

Winter 11-29-2018

A Case Study of the Perceptions of Teacher Job Satisfaction Working Under a Transformational and Distributed Leadership Style

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Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Doctorate of Education Program

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A Case Study of the Perceptions of Teacher Job
Satisfaction Working Under a Transformational and
Distributed Leadership Style

James A. Diaz

Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the College of Education

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in

Transformational Leadership

John Mendes, Ed.D., Faculty Chair Dissertation Committee

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Concordia University–Portland

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Abstract

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership style at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The research was conducted on a campus that has a total teaching staff of 170 and serves approximately 2,000 socioeconomically and racially diverse students. The sample consisted of 15 teachers, approximately one third of the purposive sample pool, with 1–6 years of teaching experience. For each participant, a preinterview open-ended questionnaire, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and a semistructured in-person interview provided data. The research results showed that teachers reported high levels of self-efficacy working in a transformational and distributed leadership style, viewing both leadership behaviors and practices as positively impacting their job satisfaction. Professional learning communities (PLCs) were seen as both positive and negative as vehicles for transformational and distributed leadership depending on how they were implemented. Overall, teachers stated that they felt encouraged to remain in the profession of teaching and that they felt encouraged to continue teaching at the study site because of the leadership styles.

Keywords: transformational leadership, distributed leadership, professional learning communities, teacher retention

Dedication

I wholeheartedly dedicate this work to my family, for teaching me that nothing of consequence is ever accomplished alone, and more specifically to my wife, Roxanne, whose love and support carried me through this entire process. I am forever grateful.

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Above all else, I am thankful to God, from whom every good and perfect thing comes. Without Him, nothing is possible; with Him, nothing is impossible. His favor rests upon me. To my wife, Roxanne Diaz: Words cannot express my gratitude to you for walking with me through my doctorate. You are my biggest cheerleader and my best friend. Whatever I accomplish is only because you fight alongside me, and whatever success I find is better when I share it with you. I love you, Bella. To my parents, Richard and Blanche Diaz: I am eternally thankful to you for your encouragement through all my educational endeavors. You have always believed in me, even before I did. I am proud to carry your name. To my sister and brother, Karen Gonzales and Allen Diaz: Thank you for supporting my crazy dreams. I appreciate how you always love and encourage me even though I can be difficult. Most importantly, thank you for keeping me humble. To my good friend and cohort member Hector Esquivel: Thank you for challenging me to complete my doctorate and for keeping me motivated through difficult moments. You are a great leader and person of deep faith; and I am a better man and husband for knowing you. Last, but not least, I would like to thank the members of my dissertation committee: Dr. John Mendes, for positivity and constant encouragement; Dr. Patricia Easley, for insight and constructive feedback; and Dr. Monica Nagy, for support and contributions to my work. I sincerely appreciate your collective wisdom and grace in guiding me through this entire process.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction to the Problem

Leadership plays a crucial role in many professions, but especially in a challenging and high-stakes job such as teaching. School leadership impacts many aspects of the educational environment but plays a particularly critical role in teacher job satisfaction and teachers' decisions to stay or leave the profession entirely (Pepper & Thomas, 2002; Watlington, Shockley, Guglielmino, & Felsher, 2010). Accordingly, the rate of teacher attrition has become not only a focus professional concern but also an issue of concentration in research (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Palmer & Van Wyk, 2012, 2013; Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). Simply stated, excessive teacher turnover can have steep costs in terms of student achievement and actual monetary impact on schools for a potentially never-ending process of new teacher training (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future [NCTAF], 2003).

For Texas, teacher attrition has long been a serious problem, which was highlighted by a report from the Texas State Board for Educator Certification (2000), citing a state turnover rate of 15.5%. As such, entire school districts in Texas lose an estimated 329 million dollars for a teacher turnover rate of 15.5%. Most recently, the Alliance for Excellent Education, a national nonprofit committed to improving kindergarten through twelfth grade (K–12) educational outcomes based in Washington, DC, published *On the Path to Equity: Improving the Effectiveness of Beginning Teachers* (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014), a report that examined the 500,000 U.S. teachers who leave the profession each year. According to the report, teacher attrition costs the United States up to 2.2 billion dollars annually, with the high turnover rate disproportionately affecting high-poverty schools. In smaller states, such as Delaware and Vermont, the cost estimates are 2 million dollars, but in Texas, the cost is up to

235 million dollars (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2014, p. 14). Turnover is especially high among new teachers, with 40–50% leaving the profession after five years, according to research cited in the report. Texas continues to deal with the high financial burden associated with high teacher turnover, and an even higher cost in student achievement.

