levels of trust must exist through respect integrity and a willingness to address incompetence among teachers and leaders.
9. External partners—An improving district will have actively engaged business groups, foundations or community-based organizations that support a district's professional capacity.
10. Growing financial investments—Districts must channel funds into capacity building with a focus on teaching and learning. (Fullan, 2005)

Brunner and Björk (2001) offer a summation of the new superintendency:

As moral leaders, superintendents are expected to articulate and affirm the purpose of schooling, reflect on how well or how poorly students are served, confront rigid bureaucratic structures and practices, find common ground for agreement among disparate community interest groups, and create meaning in the work of teachers and students. (p. xi)

Conceptions of power fuel these expectations, therefore creating the expectation that superintendents reconsider such notions of power while becoming a change agent. One could argue that demands on the superintendent are much greater than those felt by CEO's in the world of business. The superintendent's product (high school graduates) is considered our most precious resource that carries the future of our nation in its hands. Unlike most CEO's in the business world, superintendents report to elected members of the community they serve (board of trustees), and the majority of such officials are not knowledgeable of the school system and its functions; more often than not, trustees serve to satisfy political motives. Superintendent decisions affect lives, business, and social climate; the "bottom line" is the social and academic wellness of his/her community. Managing the multitude of factors that create such wellness seems to be a task beyond comprehension to many of today's educational leaders; therefore, we are faced with a shortage of those willing to embrace the complex challenge of being a superintendent in today's public schools.

Summary

The purpose of this literature review was to offer insight to the complexity of defining, identifying and sustaining leadership. The greatest challenge for the educational leaders in today's public school is to find balance among the many challenges presented with growing student accountability and social change. The historical context of leadership was built on the roles of a leader in an industrial or business organization. Too often, school leaders are expected to be able to utilize such models

in the public school setting. Sergiovanni (1996) argues that we must be careful when comparing educational leadership to leadership in the world of business. The historical context of leadership was built on the roles of a leader in an industrial or business organization. Too often, school leaders are expected to be able to utilize such models in the public school setting. Many, however, overlook the simple fact that a significant majority of the businesses in our society have the autonomy to choose the raw materials of their product, therefore creating a greater influence on the outcome of their product. Educational leaders in public schools are faced with the challenge to educate every child that enters the school. It is safe to say that no two people are created alike. Every child is unique in his or her own way, and with such uniqueness, every child represents a different set of challenges for the educator. Therefore, the need to blend multiple leadership styles through flexibility and creativity validates the framework for Balanced Leadership.

As noted by Waters et al. (2003), effective educational leaders must “understand how to balance pushing for change while at the same time, protecting aspects of culture, values and norms worth preserving” (p. 2).

They know which policies, practices, resources and incentives to align and how to align them with organizational priorities. They know how to gauge the magnitude of change they are calling for and how to tailor their leadership strategies accordingly. Finally, they understand and value the people in the organization. They know when, how, and why to create learning environments that support people, connect them with one another, and provide the knowledge, skills, and resources they need to succeed. This combination of knowledge and skills is the essence of balanced leadership. (Waters et al., 2003, p. 2)

Ackerman and Maslin-Ostrowski (2002) also provide insight to the challenging world faced by today’s public school leaders: “The leadership life, we recognize, is a

complex balance of conflicting forces and tension that manages to function most of the time; however, school leadership can take a person from an inspired moment to a crisis in an instant. School is essentially a human event. Things happen unrelentingly, and a leader is expected to know or do something” (p. xii).

Björk (1993) reminds us that “if we expect superintendents to act as instructional leaders in school district, it is crucial that we better understand the contextual constraints of their work, as well as the opportunities for how their leadership and management activities can be reframed to more effectively support the instructional efforts of principals and classroom teachers at the opposite end of the education hierarchy” (p. 250). Björk (1993) also challenges superintendents to examine their perception of the purpose of their position:

If the superintendent believes that the most important purpose of his/her role is maintaining organizational stability, then the managerial role will dominate his/her activities and instructional leadership will be viewed as a separate layer of responsibility. If, on the other hand, the superintendent believes that ensuring the stability of the organization and advancing student learning are of fundamental importance, then he/she will seek to use his/her routine managerial activities to increase his/her effectiveness as an instructional leader. (p. 254)

Burns (1978) explains that society needs effective leaders who will balance the societal challenges with enthusiasm for the greater good. He contends that “Searching always for the moral foundations of leadership, we will consider as truly legitimate only those acts of leaders that serve ultimately in some way to help release human potentials now locked in ungratified needs and crushed expectations” (Burns, 1978, p. 5). In regards to the challenges faced by educational leaders in this age of accountability; today’s school superintendent must help release the emotional potential of

students locked in the ungratified need of academic mandates and crushed student expectations of what school should mean to them.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members from school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. The study compared the perceptions of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding leadership practices. In addition, the study was also designed to determine if selected demographic variables impact the perceived leadership practices of the two identified groups.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected DEIC committee members in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?
2. Are there differences in the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?
3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

This chapter is presented in four sections: (1) population, (2) instrumentation, (3) data collection procedures, and (4) data analysis.

Population

The population of this study included the 30 school districts in Region V Education Service Center, Texas. Of the identified districts, 28 superintendents and selected members of the District Education Improvement Committee participated in the study.

Instrumentation

This study collected data to assess perceptions of superintendents' leadership practices in relation to student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills. Leadership data were collected from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by James Kouzes and Dr. Barry Posner. The Leadership Practices Inventory questionnaire exhibits five exemplary leadership practices as identified through a 10-point Likert-type scale, delivered in two formats, LPI-Self (leader) (Appendix A) and LPI-Observer (selected committee member) (Appendix B). Kouzes and Posner created the LPI after conducting over 4,000 surveys from case studies of personal-best leadership experiences (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). Permission to conduct this research using the LPI was granted by Dr. Barry Posner (Appendix C).

Cronbach's Alpha identifies internal reliability of the LPI at or above the .75 level for all five leadership behavior domains. Kouzes and Posner (2002b) state that

instrument reliability above .60 is considered good. Table 3 illustrates the reliability (Cronbach Alpha) coefficients for the LPI by respondent category as reported in the Kouzes and Posner (2002b) report on the LPI titled *Theory and Evidence Behind the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders*.

TABLE 3. Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) Coefficients for the LPI by Respondent Category

Leadership Practice	Respondent Categories					
	Leader	Observer	Manager	Direct Report	Co-Worker	Others
Model	.77	.88	.86	.90	.87	.87
Inspire	.87	.92	.92	.92	.91	.91
Challenge	.80	.89	.89	.90	.88	.88
Enable	.75	.88	.86	.89	.87	.88
Encourage	.87	.92	.92	.93	.92	.93

The LPI (Self and Observer) contains 36 statements; six statements for each of the five key practices of exemplary leaders (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). The authors used a Likert-type scale with a 10-point range; the higher value represents greater frequency of the leadership behavior, while the lower value represents less frequent use of the behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b).

Kouzes and Posner frequently modify the LPI based on feedback and empirical analysis. The instrument is validated in educational leadership with over 82 documented studies in secondary education. Of which over 60 documented studies used the LPI to measure leadership behaviors in principals and superintendents.

The validity of the LPI is well documented through empirical factor analysis. The authors state, “The results from various analyses reveal that the LPI contains five factors, the items within each factor corresponding more among themselves than they do with the other factors” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 14). Data analysis revealed five interpretable factors that were consistent with the five subscales of the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). “The stability of the five factor solution was tested by factor-analyzing the data from different sub-samples. In each case, the factor structure was essentially similar to the one involving the entire sample” (2002b, p. 14). Further validation of the LPI is evident in the results of multiple meta-reviews of leadership development instruments. One study of 18 instruments identified the LPI as the only instrument to receive the top score for psychometric soundness and ease of use (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 16).

The purpose of the LPI is to identify patterns of leadership. There are no wrong answers to the questionnaire; each answer is the participant’s perception of the leaders’ behaviors. Therefore, the researcher is able to identify patterns of inconsistent or consistent behaviors. The leader who consistently exhibits the behaviors identified in the LPI will more likely be seen as an effective leader.

The Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) developed by the Texas Education Agency, provided student performance data on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS).

Data for gender information were gathered with the LPI data in the form of an attached survey for the Self instrument (Appendix D) and for the Observer instrument (Appendix E). The information requested included gender, ethnicity, and role in

public education, age, and public education experience. The participant was also asked to provide an overall rating to indicate their performance or the performance of the leader in the following format: above average, average, below average.

Data Collection Procedures

This study was conducted in the spring of 2005. Survey packages were mailed to all school districts in Region 5 ESC. Each package included a district participation request addressed to the school superintendent (Appendix F). Included in the packet was a request for participation from selected DEIC committee chairpersons (Appendix G) and DEIC committee members (Appendix H), and the researcher information sheet (Appendix I). In order to establish an acceptable return rate, follow-up e-mails and telephone calls were made to those districts not responding in a timely manner. Additional survey packages were mailed to the remaining school districts in the fall of 2005. Responses collected from each school district were entered into the LPI Scoring Software for the purpose of data analysis. Campus ratings determined by student performance were collected from the Academic Excellence Indicator System database for each district.

Data Analysis

The survey responses were entered into the LPI Scoring software. The aggregate response data were tallied, statistically computed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) statistical software, analyzed, and interpreted. The data were descriptively interpreted including numerical and graphic techniques. Appropriate

measures of central tendency and variability were used to report results. Analytical tables were utilized to report the research data from the collected raw scores generated by the survey instrument. Information relating to the research questions, supporting indicators, and the respondents' comments were included in the analytical tables.

The analysis and interpretation of data follows the principles that have been described in *Educational Research: An Introduction* (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2002).

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee members from school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas. The study compared the perceptions of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding leadership practices. In addition, the study was also designed to determine if selected demographic variables impact the perceived leadership practices of the two identified groups. Student performance data for each district in the Region were collected from the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) reports as published by the Texas Education Agency.