Considering the effect of leadership on teachers, this study examined the impact of transformational and distributed leadership practices on teacher job satisfaction in a large comprehensive high school in rural South-Central Texas. This introductory chapter is organized with the following sections: (a) background of the study; (b) problem statement; (c) purpose of the study; (d) research questions; (e) significance of the study; (f) rationale for methodology; (g) nature of the research design for the study; (h) definition of terms; and (i) assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. The chapter ends with an overview of the entire study.

Background of the Study

Research shows that leaders are perceived to be more influential if the followers in their organization see leadership characteristics exhibited from their behavior (Lord & Maher, 1993). Followers' perceptions of a leader's effectiveness thus become important indicators of leadership effectiveness (in a school or otherwise). In studies on transformational and distributed leadership, transformational behaviors and practices are often considered to result in the perceived effectiveness and satisfaction by followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Implications of transformational and distributed leadership practices for teachers thus require further study, because teachers' practices can inspire greater followership, commitment, and overall effort in a principal's enacted vision for a school. Transformational and distributed leadership practices are largely considered to make a school more effective and teachers more satisfied with their jobs. However, there is very little

qualitative evidence at the high school level for these two practices in tandem for teachers within the United States. The two conceptual frameworks that structured this study are transformational learning and distributed leadership, because they both simultaneously enhance the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013) and involve leading communities of learning without requiring rigid organizational hierarchy or formal leadership duties.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined the perceptions of job satisfaction of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model in a large comprehensive high school in rural South-Central Texas. The main problem is that low teacher job satisfaction is correlated with teachers seeking to leave the teaching profession in general (Eldred, 2010, p. 3). Teachers often leave teaching due to job dissatisfaction combined with desires to find a better career (Ingersoll, 2001). These combined reasons account for 42% of teachers leaving teaching in general (Ingersoll, 2001). The numbers reveal that the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction are “low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over schoolwide and classroom decision making” (Menon, 2014, p. 522). Most importantly, research states that “teachers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness and teachers’ overall job satisfaction are found to be significantly linked to principal leadership behaviors” (Menon, 2014, p. 509).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. Teachers are a critical piece of the

puzzle in the educational system and their job satisfaction level is extremely important to the success levels of students. According to Anderson (2004), teacher job satisfaction levels are important to their overall commitment, as well as to the productivity of the school (p. 110). This study addresses a gap in the research regarding the simultaneous use of transformational and distributed leadership practices and teacher perceptions at the high school level in the United States generally and the state of Texas specifically.

Research Questions

The research was guided by the following research questions: (a) What are teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices? (b) How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction? (c) How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction? and (d) What are teachers' feelings toward administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates?

Significance of the Study

The study of leadership as a reason for teachers leaving the profession of teaching is important because of the negative economic and academic impacts on schools, communities, and the nation from ongoing recruitment, training, and development of new educators. This research inspected the existing base of knowledge regarding teacher perceptions of transformational and distributed leadership practices at the high school level and the overall associated with these practices in the United States. The study also adds to the societal and practical significance of school leadership at the secondary level, teacher retention in schools, and the greater field of teaching. The study results may be used to design principal training programs that better prepare new and existing school administrators in the simultaneous use of transformational and

distributed leadership practices for teacher job satisfaction, positive teacher retention, and maximization of educational outcomes for students.

Rationale for the Methodology

A qualitative research method was selected for this study because the researcher sought to understand the experience of how people see their world (Ashworth, 2015). This type of research centers on developing an in-depth and detailed understanding of a phenomenon based on rich and detailed data from subjective experiences and perceptions of individuals who are willing to share their stories with a researcher (McMillan, 2012). A qualitative approach was appropriate because it allowed the researcher to explore the perceptions of teachers relating to leadership practices at the research site. The researcher presented an in-depth understanding of the case by collecting and integrating many forms of qualitative data, ranging from (structured or semistructured) interviews to artifacts (documents). The nature of collecting rich data required a narrower focus on a population on specific events that are described first-hand for exploration in depth to garner a deeper understanding of the entire context of the study.

Nature of the Research Design for the Study

The qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study design was chosen for this study because of the malleable methodology provided for in educational research, where the lines between phenomena and context are not immediately clear (Yin, 2014). In addition, a case study allows a researcher to focus on processes, meaning, and understanding that cannot easily be identified using numerical data (Merriam, 1998). Researchers in a case study focus on the contextualized lived experiences of participants through a sustained process of slowly uncovering their unique perspectives (Tracy, 2013). The single-embedded design refers to an embedded case study within a larger case (Yin, 2014). Also, embedded case studies contain

more than one subunit of analysis (Yin, 2003). These types of case studies integrate quantitative and qualitative methods into a single research study (Scholz & Tietje, 2002; Yin, 2003).

When considering other research designs, a phenomenological methodology was not selected for this study because phenomenology focuses primarily on subjects' experiences instead of their perceptions, views, and beliefs (Van Manen, 2014). Likewise, grounded theory was not appropriate because the design stressed theory creation and its deliberate negation of initial guiding theoretical frameworks (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). There are two conceptual frameworks that structure this study through a particular set of lenses: transformational learning and distributed leadership.

The study used three measures to triangulate data: a preliminary four-question open-ended response questionnaire, semistructured interviews, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995); also known as the MLQ or MQ5. The target population consisted of teachers at the research site. Purposeful sampling yielded 15 participating teachers, approximately one third of the projected total sample pool. To the greatest extent possible, the sample represented teachers with diverse service years from throughout the study site. After data were gathered, an evaluation was conducted through thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2014).

Definition of Terms

Distributed Leadership

Closely associated with transformational leadership, and also called shared/participative leadership, distributed leadership is the process where a leader establishes a democratic network where organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

Large Comprehensive High School

A comprehensive high school serves all the needs of students in a given community, regardless of socioeconomic status, ability, gender, race, sexual orientation, or nationality (Copa & Pease, 1992) and offers more than one course of specialization in its program of study, such as college preparatory, remedial, science, and vocational courses. The adjective *large* refers to the state of Texas's governing University Interscholastic League's high school classification system of 1A through 6A (University Interscholastic League Texas, 2017). *Large* implies high schools in the 5A–6A grouping, which have 2,100–6,000 enrolled students.

Participative Leadership

Closely aligned with, and often referred to as, distributed leadership, participative leadership is the process of a leader creating democratic networks where influence and power are distributed or shared when making decisions that are aligned with a common organizational vision; members in the organization support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

Permanent White Water

Permanent white water refers to the simultaneous and often competing demands present in an increasingly turbulent and changing school environment, where modern leadership must still operate to meet both student and teacher development needs (Razik & Swanson, 2010; Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

Professional Learning Community

Professional learning communities (PLCs) are collaborations among all educators in a building who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student learning to increase

achievement and are often referred to as “communities of practice” and “self-managing teams” (Schmoker, 2006, p. 106).

Teacher Retention

Teacher retention and *teacher turnover* are the overarching terms used describe “the departure of teachers from their teaching jobs” (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 500). Ingersoll (2001) also used *attrition* to explain teachers leaving the profession all together (p. 503).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to a relationship between a leader and the leader’s followers where the followers offer compliance to the leader and receive tangible rewards in return, but there is little to no consideration for any individual follower or organizational changes and developments (Burns, 1978).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a set of practices that enhances the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013).