Procedures and Presentation

An initial research presentation was presented to the superintendents of Region V, ESC during a monthly superintendent meeting. Shortly after the presentation, survey instrument packets were mailed to each superintendent within the region. After a four week period, 43 completed surveys were returned. This response prompted e-mail solicitation for participation to non-responding superintendents. Two weeks after the email, 28 surveys were returned. The total number of surveys mailed was 180, with a response of 71 completed and returned. An additional survey instrument packet was

mailed to each non participating superintendent. This measure along with telephone calls to individual superintendents resulted in the participation of 28 out of a possible 30 superintendents (93.33%) and at least 3 of the selected DEIC committee members from each participating district. Such efforts produced 130 usable surveys of the 180 surveys distributed, which calculates to a 72% return rate for all surveys distributed.

The survey instrument used for this study was the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)—Self and Observer, designed by Kouzes and Posner (2002a). Both instruments consist of 30 questions answered using a 10 point Likert scale. The questions are linked to 5 groups of six (Table 4) that measure five leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner. Each leadership practice could receive a minimum score of six and a maximum score of 60. The values for each leadership practice are determined as follows: (1) almost never, (2) rarely, (3) seldom, (4) once in awhile, (5) occasionally, (6) sometimes, (7) fairly often, (8) usually, (9) very frequently, and (10) almost always.

The five core leadership practices as identified by Kouzes and Posner and the corresponding LPI question numbers for both surveys are illustrated in Table 4.

TABLE 4. Leadership Practices and Corresponding LPI Statement

Leadership Practice	LPI Statement
Modeling the Way	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29
Inspiring a Shared Vision	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27
Challenge the Process	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26
Enabling Others to Act	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28
Encouraging the Heart	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30

A demographic data questionnaire developed by the researcher was included with the LPI Self and LPI Observer instruments. The data obtained from this instrument included gender, age, race, and years experience in education. The data illustrated in Table 5 are a categorization the gender data for superintendents (self) respondents. Of the 28 self respondents, 22 were male, and 6 were female.

TABLE 5. Gender of Superintendent Respondents

Gender	Number of Superintendents
M	22
F	6

Table 6 is a description of the gender data for selected DEIC members (observer) respondents. Of the 102 respondent observers, 34 were males and 68 were females. The entire study included 130 respondents, 56 were male and 74 were female.

TABLE 6. Gender of Observer Respondents

Gender	Number of Observers
M	34
F	68

Table 7 categorizes the years of experience held by the superintendents that responded to the surveys. Of these 28 superintendents, 1 had 0 – 10 years of

experience in education, 5 had 11 to 20 years of experience, 12 had 21 to 30 years of experience, and 10 had 31 or more years of experience as an educator.

TABLE 7. Years of Experience of Superintendent Respondents

Years of Experience	Number of Superintendents
0 – 10	1
11 – 20	5
21 – 30	12
31 or more	10

Table 8 is a categorization the years of experience held by the selected DEIC committee members (observers) that responded to the surveys. Of the 102 completed observer surveys: 23 had 0 to 10 years of experience in education, 38 had 11 to 20 years of experience, 27 had 21 to 30 years, and 14 had been involved in education for 31 or more years.

TABLE 8. Years of Experience of Observer Respondents

Years of Experience	Number of Observers
0 – 10	23
11 – 20	38
21 – 30	27
31 or more	14

The data in Table 9 is a depiction of the age of the 28 responding superintendents into the following: 4 were 31 to 40 years of age, 9 were 41 to 50 years of age, and 15 were 51 or older.

TABLE 9. Age Group of Superintendent Respondents

Age Group	Number of Superintendents
31 – 40	4
41 – 50	9
51 or older	15

Table 10 is a categorization of the age of the 102 responding observers into the following: 8 were 20 to 30 years of age, 29 were 31 to 40 years of age, 35 were 41 to 50 years of age, and 30 were 51 or older.

TABLE 10. Age Group of Observer Respondents

Age Group	Number of Observers
20 – 30	8
31 – 40	29
41 – 50	35
51 or older	30

Table 11 is an illustration of the ethnicity of superintendent respondents. Of the 28 responding superintendents: 4 were African American, Asian or Hispanic, and 24 were white.

TABLE 11. Ethnicity of Superintendent Respondents

Ethnicity	Number of Superintendents
White	24
African American, Asian or Hispanic	4

Table 12 illustrates the ethnicity of the observer respondents. Of the 102 observers that responded to the survey: 18 were African American, Asian or Hispanic and 84 were white.

TABLE 12. Ethnicity of Observer Respondents

Ethnicity	Number of Observers
White	84
African American, Asian or Hispanic	18

The initial student performance data used for this study were the rating assigned to each school district through the Texas Education Agency's (TEA) Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS). The AEIS Report is the standard used by TEA to determine school effectiveness. Four ratings are possible in this accountability system: Exemplary—highest rating possible, Recognized, Academically Acceptable and the lowest possible rating, Academically Unacceptable. Table 13 is an identification of the accountability rating for each of the 28 school districts in this study. No school district received the highest rating of exemplary, and only 1 school

district received a rating of recognized. All of the remaining school districts received the rating of academically acceptable.

TABLE 13. Texas Education Agency AEIS Ratings of Respondent Districts

Rating	Frequency	Percentage
Exemplary	0	0%
Recognized	1	3.5%
Academically Acceptable	27	96.4%
Academically Unacceptable	0	0%

The similarity of district ratings created the need for an AEIS generated indicator that provided a direct reflection of student achievement on the TAKS test. The indicator selected, All Tests Taken, illustrates the percentage of all Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) tests passed by students throughout the entire district. The significance of this indicator is realized when considering that each child's performance on each subject and grade level assessment is correlated into one data set. Scores among the responding districts ranged from the highest of 77% passing rate for all tests taken to the lowest of 41% passing rate for all tests taken. Table 14 is an illustration that 17.9% of the districts had a passing rate of 70-77% of all tests, 42.9% of the districts had a passing rate of 60-69% of all tests, and 39.3% of the districts had a passing rate of 41-59%.

TABLE 14. Percentage of All TAKS Tests Passed by Responding Districts

All Tests Passed	Frequency	Percentage
70% – 77%	5	17.9%
60% - 69%	12	42.9%
41% - 59%	11	39.3%

Results of the Related Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee members from school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas.

Analysis of Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected DEIC committee members in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software was used to compare respondents' scores from the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) to student achievement through several correlations. The mean average for the observer scores of each district was calculated before running statistical tests. Therefore, a single leader score and a single observer average score for each district was established; resulting in 56 total LPI scores. Correlations were used to determine the possible linear relationship between perceived leadership practices and student achievement.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient measure assumes the data are normally distributed and assesses linear association between two variables. The values of the Pearson r range from -1 to 1, indicating the direction of the association. The closer the Pearson r is to 1, the stronger the positive correlation while the closer a Pearson r is to -1, the stronger the negative correlation is between the two variables. The coefficient of determination (r^2), was also calculated from each Pearson r value. The purpose for this coefficient is to reveal the percentage of common variance between the two variables. The final aspect of this correlation is the significance value. This value reveals linear relationship between the two variables. A significance value greater than .05 indicates no linear relationship while significance less than .05 reveals a significantly positive linear relationship, or positive correlation.

To appropriately address Question 1, the same correlations between student achievement and each domain of the LPI as well as the total LPI scores were measured. The first correlation in Table 15 was between the total LPI self/observer scores and student achievement as measured by the percentage of all TAKS tests passed. As illustrated in Table 15, the Pearson correlation coefficient from this test was $r = -.240$, the coefficient of determination (r^2) was .06, which indicates that only 6% of the variance in the two variables is common variance. The significance value = .075, which is greater than .05, reveals no statistical significance.

TABLE 15. Correlation between LPI Total Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		LPI Total Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
LPI Total Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.240
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.075
	N	56	56
Percent of TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.240	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.075	
	N	56	56

Sig. >.05, Not Statistically Significant

The purpose of the scatterplot in Figure 2 is to illustrate the linear relationship between the total LPI self/observer scores and percentage of all TAKS tests passed, of which, no clear regression line is present.

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) assesses leadership in 5 domains: *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. The instrument uses six questions for each domain, with the highest possible score of 60 and 1 as the lowest. Correlations for each domain were run by using the mean average of Observer scores and the Self score for each district and the percentage of all TAKS tests passed for each district.

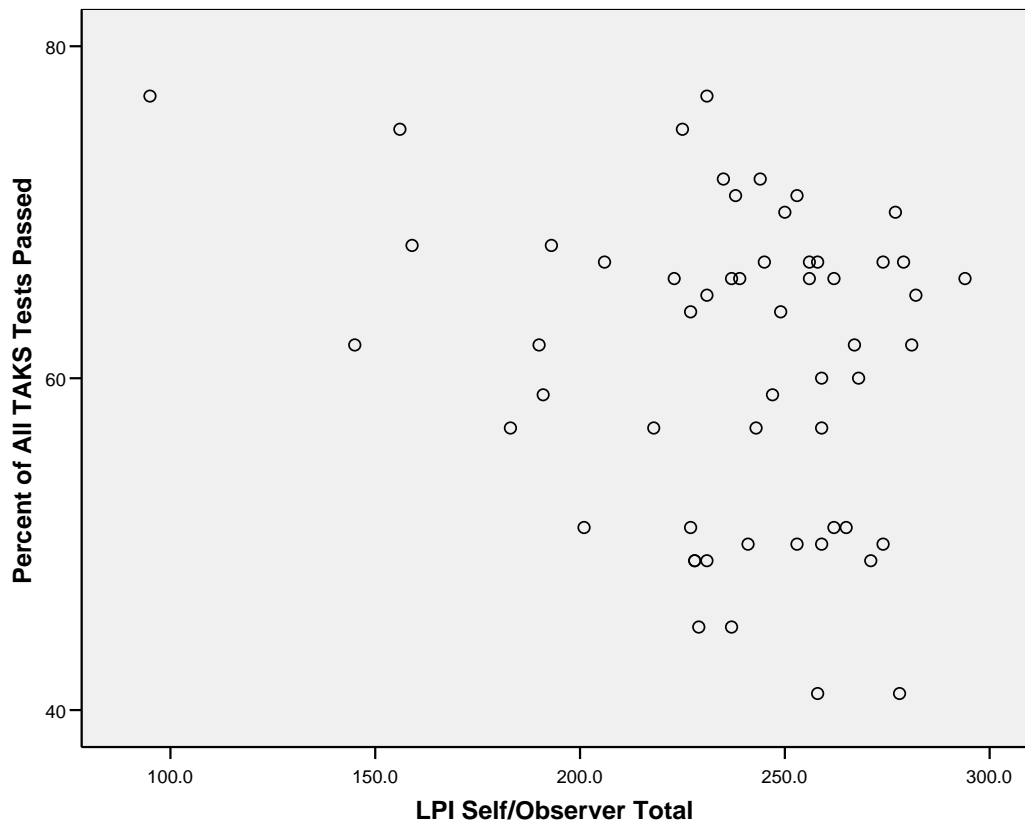


FIGURE 2. Comparison of LPI Self/Observer Total Scores and Percent of TAKS Tests Passed

Model the Way

The leadership practice *Model the Way* (MTW) was the first leadership domain to be used for statistical analysis in relationship to student performance. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002a), the words and deeds of leaders must be consistent. They must have a clear mental picture of their own guiding principles and “they must clearly and distinctively give voice to their values” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 14). Leaders who effectively model the way set the standard of expectation and show commitment to such standards through daily actions (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Table 16 is an illustration of the correlation between LPI scores for *Model the Way*

this leadership practices and student performance as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = -.204$, and the coefficient of determination, $r^2 = .04$. The significance value of .131 reveals no statistical significance.

TABLE 16. Correlation between LPI *Model the Way* (MTW) Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		MTW Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
MTW Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.204
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.131
	N	56	56
Percent TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.204	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.131	
	N	56	56

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Figure 3 is a scatterplot which is a representation of the correlation between *Model the Way* practices and percent of all TAKS tests passed. In this case, a clearly visible line of regression is not present.

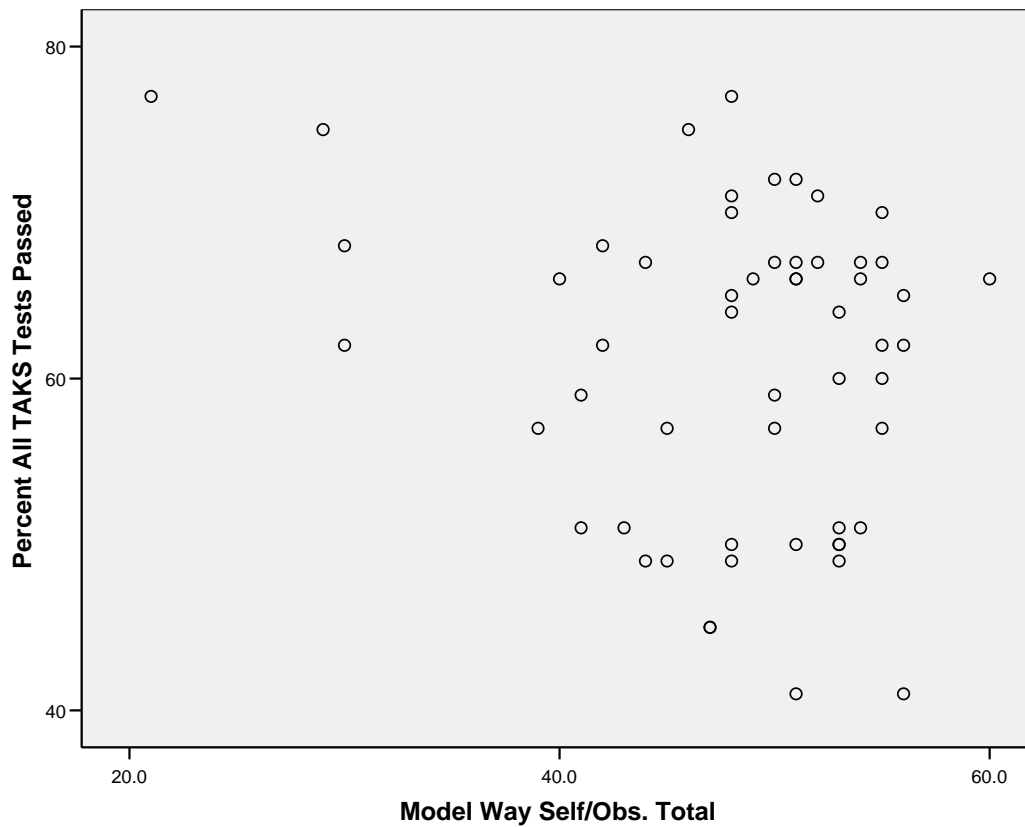


FIGURE 3. Comparison of LPI *Model the Way* (MTW) Scores and Percent of TAKS Tests Passed

Inspire A Shared Vision

The leadership domain *Inspire a Shared Vision* charges leaders with the task of enlisting the people of an organization in a clear and exciting vision that reveals opportunities and an attractive future for all stakeholders (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). For a leader to truly inspire a shared vision, those being led must believe their leader has a clear understanding of their needs and is committed to the interests of the people at heart. In short, “to enlist support, leaders must have intimate knowledge of

people’s dreams, hope, aspirations, visions, and values” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 15).

Table 17 is a representation of the correlation between LPI scores for the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision* (ISV) and student performance as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = -.313$ and $r^2 = .10$. The significance value = .019 reveals a statistically significant correlation.

TABLE 17. Correlation between LPI *Inspire a Shared Vision* (ISV) Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		ISV Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
ISV Self/Observer Total Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.313
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.019
	N	56	56
Percent of TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.313	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	
	N	56	56

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

The scatterplot in Figure 4 illustrates the linear relationship between the variables *Inspire a Shared Vision* and All TAKS Tests Passed. This scatterplot does not reveal a clear line of regression.

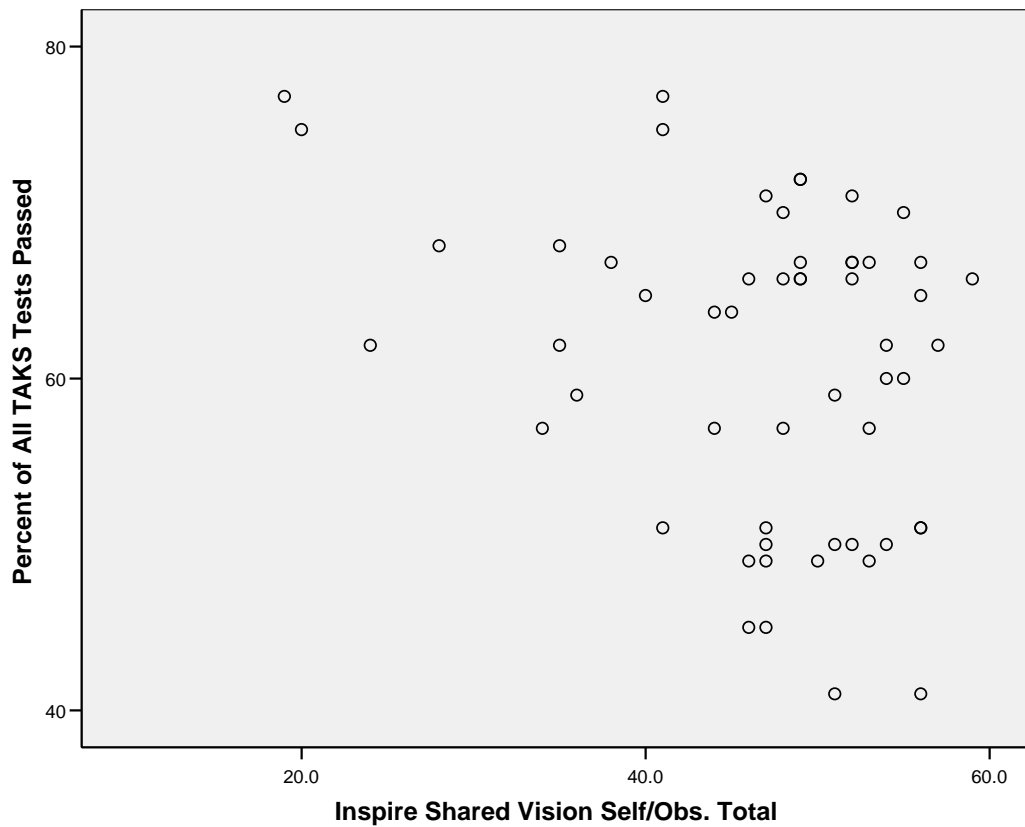


FIGURE 4. Comparison of LPI *Inspire a Shared Vision* and Percent of TAKS Tests Passed

Challenge the Process

Leaders are willing to step out into the unknown and take a risk (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Those who challenge the process are open to new ideas and realize that a key to success is the ability to recognize good ideas from others or external sources. Taking risks means that leaders must be able to deal with failure. The key to dealing with the “potential risks and failures of experimentation, is to approach change through incremental steps and small wins” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 17). Table 18 provides the correlation for LPI scores in the leadership domain *Challenge*

the Process (CTP) and student performance as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = -.306$ and $r^2 = .09$. The significance value of .022 represents a statistically significant correlation.

TABLE 18. Correlation between LPI *Challenge the Process* (CTP) Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		CTP Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
CTP Self/Observer Total Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.306
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.022
	N	52	56
Percent TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.306	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	
	N	56	56

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

The scatterplot in Figure 5 is an illustration of the linear relationship between the *Challenge the Process* and all TAKS passed variables. This chart is an indication that there is no clear line of linear regression.