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Based on the selected research methodology, theoretical framework, and research focus, the following assumptions of the study were identified: (a) all participants were honest in their responses to the preinterview questions, semistructured interview questions, and MLQ and (b) transformational and distributed leadership was occurring at the study site in some capacity and provides a theoretical foundation for viewing subject perceptions related to teacher retention. The primary limitation of this case study was the small sample size. The study focused on one school with 15 teacher participants and cannot be generalized because data gathered were limited

only to the perceptions and experiences of the participants. The use of the MLQ also presented a limitation because it is the most frequently used instrument for gauging Bass and Avolio's full-range leadership model, which is commonly used for measuring transformational leadership (Barnett, Craven, & Marsh, 2005; Geijsel, Slegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2013; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Silins, Mulford, & Zarins, 2002; Tucker, Bass, & Daniel, 1992). It is important to note that while the MLQ is widely used in the western hemisphere, there is still more research that needs to be conducted in the eastern hemisphere to determine its reliability within different cultures (Menon, 2014). In addition, constraints of the researcher's job created time limitations on the collection of data.

Two delimitations were identified. First, the study was delimited to teachers with 0–6 years of teaching experience because studies have shown that anywhere from 30% to 50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll, 2003; C. Wilson, 2000); 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). Second, the study was delimited to preinterview questions, semistructured interviews, and a questionnaire. The use of these three data collection tools was sufficient to gain in-depth information about the phenomena in question being studied.

Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The problem is that low teacher job satisfaction is correlated with teachers seeking to leave the teaching profession in general (Eldred, 2010). More poignantly, research states that “teachers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness and teachers’ overall job satisfaction are found to be significantly linked to principal leadership behaviors” (Menon, 2014, p. 509). According to Anderson (2004), teacher job satisfaction levels are important to their overall commitment, as

well as to the productivity of the school (p. 110). The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study is to explore perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. In addition, there currently is a lack of research at the high school level on the simultaneous use of transformational and distributed leadership practices and teacher perceptions in the United States generally and the state of Texas specifically.

Chapter 2, the literature review, includes discussion on transformational and distributed learning, the nature of teacher retention in schools, and how PLCs reflect leadership approaches and factor into teacher efficacy. The chapter concludes with a review and critique of related studies. Chapter 3 presents the methodological plan of the study and outlines the research methods and design, sampling procedure, data collection, data analysis, validity, limitations, and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 provides the results of the study and includes a detailed explanation of the source of the data. Chapter 5 summarizes the influential research used to support this study, discusses the common themes that emerged from this research, and concludes by offering recommendations for implementing transformational and distributed practices to improve teacher retention and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction to the Literature Review

The research associated with education as a profession often compares the career of teaching to that of a revolving door (Ingersoll, 2002) because of high personnel turnover (Ingersoll, 2001). Accordingly, the rate of teacher attrition has recently become a focus of not only professional concern but research as well (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Palmer & Van Wyk, 2012, 2013; Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). Teachers often report low job satisfaction and leave the profession due to (a) the perception of little to no community in a school organization, (b) little to no professional growth, and (c) a lack of shared or participatory leadership; all are key ingredients in a positive school climate (Pepper & Thomas, 2002; Watlington et al., 2010). This study examined the impact of transformational and distributed leadership practices on teacher job satisfaction in a large comprehensive high school in rural South-Central Texas. This chapter explores the practices of transformational and distributed leadership in school organizations and their effect and impact on teacher perceptions regarding teacher retention. The available literature on teacher retention associated with transformational and distributed leadership practices was analyzed and used as the foundation for this study.

The Study Topic

The obligations and responsibilities of a school principal today are more numerous than ever and have increased from the traditional duties of a school principal. The traditional job of a campus principal was to design, systemize, lead, and oversee all activities on a campus (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1999). Today's school leaders are expected to be visionaries, administrators, motivators, and leaders of instruction (Danielson, 2007). Recent research on school leadership has examined the link between many different leadership practices and

educational outcomes. There is evidence to suggest that distributed and transformational leadership practices can have a positive effect on the educational outcome of teachers job satisfaction (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Silins et al., 2002). However, research on the simultaneous implementation of transformational and distributed leadership practices and their impact at the high school level on teacher perceptions for the purpose of teacher retention remains sparse, particularly in the state of Texas and the United States more generally.