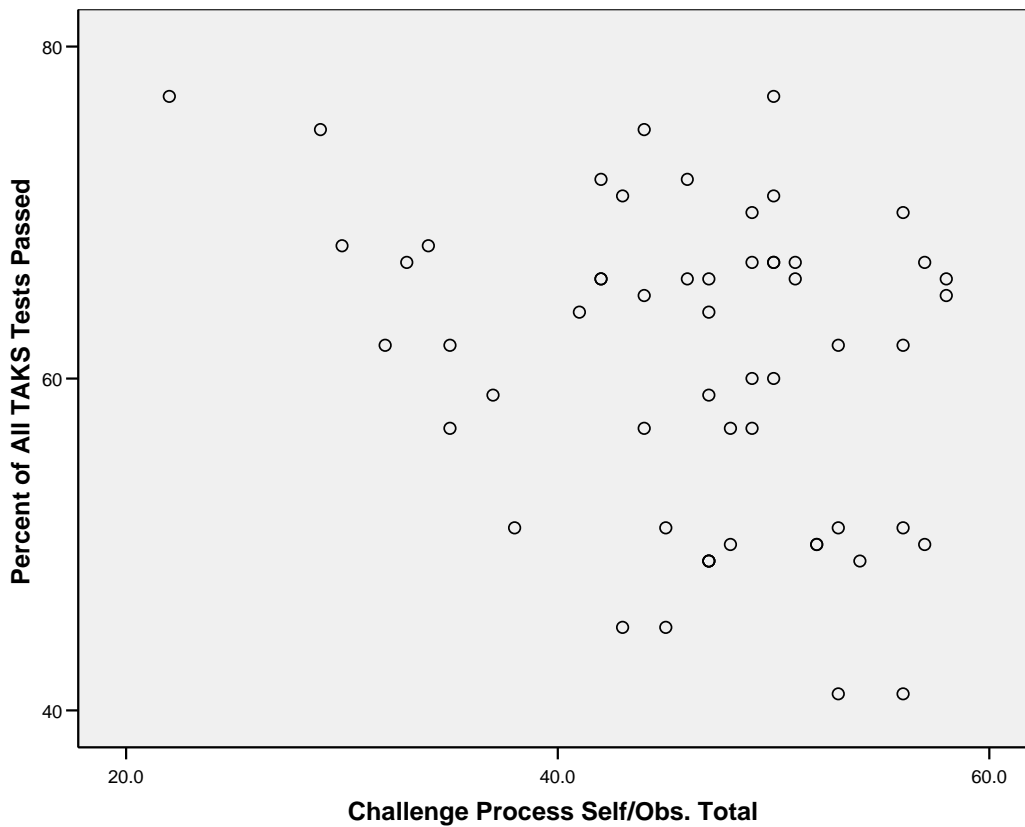


FIGURE 5. Comparison of LPI *Challenge the Process* and Percent of All TAKS Tests Passed

Enable Others to Act

Kouzes & Posner (2002a) identified two commitments of leadership for the domain *Enable Others to Act*: “1. Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust 2. Strengthen others by sharing power and discretion” (p. 22). Leaders must make it possible for others to excel and fostering a climate that permits a sense of personal power and ownership are critical to success. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) summarize the essence of this domain in the following: “When a leader makes people feel strong and capable—as if they can do more than they ever thought

possible—they'll give it their all and exceed their own expectations” (p. 18). Table 19 is an illustration of the correlation between LPI scores for the leadership practice *Enable Others to Act* and student achievement as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = -.099$, $r^2 = .01$, and the significance value of .469 reveals no statistical significance.

TABLE 19. Correlation between LPI *Enable Others to Act* (EOA) Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		EOA Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
EOA Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.469
	N	56	56
Percent of TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.999	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.469	
	N	56	56

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

The scatterplot in Figure 6 is an illustration no linear regression between the leadership practice *Enable Others to Act* and percent of TAKS tests passed.

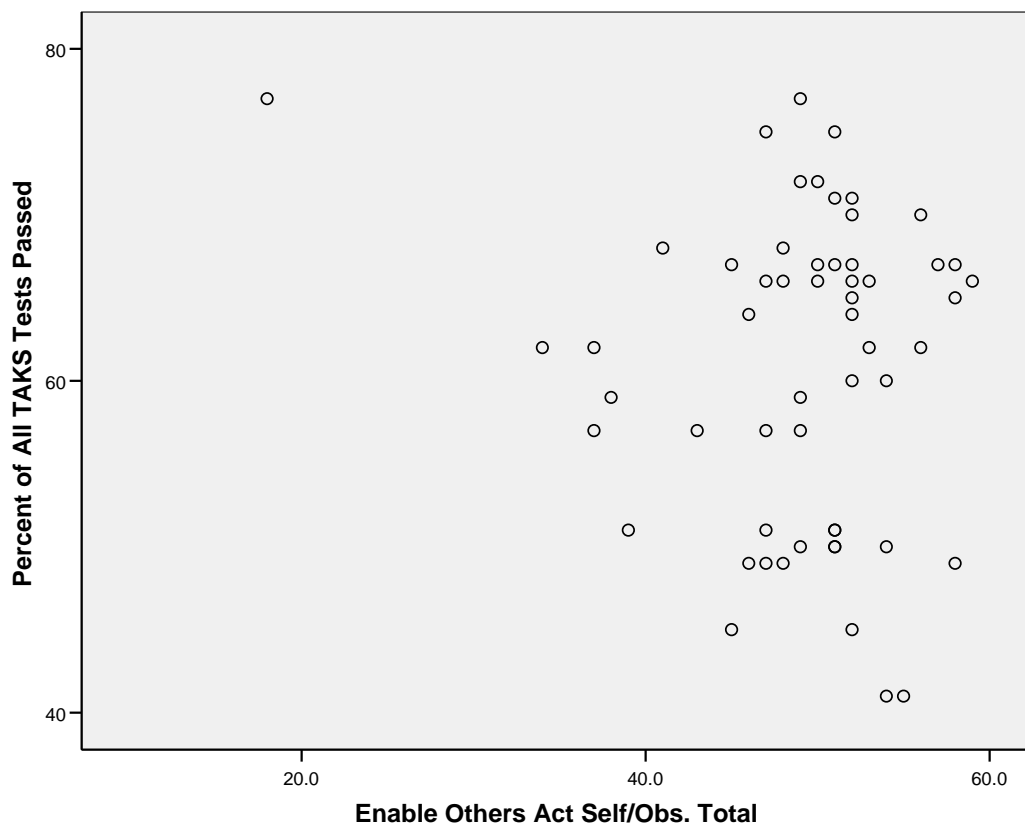


FIGURE 6. Comparison of LPI *Enable Others to Act* (EOA) Scores and Percent of All TAKS Tests Passed

Encourage the Heart

Encourage the Heart (ETH) is the final leadership practice assessed in the LPI. *Encourage the Heart* commitments are: “1. Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and 2. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 22). The authors noted that genuine acts of care and support draw people to move forward (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Leaders must show appreciation for the efforts extended toward the

good of the organization; such appreciation must be genuine and not perceived as mockery or pretentious ceremonies. Table 20 is an illustration of the correlation between *Encourage the Heart* LPI scores and student achievement as measured by the percent of all TAKS tests passed. The Pearson $r = -.183$ and $r^2 = .03$. The significance value of .177 reveals no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 20. Correlation between LPI *Encourage the Heart* (ETH) Scores and All TAKS Tests Passed

		ETH Scores	Percent of TAKS Tests Passed
ETH Scores	Pearson Correlation	1	-.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.177
	N	56	56
Percent of TAKS Tests Passed	Pearson Correlation	-.183	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.177	
	N	56	56

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Figure 7 is an illustration of the lack of linear regression for *Encourage the Heart* and TAKS tests passed much like the other practices in this study.

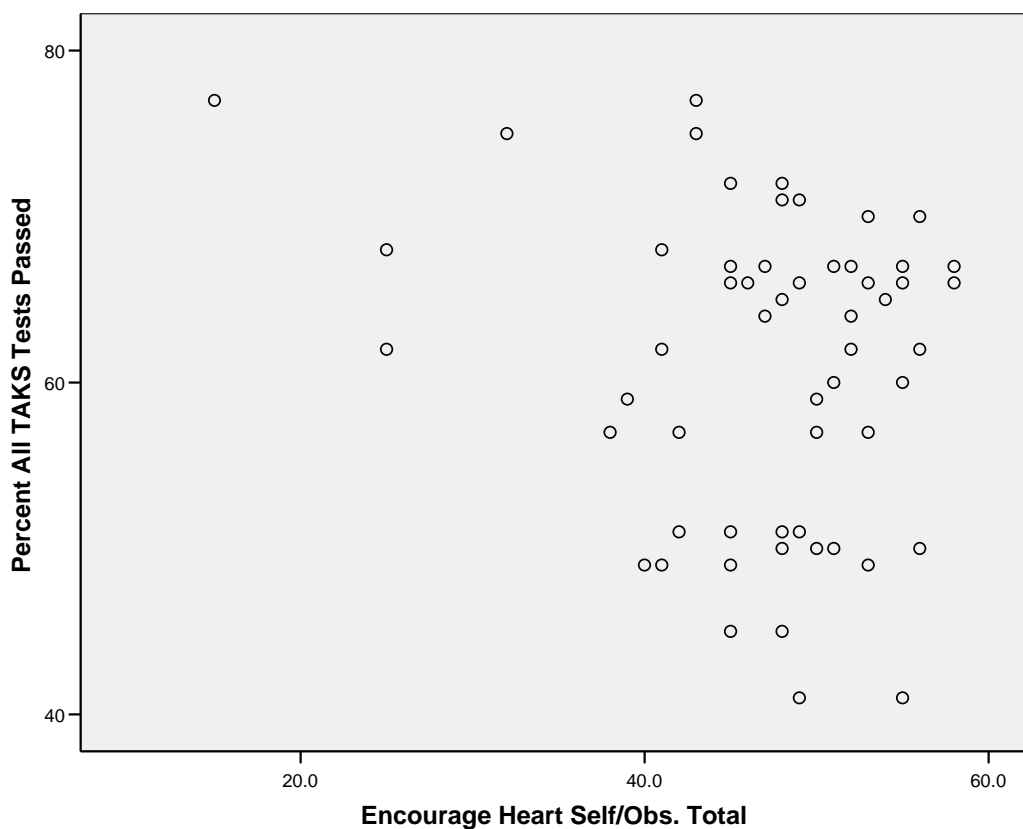


FIGURE 7. Comparison of LPI *Encourage the Heart* (ETH) Scores and Percent of TAKS Tests Passed

Analysis of Research Question 2

Are there differences in the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

As stated earlier in this chapter, participants completed the Self and Observer versions of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Each instrument contains 30 questions that cover five domains of leadership practices. With six questions per domain and the highest possible score of 10 for each question, the highest possible

score for each domain is 60 and the highest possible score for the total LPI is 300. The lowest possible score per domain is 6 and the lowest possible score the total LPI is 30. Participants for each district include one Self (superintendent) LPI assessment and no fewer than 3 or no more than 5 Observer (DEIC members) assessments. The five domains of leadership behaviors measured by the LPI; referred to as leadership practices, are: *Model the Way* (MTW), *Inspire a Shared Vision* (ISV), *Challenge the Process* (CTP), *Enable Others to Act* (EOA), and *Encourage the Heart* (ETH).

Table 21 reveals the mean and standard deviations for total LPI scores. Superintendent scores resulted in a mean of 247.607 and a standard deviation of 29.4094. Observer (Selected DEIC Members) scores resulted in a mean of 226.214 with a standard deviation of 42.3306. Combined Self and Observer scores reveal a mean of 236.911 and a standard deviation of 37.6927.

TABLE 21. Comparative Statistics for Total LPI Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents (Self)	28	247.607	29.4094
Observers	28	226.214	42.3306
Total	56	236.911	37.6927

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for total LPI scores is shown in Table 22. The F statistic is 4.823 with a significance of .032, which is statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 22. ANOVA Table for Total LPI Scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6407.161	1	6407.161	4.823	.032
Within Groups	71733.393	54	1328.396		
Total	78140.554	55			

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

Model the Way

Table 23 reveals the mean and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Model the Way*. Superintendents had a mean of 50.214 and a standard deviation of 5.7113. Selected DEIC Members (Observers) had a mean of 46.000 and a standard deviation of 8.4896.

TABLE 23. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Model the Way*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents	28	50.214	5.7113
Observer Averages	28	46.000	8.4896
Total	56	48.107	7.4777

The analysis of variance shown in Table 24 is an illustration of an F statistic of 4.750 and significance of .034, which is statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 24. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Model the Way*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	248.643	1	248.643	4.750	.034
Within Groups	2826.714	54	52.347		
Total	3075.357	55			

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

Inspire a Shared Vision

Table 25 is a depiction of the mean and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*. Superintendents (Self) scores resulted in a mean of 48.714 and a standard deviation of 7.7644. Selected DEIC Members (Observers) show a mean of 44.750 with a standard deviation of 9.8681.

TABLE 25. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents	28	48.714	7.7644
Observer Averages	28	44.750	9.8681
Total	56	46.732	9.0222

Table 26 is an illustration of the analysis of variance for *Inspire a Shared Vision*. The F statistic is 2.791 with significance at .101. There is no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 26. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Inspire a Shared Vision*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	220.018	1	220.018	2.791	.101
Within Groups	4256.964	54	78.833		
Total	4476.982	55			

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Challenge the Process

Table 27 is a provision of the mean and standard deviation results for *Challenge the Process*. Superintendents (Self) scores resulted in a mean of 48.429 and a standard deviation of 6.4027. Selected DEIC Members (Observers) scores reveal a mean of 44.036 with a standard deviation of 8.8923.

TABLE 27. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Challenge the Process*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents	28	48.429	6.4027
Observers	28	44.036	8.8923
Total	56	46.232	7.9909

Table 28 is a representation of the analysis of variance for *Challenge the Process*. The F statistic of 4.500 with significance at .038 reveals statistical significance for this leadership practice.

TABLE 28. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Challenge the Process*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	270.161	1	270.161	4.500	.038
Within Groups	3241.821	54	60.034		
Total	3511.982	55			

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

Enable Others to Act

Table 29 is a provision of the mean and standard deviations for the leadership practice *Enable Others to Act*. Superintendents' scores resulted in a mean of 51.357 and a standard deviation of 4.8550. Selected DEIC Members (Observers) revealed a mean of 46.536 and a standard deviation of 7.8338.

Table 29. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Enable Others to Act*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents	28	51.357	4.8550
Observer Averages	28	46.536	7.8338
Total	56	48.946	6.9004

Table 30 is a depiction of the analysis of variance for *Enable Others to Act*. The F statistic of 7.663 and significance of .008 reveals statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 30. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Enable Others to Act*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	325.446	1	325.446	7.663	.008
Within Groups	2293.293	54	42.470		
Total	2618.839	55			

Sig. <.05 Statistically Significant

Encourage the Heart

Analysis of the final leadership practice, *Encourage the Heart*, is provided in Table 31. Superintendents scores resulted in a mean of 48.893 and a standard deviation of 6.7294. Selected DEIC Members (Observers) scores reveal a mean of 45.036 and a standard deviation of 9.2315.

TABLE 31. Comparative Statistics for the Leadership Practice *Encourage the Heart*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Superintendents	28	48.893	6.7294
Observer Averages	28	45.036	9.2315
Total	56	46.964	8.2373

Table 32 is a depiction of the analysis of variance for this practice. The F statistic of 3.192 with a significance of .080 reveals no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 32. ANOVA Table for the Leadership Practice *Encourage the Heart*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	208.286	1	208.286	3.192	.080
Within Groups	3523.643	54	65.253		
Total	3731.929	55			

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

An additional measure for determining differences in the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members is an analysis of the percentile rankings of superintendents scores and observers' scores. The data in Table 33 are a representation of the latest percentile rankings for the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a). These data are a result of over 250,000 leader assessments and over one million observers (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b). The scores for the high range in each practice are in the 70th percentile, scores in the moderate range are begin at the 30th percentile and scores for the low range are below the 30th percentile (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a).

TABLE 33. Leadership Practices Inventory Percentile Rankings

	High Score Range	Moderate Score Range	Low Score Range
Model the Way	51 – 60	44 - 50	22 - 43
Inspire a Shared Vision	50 – 60	40 - 49	18 - 39
Challenge the Process	50 – 60	43 - 49	24 - 42
Enable Others to Act	53 – 60	47 - 52	24 - 46
Encourage the Heart	52 – 60	43 - 51	22 - 42

The percentage range of scores from the superintendent completed Self assessments and the Observer completed assessments is provided in Table 34. A greater percentage of superintendents rated themselves in the high score range and a greater percentage of observers rated their superintendents in the low score range for all five practices.

TABLE 34. Percentile Rankings of Superintendents and Observers

	High Score Range	Moderate Score Range	Low Score Range
<i>Model the Way</i>			
Superintendents	53.58%	35.71%	10.71%
Observers	39.29%	32.14%	28.57%
<i>Inspire a Shared Vision</i>			
Superintendents	50.00%	42.86%	7.14%
Observers	35.71%	39.29%	25.00%
<i>Challenge the Process</i>			
Superintendents	42.85%	42.85%	14.30%
Observers	32.14%	32.14%	35.72%
<i>Enable Others to Act</i>			
Superintendents	32.14%	64.29%	3.57%
Observers	17.86%	46.42%	35.72%
<i>Encourage the Heart</i>			
Superintendents	42.86%	46.42%	10.72%
Observers	17.85%	50.00%	32.15%

Analysis of Research Question 3

Do selected demographic variables impact responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

A researcher-developed questionnaire was included with the LPI instrument. The information collected from this instrument includes gender, years of experience in education, age and ethnicity. The instrument categorized years of experience in four choices: (1) 0 - 10 years, (2) 11 - 20 years, (3) 21 - 30 years, or (4) 31 or more years. Data for age of respondents was also categorized in four choices: (1) 20 – 30, (2) 31 – 40, (3) 41 – 50, or (4) 51 or more years. Originally, the questionnaire gave multiple options for ethnicity; however, several categories had no respondents which resulted in compressing ethnicity into the following categories: (1) White, (2) African American, Asian, or Hispanic.

Does the level of experience of the respondent affect the overall rating of superintendents in Region V ESC?

The total LPI scores for all respondents (superintendent and observer) were analyzed with the SPSS software program. Table 35 is an depiction of the mean and standard error of all respondents by years of experience in education. The mean for respondents (N = 24) with 0 – 10 years of experience was 235.750 with a standard error of 13.085. Respondents with 11 – 20 years of experience (N = 43) had a mean of 221.814 and standard error of 11.572. Those with 21 – 30 years of experience (N = 39) had a mean of 244.825 with a standard error of 10.686. Respondents in the final group of 31 or more years of experience (N = 24) reveal a mean of 234.426 and a standard error of 14.002.

TABLE 35. Estimated Marginal Means—Years of Experience

Experience	N	Mean	Std. Error
0 – 10 Years	24	235.750	13.085
11 – 20 Years	43	221.814	11.572
21 – 30 Years	39	244.825	10.686
31 or More Years	24	234.426	14.002

The pairwise comparisons of the total LPI scores for all respondents by years of experience in education are illustrated in Table 36. The greatest mean difference of 23.011 was found between 11 – 20 years of experience and 21 – 30 years of experience. The second greatest difference of 13.936 was found between 0 – 10 years of experience and 11 – 20 years of experience. Other comparisons with seemingly large differences include a difference of 12.612 between 11 – 20 and 31 or more years of experience, and a difference of 10.399 between 21 – 30 and 31 or more years of experience. Such difference may appear to be large, but they are not statistically significant at the .05 level. The lowest significance value revealed in Table 36 is .147. It should be noted that mean differences must have significance values less than .05 to reveal statistical significance.

TABLE 36. Pairwise Comparisons—Years of Experience

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
0 - 10 Years	11 - 20 Years	13.936 (b,c)	17.468	.427
	21 - 30 Years	-9.075 (b,c)	16.894	.592
	31 or More Years	1.324 (b,c)	19.165	.945

TABLE 36. Continued

(I) Experience	(J) Experience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
11 - 20 Years	0 - 10 Years	-13.936 (b,c)	17.468	.427
	21 - 30 Years	-23.011 (b,c)	15.751	.147
	31 or More Years	-12.612(b,c)	18.165	.489
21 - 30 Years	0 - 10 Years	9.075(b,c)	16.894	.592
	11 - 20 Years	23.011(b,c)	15.751	.147
	31 or More Mears	10.399(b,c)	17.614	.556
31 or More Years	0 - 10 Years	-1.324(b,c)	19.165	.945
	11 - 20 Years	12.612(b,c)	18.165	.489
	21 - 30 Years	-10.399(b,c)	17.614	.556

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Based on estimated marginal means

- a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).
- b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).
- c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Does respondent age statistically affect the overall superintendent rating?

Table 37 is a depiction of the mean and standard error of all respondents by age group. The mean for respondents in age group 20 – 30 (N = 8) was 245.000 with a standard error of 27.107. Respondents in age group 31 – 40 (N = 33) had a mean of 229.536 and a standard error of 13.004. Respondents in age group 41 – 50 years (N = 44) had a mean of 231.176 and a standard error of 9.816. Respondents in the final age group of 51 or more years (N = 45) had a mean of 237.046 and a standard error of 10.600.