Context of the Literature Review

Leaders are perceived to be more influential if their followers perceive leadership characteristics in their behavior (Lord & Maher, 1993). Followers' perceptions of their leader's effectiveness are therefore important indicators of the leader's effectiveness. In research on transformational and distributed leadership, transformational behaviors and practices are often considered to result in the perceived effectiveness and satisfaction by followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1985; Lowe et al., 1996). Implications of transformational and distributed leadership practices for teachers can be positive because they inspire greater followership with, commitment to, and overall effort for a principal's vision. Consequently, transformational, and distributed leadership practices are both largely considered to make teachers more satisfied with their jobs, thus making a school more effective for the success of students. However, there is very little qualitative evidence, for teachers at the high school level, of these two practices in tandem within the United States.

Significance of the Study

The topic of leadership as a catalyst for teachers leaving the profession of teaching may be significant due to the adverse economic and academic costs for schools, communities, and the

nation of continual recruitment, training, and development of a new educators. This research examined the existing base of knowledge regarding teacher perceptions of transformational and distributed leadership practices at the high school level and its specific culture in the United States. This study also contributes to the societal and practical significance of high school leadership and teacher retention in schools and the greater field of teaching. The study results may be used to design principal training programs that better prepare new and existing school administrators in the combined use of both transformational and distributed leadership practices for teacher job satisfaction, positive teacher retention, and maximization of educational outcomes for students.

Problem Statement

This study examined the perceptions of teacher job satisfaction of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model in a large comprehensive high school in rural South-Central Texas. The problem is that low teacher job satisfaction is correlated with teachers seeking to leave the teaching profession in general (Eldred, 2010, p. 3). Teachers often leave teaching due to job dissatisfaction coupled with desires to find a better career (Ingersoll, 2001). This combination accounts for 42% of teachers who leave the profession of teaching in general (Ingersoll, 2001). The numbers reveal that the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction are “low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over schoolwide and classroom decision making” (Menon, 2014, p. 522). Most importantly, research states that “teachers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness and teachers’ overall job satisfaction are found to be significantly linked to principal leadership behaviors” (Menon, 2014, p. 509). The Alliance for Excellent Education, in partnership with the New Teacher Center, found that approximately “13 percent of the nation’s 3.4 million teachers

move schools or leave the profession every year, costing states up to \$2 billion” (Haynes, Maddock, & Goldrick, 2014, p. 1). Furthermore, “researchers estimate that over 1 million teachers move in and out of schools annually, and between 40 and 50 percent quit within five years” (Haynes et al., 2014, p. 1).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. Teachers are an important piece of the overall educational system and their job satisfaction level is extremely important to the success level of students. According to Anderson (2004), teachers’ job satisfaction levels are important to their overall commitment, as well as the productivity of the school (p. 110). In addition, there currently is a lack of research on the simultaneous use of transformational and distributed leadership practices and teacher perceptions at the high school level in the United States generally and the state of Texas specifically.

Conceptual Framework

There are two conceptual frameworks that structure this study through a particular set of lenses: transformational leadership and distributed leadership.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership comprises a set of practices that enhance the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013). Thus, transformational leadership is characterized by a clear focus on the role of leadership in the development of followers

(Dansereau, Yammarino, & Markham, 1995). It is the clear focus on the development of followers that most distinguishes transformational leadership from transactional leadership.

The difference between transactional and transformational leadership is attributed to Downton (1973) but is often tied to Burns's (1978) work on political leaders. According to Burns, a division can be seen between the two types of leadership:

1. Transactional leadership is formulated on the relationship between a leader and the leader's followers. The followers offer compliance to the leader and receive tangible rewards in return. The idea is that transactional leaders interact with their followers with little to no consideration for any individual and or organizational changes and developments.

2. Transformational leadership occurs when leaders interact with their followers in ways that increase their motivation and creativity in an organization (Burns, 1978). As such, transformational leaders engage their followers by concentrating on driving their intrinsic self-assurance and motivation. This means that, in contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership does not attempt to maintain the status quo but instead offers an incentive for invention and change (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Transformational leaders motivate others to achieve more than they had originally considered or intended by creating a supportive organizational climate where follower's desires and differences are recognized and appreciated (Bass, 1998). The creation of trust and respect thus inspires followers to work collectively toward accomplishing shared goals.

Burn's (1978) ideas were the precursor to the conceptual framework in the work of Bass (1985). Building on Burns, Bass (1985) created a model of his own on transformational leadership through the examination of the behavior of leaders in private and public sector organizations by studying business, military, and educational organizations. According to Bass

and others, transformational and transactional types of leadership are at once unconnected and codependent (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985). As such, the concept is different from that of Burns, who looked at transactional and transformational leadership as opposites on a pendulum: The leader was either transactional or transformational with nothing in between.

Bass (1985) offered five factors that make up the primary mechanisms of transformational leadership behavior:

1. *Attributed idealized influence* is the degree to which followers consider leaders to be trustworthy and charismatic with a clear and attainable mission and a vision.

2. *Idealized influence as behavior* is the actual leader behavior, characterized by values and a sense of purpose, which in turn allows followers to identify with leaders and try to follow their example.

3. *Inspirational motivation* is linked to leader actions which inspire followers by providing them with meaning and challenges. Leaders project hope and optimism for the future, thus enhancing commitment and motivation from followers.

4. *Intellectual stimulation* takes place by leaders encouraging followers to be creative and innovative in the organization. Followers are expected to be critical in relation to existing assumptions and traditions, but leaders and followers are open to a reexamination of their own beliefs and perspectives (placing a high value on improvement and change).

5. *Individualized consideration* refers to a situation where leaders focus on individual needs by relating to followers on a one-to-one basis. Followers are also encouraged to achieve personal goals and pursue their own development.

Studies on transformational leadership in school locales have not only extended the original thoughts of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), but also offered new conceptualizations. For

example, in the late 1980s and early 1990s, Leithwood et al. explored transformational leadership through studies in Canada (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). Basing their findings on both quantitative and qualitative investigations, they offered a concept of transformational leadership constructed on three types of leadership practices: setting directions, developing people, and redesigning the organization (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). These categories include nine dimensions, which are further divided into more detailed practices connected to the basis of a leader's work (Leithwood et al., 1999).

The interplay of leaders and followers in leadership practice promotes shared leadership as a viable practice to increase school capacity (Frost and Harris, 2003). Through transformational leadership, school administrators and teachers focus on a preferred, compelling vision, to motivate change inside and outside the classroom (Leithwood et al., 1999). For the school in the study, the principal and teachers believed that they could create a new system of collaboration to help students learn. The superintendent and teachers wanted to design an organizational system built on a common relationship of trust and desire to facilitate change through motivating and interactive classrooms (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). Additionally, Rost (1993) indicated that the leader can be a follower and a follower can be the leader by changing places to enhance the shared vision of the organization (Bennett et al., 2003).

This model of transformational leadership in schools conceptualized leadership in seven areas: school vision, school goals, intellectual stimulation and individualized support of best practices, organizational values, high performance expectations, productive school culture, and structures to foster participation in school decisions. Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2004) provided a model of leadership behavior to better follow the leader-follower relationship in the

context of situations and tasks related to organizational work. They crafted the model to analyze leadership structures, practices, and social interactions to strengthen leadership capacity.

Transformational leadership means interactive and reciprocal relationships among leaders and followers in a school organization. Rost (1993) wrote that "leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p. 102). The process of change and the creation of a common purpose are tied to moral purpose (Fullan, 2001). Leaders and followers use moral purpose as a compass to guide their daily practice and decision-making (Lambert, 1998; Schlechty, 1997).

Ideal transformational leadership practices are characterized by (a) establishing a vision and mission, (b) instilling confidence and pride in the vision and mission, (c) acquiring trust, (d) establishing mutual respect, and (e) exciting self-confidence (Pounder, 2008). Leaders within this model are often characterized as charismatic and represent a strong role model within the organization. These leaders appear confident, articulate ideological goals with moral overtones, communicate high expectations and increase followers' self-confidence, and arouse followers' motives. Eventually, transformational leadership eliminates the need for extrinsic rewards by influencing followers to be intrinsically motivated because they view their work as valuable and a reflection of themselves (Northouse, 2013).