TABLE 37. Estimated Marginal Means—Age Group

Age Group	N	Mean	Std. Error
20 – 30 Years	8	245.000	27.107
31 – 40 Years	33	229.536	13.004
41 – 50 Years	44	231.176	9.816
51 + Years	45	237.046	10.600

The pairwise comparisons of the total LPI scores for all respondents by age group are illustrated in Table 38. The greatest mean difference of 15.464 was found between age group 20 – 30 years and 31 – 40 years of age. The second greatest difference of 13.824 was found between age group 20 – 30 years and 41 – 50 years of age. The remaining differences are no greater than a 7.954 mean difference. As in the previous comparison, none of the mean differences are statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 38. Pairwise Comparisons—Age Group

(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
20 - 30 years of age	31 - 40 years of age	15.464(b,c)	30.065	.608
	41 - 50 years of age	13.824(b,c)	28.830	.633
	51 or older	7.954(b,c)	29.102	.785
31 - 40 years of age	20 - 30 years of age	-15.464(b,c)	30.065	.608
	41 - 50 years of age	-1.639(b,c)	16.293	.920
	51 or older	-7.509(b,c)	16.777	.655
41 - 50 years of age	20 - 30 years of age	-13.824(b,c)	28.830	.633
	31 - 40 years of age	1.639(b,c)	16.293	.920
	51 or older	-5.870(b,c)	14.447	.685

TABLE 38. Continued

(I) Age Group	(J) Age Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
51 or older	20 - 30 years of age	-7.954(b,c)	29.106	.785
	31 - 40 years of age	7.509(b,c)	16.777	.655
	41 - 50 years of age	5.870(b,c)	14.447	.685

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Does respondent gender statistically affect the superintendent rating?

Table 39 is a representation of the mean and standard error of all respondents by gender. The mean for male respondents (N = 56) was 238.100 with a standard error of 10.267. Female respondents (N = 74) had a mean of 230.955 and a standard error of 7.853.

TABLE 39. Estimated Marginal Means—Gender

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Error
Male	56	238.100	10.267
Female	74	230.955	7.853

The pairwise comparisons of the total LPI scores for all respondents by gender are illustrated in Table 40. The mean differences of 7.145 and -7.145 reveal a significance of .582, which is not statistically significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 40. Pairwise Comparisons—Gender

(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (a)
Male	Female	7.145(b,c)	12.926	.582
Female	Male	-7.145(b,c)	12.926	.582

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Does respondent ethnicity statistically affect the superintendent rating?

Table 41 is an illustration of the mean and standard error of all respondents by ethnicity. The mean for White respondents (N = 108) 225.919 with a standard error of 6.273. African American, Asian or Hispanic respondents (N = 22) had a mean of 244.135 and a standard error of 11.864.

TABLE 41. Estimated Marginal Means—Ethnicity

Ethnicity	N	Mean	Std. Error
White	108	225.919	6.273
African American or Hispanic	22	244.135	11.864

The pairwise comparisons of the total LPI scores for all respondents by ethnicity are illustrated in Table 42. The mean differences of -18.215, 18.215 appear large, but with a significance of .178, this difference reveals no statistical significance at the .05 level.

TABLE 42. Pairwise Comparisons—Ethnicity

(I) Ethnicity	(J) Ethnicity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)
White	African Amer., Asian or Hispanic	-18.215(b,c)	13.421	.178
African Amer., Asian or Hispanic	White	18.215(b,c)	13.421	.178

Sig. >.05 Not Statistically Significant

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

b. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (I).

c. An estimate of the modified population marginal mean (J).

Summary

This study was conducted by analyzing data from the 130 completed Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) that included a researcher-generated demographic questionnaire and student performance data for the participating school districts retrieved from the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS). The data from those surveys and student performance information were used to test three research questions.

The first question addressed the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected district education improvement (DEIC) committee members. Leadership practices were measured by analyzing the data from superintendent and DEIC committee members Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) surveys. The Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) reports for each participating district provided data for student performance on the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). Pearson correlations did not indicate statistical significance between total LPI scores and all TAKS tests

passed. Statistical correlations for the LPI practices, however, revealed statistical significance in two leadership domains, *Inspire a Shared Vision* (.019) and *Challenge the Process* (.022). The correlations between leadership practices and all TAKS tests passed for *Model the Way*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart* did not reveal statistical significance.

The second research question addressed the possible differences in the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices. Statistical significance at the .05 level for the between groups ANOVA was realized in the total LPI scores (.032), *Model the Way* (.034), *Challenge the Process* (.038) and *Enable Others to Act* (.008). The study also revealed that a greater percentage of superintendents (Self) rated themselves in the high score range and a greater percentage of DEIC committee members (Observer) rated their superintendents in the low score range for all five practices.

The final research question examined whether demographic variables impacted superintendent and observer responses regarding perceived leadership practices. The demographic data for years experience in education, age, gender and ethnicity was obtained from the researcher-developed questionnaire attached to the LPI survey. Although mean differences appeared to be large in some areas, the pairwise comparisons for each indicator revealed no statistical significance.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members in school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas.

A review of the literature was conducted to obtain a comprehensive look at leadership, traits of leadership, early leadership trait studies and specific leadership models. This literature exploration provided the foundation for the in-depth look at educational leadership, the leadership role of school superintendents and major education reforms in education policy that placed an emphasis on the superintendents' role as an instructional leader in an effort to improve student performance. Three research questions were posed to investigate my research.

1. Is there a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members in school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas?
2. Are there differences in the responses of superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

3. Do selected demographic variables impact responses of superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas?

Summary of Findings

The following is a review of my findings for each research question.

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected district education improvement committee (DEIC) members in school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas.

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) assesses leadership in 5 domains: *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. The instrument used six questions for each domain, with the highest possible score of 60 and 1 as the lowest for each domain and a highest possible score of 300 for LPI total results. Correlations for LPI total scores and each domain were run by using the mean average of observer scores and the self score for each district and the percentage of all TAKS tests passed for each district. While statistical significance was not realized in the correlations between LPI total scores and all TAKS tests passed, statistical significance was realized in two of the five leadership practices measured by the LPI and all TAKS tests passed, *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Challenge the Process*.

2. There are statistically significant differences in the responses of superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas.

This researcher's data analysis revealed significant differences at the .032 level in total LPI scores between the responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members. Statistical significance, however, was only realized for the leadership practices *Model the Way*, *Challenge the Process*, and *Enable Others to Act*. Statistical significance was not realized for the leadership practices *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Encourage the Heart*.

3. Demographic variables have no impact on responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas.

A researcher-developed questionnaire was included with the LPI instrument. The information collected from this instrument includes gender, years of experience in education, age and ethnicity. The instrument categorized years of experience in education in four choices: (1) 0 – 10 years, (2) 11 – 20 years, (3) 21 – 30 years, or (4) 31 or more years. Data for age of respondents were also categorized in four choices: (1) 20 – 30, (2) 31 – 40, (3) 41 – 50 or (4) 51 or more years. Originally, the questionnaire gave multiple options for ethnicity; however, several categories had no respondents which resulted in compressing ethnicity into the following categories: (1) White, (2) African American, Asian, or Hispanic.

Conclusions

A review of the literature, as well as an analysis of the data by this researcher form the basis for the following conclusions as they relate to the study of student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected DEIC committee members in Region V Education Service Center, Texas as measured by Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory:

1. There appears to be no statistically significant relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and Selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members in school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), Texas.

The literature revealed that Kouzes and Posner (2002a) discovered that best leadership experiences were realized when leaders "imagined an exciting, highly attractive future for their organization. They had dreams of what could be" (p. 15). Leaders who Inspire a Shared Vision are incredibly enthusiastic about their projects. Such enthusiasm is catching and spreads from leader to constituents, sparking the flame of inspiration (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). The review of literature also cited the work of Goleman et al. (2002): "Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions" (p. 1). As noted by Brunner and Björk (2001), superintendents must articulate and affirm the purpose of schooling. Such articulation relates to the leadership practice *Inspire a Shared Vision* aspect of enlisting others in

a vision of student success. Effective superintendents inspire the school community with the purpose of student success.

Challenge the Process is the second leadership practice to realize statistical significance in relation to student performance. The literature revealed that leaders *Challenge the Process* by recognizing good ideas with support for changing the system to get “new products, processes, services, and systems adopted” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 17). Björk (1993) notes that instructionally driven superintendents “exerted a strong influence in establishing instructional and curricular goals and staff awareness of these basic objectives is best communicated through participatory goal formation processes, which also constituted an important instructional leadership function” (p. 253). Such activities compliment the literature findings for *Challenge the Process* behaviors that includes a leaders search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow and improve (Kouzes, & Posner, 2002a).

Statistical significance in the leadership practices *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Challenge the Process* is supported by the constant change in student accountability standards as noted by the increase in academic standards as measured by the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills: The new assessment “includes more subjects and grades, and is more difficult than the previous statewide assessment” (TEA, 2005a, p. 7). Literature supports the similarities of *Inspire a Shared Vision* and *Challenge the Process* when compared to the Balanced Leadership framework as presented by Waters et al. (2003). Their work recognizes effective superintendent capacities that include finding the balance between “pushing for change while at the same time, protecting aspects of culture, values and norms worth preserving” (p. 2).

The authors also noted the ability of effective superintendents to “know when, how, and why to create learning environments that support people, connect them with one another and provide the knowledge, skills, and resources they need to succeed” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 2).

The lack of significance in the correlations for the other three leadership practices *Model the Way*, *Encourage the Heart*, and *Enable Others to Act* is not supported by the literature. The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) has been identified by Hoy and Miskel (2001) as one of the most popular research inquiries of our time. The LBDQ consists of two key dimensions of how leaders behave or interact with employees: Initiating structure and consideration (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). The initiating structure behavior is what the words represent: the leader has a specifically defined relationship with subordinate. The leader “establishes defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 400). The consideration behavior indicates a more relaxed relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates. Such behaviors are characterized by “friendship, trust, warmth, interest, and respect in the relationship” (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 400). The initiating structure dimension supports *Model the Way* behaviors identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002a): “Leaders must find their own voice, and then they must clearly and distinctively give voice to their values” (p. 14). Leaders who enable others to act and encourage the heart foster collaboration through cooperative goals and trust building. They recognize the contributions of others to the organization with an appreciation for individual excellence. These behaviors coincide with the cooperation dimension of the LBDQ. It should therefore be noted that “to

neglect initiation of structure limits the leader's impact on the school; to ignore consideration reduces the satisfaction of the subordinates" (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 401). The lack of significance in the correlations for total LPI scores, *Model the Way*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart* does not agree with the literature in regards to leadership effectiveness. The r^2 value for *Inspire a Shared Vision* was .10. This means that 10% of the variance between student performance and *Inspire A Shared Vision* is common variance. The coefficient of determination (r^2) value for *Challenge the Process* was .09, which interprets 9% common variance. The highest r^2 value for the total scores and remaining three practices was .06 or 6% common variance. Variables not addressed in this study such as the number of years the superintendent has served in current position or socioeconomic status of the student population may provide insight into leadership practices and student performance. Superintendents who have not been in a position long may be leading in the right direction and more time is needed before improved performance is realized. The factor of increased or decreased student performance may also provide better insight to the relationship between student performance and leadership practices.