The research indicates a positive correlation between transformational leadership practices and desirable leadership outcomes (Pounder, 2008). For example, employees tend to view transformational leaders as effective, rewarding, and caring (Bass, 1998). In addition, transformational leadership practices produce greater outcomes compared to traditional, or transactional, leadership styles. Although a school has the capacity to reach its goals through a

traditional top-down leadership implementation, an organization can surpass its goals through transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Distributed or Participative Leadership

First, it is important to note that the descriptions of distributed leadership found in the literature often focus on its association to transformational leadership. Timperley (2005) wrote that the issue is the question of “whether one is a sub-set of the other, and if so, which is a sub-set of which” (p. 397). Distributed leadership is also often called shared or participative leadership and is the process by which a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). However, Gibb (1954) first coined the term, *distributed leadership*, an Australian psychologist who studied the dynamics of influence processes as they influenced different work groups (Gronn, 2000).

Gronn (2000) points to Gibb (1954) as the first author to specifically refer to distributed leadership as “leadership . . . best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group” (Gibb, as cited in Gronn, 2000, p. 324). Gibb viewed leadership as needing to be shared among many people in an organization and not simply as the monopoly of one individual. From this beginning, a belief has gradually spread in education that leadership should be a group characteristic.

In terms of a rooted theory, Harris (2009) offered that it “is an idea that can be traced back as far as the mid-20s and possibly earlier” (p. 13). However, Gibb made clear differentiations between “two forms of distribution: the overall numerical frequency of the acts contributed by each group member,” and “the multiplicity or pattern of group functions

performed” (Gibb, as cited in Gronn, 2000, p. 324). Gronn’s differentiations between numerical and concrete actions reflect an essential understanding of subsequent theoretical developments in the distributed leadership field.

Gronn (2000) proposed that the notion of distributed leadership “lay dormant until its resurrection by Brown and Hosking (1986)” (p. 324) due to the desire for an understanding of “‘new leadership’, founded on ‘transformational’ and/or ‘charismatic’ leadership by senior executives, that dominated scholarly and practitioner literature during this period” (Bolden, 2011, p. 252). During this period, some important conceptual developments were accomplished that paved the way for later work. For example, Spillane et al. (2004) identified activity theory and distributed cognition as the theoretical underpinnings of their understanding of distributed leadership.

The first concept relates to thought and experience as integrally connected to the physical, social, and cultural context in which they occur; the second concept relates to how “human activity is enabled and constrained by individual, material, cultural and social factors” (Bolden, 2011, p. 253). The next big impact on distributed leadership theory was from Leithwood et al. (2007), who underlined the importance of organizational learning theory (Hutchins, 1995; Weick & Roberts, 1993), distributed cognition (Kerr & Jermier, 1997; Perkins, 1993; Salomon, 1993), complexity science (for reviews, see Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007; Osborn & Hunt, 2007), and high-involvement leadership (Yukl, 2002).

Lipman-Blumen (1996) pointed to growing global interdependence and general calls for increasing inclusion and diversity as two driving causes that point to the boundaries of more “individualistic understandings of leadership” (as cited in Bolden, 2011, p. 253). The author argued that society was growing too complex for a simple leader-centric approach. As the

complexity grows, “the belief that leadership is best considered a group quality has [also] gradually gained widespread acceptance in the field of education” (Menon, 2011, p. 3). Harris, Leithwood, Day, Sammons, and Hopkins (2007) discussed distributed leadership as the leadership idea in vogue, and Gronn (2000) talks about the concept as newly arrived on the scene. Spillane et al. (2004) also wrote about leadership as a distributed practice of sorts. However, Spillane (2006) talked about the work being done in cognitive psychology that focuses on distributed cognition and the role of the social context as a major influence on human learning and behavior.