2. There appear to be statistically significant differences in the responses of superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas.

The research of Kouzes and Posner (2002b) supports these findings for the statistically significant differences between the self and observer responses for total scores as well as *Enable Others to Act*. The data from Kouzes and Posner (2002b),

however, do not support the findings in this study for *Model the Way* and *Challenge the Process*. Kouzes and Posner (2002b) noted that “tests of differences between leaders (using the LPI-Self form) and their constituents (using the LPI-Observer form) reveal no statistically significant differences” (p. 9) for *Model the Way* and *Challenge the Process*.

Percentile rankings of superintendents and selected DEIC committee indicate that a greater percentage of superintendents rated themselves in the high score range and a greater percentage of observers rated their superintendents in the low score range for all five leadership practices measured in the LPI. This finding is supported by Kouzes and Posner (2002b) comparisons between self and observer perspectives. The authors note that “it has not been unusual to find Self scores higher than Observer scores in specific workshop or research settings” (p. 9).

Perceptual differences in leadership practices between superintendents and those being led by superintendents can be attributed to Fullan’s (2005) answer to the multiple education reform’s quest of satisfying accountability standards as well as educating the whole child; sustainability. He defines sustainability as “the capacity of a system to engage in the complexities of continuous improvement consistent with deep values of human purpose” (Fullan, 2005, p. ix). The review of literature noted ten key attributes of district level sustainability as identified by Fullan (2005). Two of the attributes identified support the research findings; productive conflict and a demanding culture. Fullan (2005) identifies productive conflict as the differences that arise due to the complexities of school districts and the levels of interest within. Districts must balance commitment to sustainability with conflict. Working through barriers

without losing site of the vision is critical (Fullan, 2005). Many of the decisions that must be made by school superintendents are based on factors not realized by observers. A superintendent, therefore, may perceive that he/she is practicing specific leadership behaviors as identified in the LPI and such efforts are not realized by the observers. Specific decisions in such leadership practices will have a negative impact on some observers and therefore he/she will not perceive the superintendent as practicing the very leadership practice the superintendent believe he/she is practicing.

Increased demand for student performance as noted by Leithwood (2001) has created an environment of increasing competition among schools with the hope of improving student performance; including school privatization, vouchers, charter and magnet schools as well as specialized educational facilities (Leithwood, 2001). The demands identified by Leithwood (2001) support the attribute of a demanding culture as identified by Fullan (2005). In this attribute Fullan (2005) notes that competence is demanded. High levels of trust must exist through respect integrity and a willingness to address incompetence among teachers and leaders. This demanding culture has forced superintendents to make critical choices in instructional programs as well as teacher/administrator retention. Such demanding choices can create levels of trust as well as distrust that will result in varying perceptions of leadership practices between superintendents and observers. As noted by Björk (1993), “The success or failure of public schools has been linked to the influence of the district superintendent, particularly those who maintain a high level of involvement in instructional programs” (p. 249). Such involvement for superintendents who may be new to a school district or

those who are striving to meet the increasing demands of school accountability will cause feelings of unsettlement that come with programmatic changes.

3. Demographic variables appear to have no impact on responses of superintendents and selected DEIC committee members regarding perceived leadership practices in school districts in Region V ESC, Texas.

The pairwise comparisons for total LPI scores and years of experience in education revealed the greatest mean difference of 23.011 between 11 – 20 years of experience and 21 – 30 years of experience. The second greatest mean difference of 13.936 was found between 0 – 10 years of experience and 11 – 20 years of experience. The pairwise comparisons for the total LPI scores and age revealed the greatest mean difference of 15.464 between age group 20 – 30 years and 31 – 40 years of age. The second greatest difference of 13.824 was found between age group 20 – 30 years and 41 – 50 years of age. The pairwise comparisons for total LPI scores and gender revealed mean differences of 7.145 and -7.145 with a significance of .582, which is not statistically significant at the .05 level. The pairwise comparisons for total LPI scores and ethnicity revealed mean differences of -18.215, 18.215. The differences appear large, but a significance of .178 revealed no statistical significance at the .05 level.

The findings of this research are supported by the data comparisons provided by Kouzes and Posner (2002b) in relation to gender: “The possible impact of gender on LPI scores was analyzed by looking at differences between male and female respondents. Generally, the leadership practices are not significantly different for males and females on the LPI-Self” (pp. 9-10). The literature stated that other research studies

using the Leadership Practices Inventory conducted by Bankes in 1999 (as cited in Kouzes & Posner, 2002b) that assess elementary teachers' perception of principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and Long in 1994 (as cited in Kouzes & Posner, 2002b) that assessed the leadership practices of elementary principals and parental involvement reveal no significant gender differences.

4. The findings of this research indicate that superintendents' perception of their own leadership practices consistently ranks higher than the perception of their observers. The leadership practice *Model the Way* entails the ability for leaders to find their own voice with clearly defined values and communicate their values to subordinates. The values of a leader determine the decision he/she will make. As superintendents become more involved with instructional leadership, others may not agree with the decisions being made.
5. The literature supports that increased accountability standards with an emphasis on student performance on standardized tests have created a greater need for superintendents to articulate and affirm the purpose of schooling and make programmatic decisions that focus on providing better student services. The challenge of finding common ground for disparate community groups while improving student performance will cause every decision at the superintendent's level to fall under close scrutiny.

Recommendations

Waves of educational reform that began in the 1980s have led to greater emphasis on student performance as measured by standardized assessments today than our

nation has ever experienced. The state of Texas has been at the forefront of such transformation with the Texas Education Agency's development of the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills. Today's Texas high school student must pass TAKS assessments in each core curricular disciplines to be eligible for graduation. At the time of this study, schools are also preparing to offer an additional year of math and science for every high school graduate by the year 2010.

The increasing demands mentioned above are a fraction of the complex issues faced by today's school superintendent. Student performance, however, is the issue that has driven the transformation of the superintendents' role in the design and implementation of instructional programs. The review of literature noted the significant increase in competition among school leaders throughout the accountability wave of school reform. The push for school vouchers in Texas and the publication of student performance for the purpose of school ranking has created greater pressure for school superintendents to facilitate programmatic change. The pressures have also created a shortage of superintendent applicants for the ever increasing number of superintendent vacancies throughout Texas.

The literature review and research findings of this study were used to make the following recommendations.

1. Perhaps the effectiveness of superintendent leadership practices cannot be solely measured by student performance on standardized assessments. As noted in the literature by Goleman (1998), effective leaders possess a high degree of emotional intelligence traits such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. Although this study revealed no

statistical significance in the relationship between student performance and superintendent leadership practices as measured by the LPI, superintendents should consider levels of emotional intelligence evident in their daily leadership practices.

2. Perhaps superintendent leadership cannot be measured by the same standards as corporate leaders. The literature revealed that models needed for school leadership must include greater emphasis on human element factors such as school culture and climate.
3. It appears that today's accountability standards may be detrimental to the efforts of school communities wanting to place a greater focus on the moral purpose of education with a commitment to increased student performance while meeting the societal needs of all stakeholders.
4. Perhaps the demands of student performance create a greater need for school superintendents to facilitate the creation of a clearly defined vision for the school district with input from community business leaders and organizations, parents, educators and students.
5. With the increasing political attacks on today's public schools, superintendents should visualize their role as the greatest advocate for the students of his/her school district in an effort to facilitate a culture of commitment to excellence for all students and all programs.
6. Perhaps superintendents need to engage state policy makers and communicate the needs of the community they serve. An increased awareness of the current

trends and the real effects they have on the children in public schools must be communicated in multiple formats.

7. For continued student improvement on accountability assessments, superintendents may need to more passionately embrace the opportunity to ignite a passion for serving the needs of all students and inspire the best in all stakeholders. The purpose behind superintendent leadership practices will not be understood if the stakeholders being served are not involved in the process and if those being led are not passionate about fulfilling the commitment.

Implications for Further Study

1. This researcher recommends the inclusion of socioeconomic indicators such as percentage of economically disadvantaged students in a study for the relationship between student performance and superintendent leadership practices. This may reveal effective leadership practices by comparing the performance of schools with a greater percentage of economically disadvantaged students. Possible student performance gaps between the schools may reveal significant differences in superintendent leadership practices.
2. Perhaps an increase in sample size by studying multiple Education Service Center Regions will create a greater database and may allow for a more extensive comparison of schools with similar student populations.
3. The inclusion of a superintendent's length of time in the current position may provide a greater indication of leadership effectiveness in student performance.

Some superintendents simply may not have had time to truly impact student performance, but were effectively practicing all five leadership domains.

4. Including a qualitative study on school culture and climate with this study by collecting student and observer input may allow more insight to the leadership effectiveness in the relationship between student performance and the perception of superintendent leadership practices.

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APPENDIX A
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY—SELF

LPI_{SELF}

Leadership Practices Inventory

by JAMES M. KOUZES
& BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS

Write your name in the space provided at the top of the next page. Below your name, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE on the right, ask yourself:

“How frequently do I engage in the behavior described?”

- Be realistic about the extent to which you *actually* engage in the behavior.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave
- DO answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behavior. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply to you, it's probably because you don't frequently engage in the behavior. In that case, assign a rating of 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every statement must have a rating.*

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

- | | | |
|----|---|-----------------|
| 1 | = | Almost Never |
| 2 | = | Rarely |
| 3 | = | Seldom |
| 4 | = | Once in a While |
| 5 | = | Occasionally |
| 6 | = | Sometimes |
| 7 | = | Fairly Often |
| 8 | = | Usually |
| 9 | = | Very Frequently |
| 10 | = | Almost Always |

When you have completed the LPI-Self, please return it to:

Thank you.

Your Name: _____

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

1.	I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	<input type="text"/>
2.	I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	<input type="text"/>
3.	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	<input type="text"/>
4.	I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.	<input type="text"/>
5.	I praise people for a job well done.	<input type="text"/>
6.	I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.	<input type="text"/>
7.	I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.	<input type="text"/>
8.	I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	<input type="text"/>
9.	I actively listen to diverse points of view.	<input type="text"/>
10.	I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	<input type="text"/>
11.	I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.	<input type="text"/>
12.	I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	<input type="text"/>
13.	I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	<input type="text"/>
14.	I treat others with dignity and respect.	<input type="text"/>
15.	I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.	<input type="text"/>
16.	I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.	<input type="text"/>
17.	I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	<input type="text"/>
18.	I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	<input type="text"/>
19.	I support the decisions that people make on their own.	<input type="text"/>
20.	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	<input type="text"/>
21.	I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	<input type="text"/>
22.	I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	<input type="text"/>
23.	I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	<input type="text"/>
24.	I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	<input type="text"/>
25.	I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.	<input type="text"/>
26.	I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.	<input type="text"/>
27.	I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	<input type="text"/>
28.	I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.	<input type="text"/>
29.	I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	<input type="text"/>
30.	I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	<input type="text"/>

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APPENDIX B
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY—OBSERVER

LPI OBSERVER

Leadership Practices Inventory

by JAMES M. KOUZES
& BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS

You are being asked by the person whose name appears at the top of the next page to assess his or her leadership behaviors. Below the person's name you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE on the right, ask yourself:

“How frequently does this person engage in the behavior described?”

When selecting your response to each statement:

- Be realistic about the extent to which this person *actually* engages in the behavior.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave.
- DO answer in terms of how this person typically behaves on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving this person 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of his or her behavior. Similarly, giving someone all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply, it's probably because you don't see or experience the behavior. That means this person does not frequently engage in the behavior, at least around you. In that case, assign a rating of 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement *must* have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

- | | | |
|----|---|-----------------|
| 1 | = | Almost Never |
| 2 | = | Rarely |
| 3 | = | Seldom |
| 4 | = | Once in a While |
| 5 | = | Occasionally |
| 6 | = | Sometimes |
| 7 | = | Fairly Often |
| 8 | = | Usually |
| 9 | = | Very Frequently |
| 10 | = | Almost Always |

When you have completed the LPI-Observer, please return it to:

Thank you.

Name of Leader: _____

I (the Observer) am This Leader's (Check one): Manager Direct Report Co-Worker Other

To what extent does this leader typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

He or She:

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

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APPENDIX C

KOUZES POSNER PERMISSION LETTER

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL

15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030
FAX: (408) 354-9170

February 15, 2005

Mr. Fred Brent
4319 Rue Des Fleurs
Orange, Texas 77632

Dear Fred:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

- (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
- (2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
- (3) That one (1) bound copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent promptly to our attention; and,
- (4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

Signed:

Date:

APPENDIX D
PARTICIPATION INFORMATION—SELF

Participant Information
Self

Please place a check in the appropriate space provided.

1. Gender M F
2. Ethnicity African American Hispanic Asian
 White Other
3. Role in Public Education Administrator Teacher Business
Leader
(May check more than one)
 Parent Paraprofessional Clerical
4. Age 20-30 31-40 41-50 50+
5. Public Education Experience 0-10 11-20 21-30 31-40
 41+

Please give yourself an overall rating to indicate your performance as a leader.

Above Average Average Below Average

APPENDIX E
PARTICIPATION INFORMATION--OBSERVER

APPENDIX F
LETTER TO SUPERINTENDENTS

FRED BRENT
1524 Felder
Navasota, TX. 77868
(936) 825-8565

September 19, 2005

Dear Superintendent,

I am a doctoral student at Texas A&M University under the supervision of Dr. John Hoyle in Educational Administration. I am also the principal of Navasota High School in Navasota ISD. I am presently conducting a research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree and I am requesting your assistance with my project. **This is a second request for your districts' participation; please help me complete this study.**

I am studying the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected members of the district education improvement committee. I am asking all Region V superintendents and five members of each district education improvement committee to participate in this study. All that is required for participation is the completion of a questionnaire. Your responses are confidential and are vital to the accuracy of this research.

A copy of the questionnaire is enclosed. I ask that you take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. A coding system is being used to track responses. Once the data is collected, the identification link between questionnaire and respondent will be destroyed and the questionnaires will be stored in a secure container. **This packet contains a survey for your completion and a packet to be forwarded to your DEIC committee chairman. Please return the questionnaire in the envelope provided by September 30, 2005.**

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important project. Your participation is critical for the completion of my study and your help is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Fred Brent
Graduate Student
Department of Educational Administration
and Human Resource Development
Texas A&M University

Enclosure

APPENDIX G
LETTER TO SITE-BASED DECISION MAKING
COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

FRED BRENT
1524 Felder
Navasota, TX. 77868
(936) 825-8565

September 19, 2005

Dear District Site Based Decision Making Committee Chairman,

I am a doctoral student at Texas A&M University under the supervision of Dr. John Hoyle in Educational Administration. I am also the principal of Navasota High School in Navasota ISD. I am presently conducting a research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree and I am requesting your assistance with my project. **This is a second request for your districts' participation; please help me complete this study.**

I am studying the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected members of the district education improvement committee. I am asking all Region V superintendents and five members of each district education improvement committee to participate in this study. All that is required for participation is the completion of a questionnaire. Your responses are confidential and are vital to the accuracy of this research.

This packet contains five copies of the questionnaire. I ask that you take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete one of the enclosed questionnaires and distribute the remaining four to other SBDM committee members. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. A coding system is being used to track responses. Once the data is collected, the identification link between questionnaire and respondent will be destroyed and the questionnaires will be stored in a secure container. **Please return your questionnaire in the envelope provided by September 30, 2005.**

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important study. Your participation is critical for the completion of this study.

Sincerely,

Fred Brent
Graduate Student
Department of Educational Administration
and Human Resource Development
Texas A&M University

Enclosure

APPENDIX H
LETTER TO SITE-BASED DECISION MAKING
COMMITTEE MEMBER

FRED BRENT
1524 Felder
Navasota, Tx. 77868
(936) 825-8565

September 19, 2005

Dear District Site Based Decision Making Committee Member,

I am a doctoral student at Texas A&M University under the supervision of Dr. John Hoyle in Educational Administration. I am also the principal of Navasota High School in Navasota ISD. I am presently conducting a research project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree and I am requesting your assistance with my project.

I am studying the relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected members of the district education improvement committee. I am asking all Region V superintendents and five members of each district education improvement committee to participate in this study. All that is required for participation is the completion of a questionnaire. Your responses are confidential and are vital to the accuracy of this research.

A copy of the questionnaire is enclosed. I ask that you take approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire. A coding system is being used to track responses. Once the data is collected, the identification link between questionnaire and respondent will be destroyed and the questionnaires will be stored in a secure container. **Please return the questionnaire in the envelope provided by [date].**

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important study. I greatly appreciate your help.

Sincerely,

Fred Brent
Graduate Student
Department of Educational Administration
and Human Resource Development
Texas A&M University

Enclosure

APPENDIX I
INFORMATION SHEET

Information Sheet

The relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and selected District Education Improvement Committee (DEIC) members in school districts in Region V Education Service Center (ESC), TEXAS.

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a relationship between student performance and leadership practices as perceived by superintendents and DEIC members in Region V ESC school districts. Because you are either a superintendent or a DEIC member in Region V, you have been asked to participate in a research study regarding the leadership practices of superintendents in Region V ESC as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

- A total of 30 superintendents have been asked to participate in this study.
- A total of 150 DEIC members have been asked to participate in this study.
- This study is the topic of a record of study.
- This study is confidential and your responses will be kept private.
- If you agree to be in this study you will be asked to complete a survey that will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.
- Survey instruments will be distributed to participants through the mail.
- There will be a two-week time span for the instruments to be completed.
- Survey questions on the survey will be based on leadership practices.
- You are free to withdraw from this study without negative consequences.
- You can refuse to answer any question.
- No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published.
- Research records will be stored securely and only Fred Brent will have access to the records.
- You can contact Fred Brent at 936-825-8565 or Dr. John Hoyle at 979-845-2748 with any questions about this study.
- Fred Brent can also be reached at 1524 Felder, Navasota, Tx. 77868 (fredbrent@neo.tamu.edu).
- Dr. John Hoyle can also be reached at College of Education and Human Development, 4222 TAMU, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas 77843-4222 (jhoyle@tamu.edu).
- This research study has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board-Human Subjects in Research, Texas A&M University. For research related problems or questions regarding subjects' rights, you can contact the institutional Review Board at (979) 458-4067.

- You have read the above information. You have asked questions and have received answers to your satisfaction. By returning this instrument you hereby agree to participate in this research.

VITA

Name: Fred Martin Brent

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Navasota, TX 77868

Email Address: fbrent@ascisd.net

Education: B.S., Health and Physical Education, Oklahoma City University
M.Ed., Educational Administration, Lamar University
Ed.D., Educational Administration, Texas A&M University

Professional Experience: Superintendent, Anderson-Shiro CISD, Anderson, TX, 2006 – Present
Principal, Navasota High School, Navasota, TX, 2005 – 2006
Principal, Orangefield High School, Orangefield, TX, 2002 – 2005
Principal, Mauriceville Middle School, Little Cypress – Mauriceville CISD, Orange, TX, 2001 – 2002
Assistant Principal, Orangefield High School, Orangefield, TX, 1998 – 2002
Assistant Principal, Mauriceville Middle School, Little Cypress – Mauriceville CISD, Orange, TX, 1996 – 1998
Adaptive Physical Education, Little Cypress – Mauriceville CISD, Orange, TX, 1995 – 1996
World Geography Teacher, Hefner Middle School, Putnam City ISD, Oklahoma City, OK, 1993 – 1995
Physical Education Teacher, Wiley Post Elementary, Putnam City ISD, Oklahoma City, OK, 1991 – 1993

The typist for this dissertation was Mr. Bill A. Ashworth, Jr.