Both Gronn’s (2000) and Spillane’s (2006) views of distributed leadership tried to create a coherent theoretical foundation for the distributed cognitive idea of leadership. However, their analyses differed (Timperley, 2005), in that Spillane et al. (2004) called leaders and followers the “actors in situations working with artefacts” (p. 9), but Gronn (2003) referred to this as “the idea of a bounded set of elements comprising the elements which is the focus of research” (p. 24). This is an important difference between the critical distinctions in the approaches of some authors when talking about distributed leadership. Distributed leadership carries many different meanings attached to it in literature (Mayrowetz, 2008; Woods, Bennett, Harvey, & Wise, 2004). However, *distributed leadership* is simply the phrase that is most often attached to any type of collaborative or shared leadership activity found in organizations (Harris et al., 2007).

A distributed leadership view may be used as a lens for examining school leadership and teacher job satisfaction. The view involves two features: the leader-plus aspect (i.e., who) and the practice aspect (i.e., how) (Menon, 2014). The leader-plus aspect recognizes that the work involved in leading communities of learning includes multiple individuals without a rigid organizational hierarchy or formal leadership duties. Within these open structures, leadership

practices that develop are inevitably the outcome of interactions between school leaders, followers, and their continually evolving situations (Spillane, Hunt, & Healy, 2008). From this view, the distributed view of leadership shifts again from just one school principal to other formal and informal leaders and stakeholders and their situations (Spillane & Diamond, 2007).

Participative leadership. Closely aligned with distributed leadership, and often referred to as *distributed leadership*, participative leadership is the process of a leader creating democratic networks in which influence and power are distributed or shared when making decisions that are aligned with a common organizational vision; members in the organization support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Leaders who practice participative leadership treat the organization as a democratic web of relationships with the overarching goal of creating an environment that addresses all the needs and desires of its stakeholders. A participative leader creates a healthy organization by exhibiting supportive behaviors, instituting group decision-making, and maintaining open communication and an open flow of information across all levels of the organization (Lorsch & Trooboff, 1989). The key here is that a leader's authority must still be evident, but a clearly shared power structure exists in all group decision-making and problem-solving (Lorsch & Trooboff, 1989). As a participative leader shares in the power structure and exhibits supportive behaviors, then the organization follows suit, usually according to clear and systematic plans that have been prepared for the modification of all other affected parts of the organization" (Lorsch & Trooboff, 1989, p. 74).

Modern schools operate in a complicated and competitively global world that requires leaders to have the ability to maneuver between a school's external and internal demands to meet both student and teacher development needs (Razik & Swanson, 2010; Somech & Wenderow,

2006). These simultaneous, and often competing demands, are a kind of “Permanent White Water . . . [or] complex, turbulent, changing environment in which we all are trying to operate” (Vaill, 1996, p. 4). Spelled out in clearer terms, *permanent white water* refers to the condition of today’s fast-paced, modern life as well as the foreseeable future, in which unstable environments are the norm. The main idea is that a leader’s main strategy for leading an organization is to continue learning while sharing leadership to cope with the extraordinary organizational and societal conditions that make up permanent white water (Vaill, 1996, p. 27). In response, the traditional relationship between principals and teachers is shifting to a collaborative one that invites all members of a school community to participate in the creation of a healthy school environment (Pepper & Thomas, 2002; Razik & Swanson, 2010; Somech, 2010). As such, schools will continue to evolve through the risk taking and shared leadership responsibilities that are a direct result of the fostered collaboration (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008).

Participative leadership practices are evident when a principal creates a clear framework for the decision-making process that explicitly aligns with his or her vision. A participative leader aligns decision-making for teachers by way of a collaboratively generated vision that is developed, preferably, with every member of an organization (Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Again, this approach to distributed leadership practice rests on teachers taking part in the decision-making process instead of relying on the traditional central leader (principal) to solve the complex issues (permanent white water) facing current day schools (Somech, 2010).

It is important to note that Somech and Wenderow (2006) also recognized that both top-down and participative practices can be equally effective in fostering productivity in employees. In fact, the researchers found that a participative leadership approach does yield positive results, but only to a small degree, whereas a directive-based approach encouraged teachers to rise to

challenging and high expectations (Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Directive-based leadership practices generate an atmosphere of clear directions and guidance for teachers that leads to clear benchmarks and goals for an organization to reach, and potentially exceed, expectations (Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

A prevailing belief in education is that participative leadership carries distinct benefits over the directive-based leadership (Somech & Wenderow, 2006). The facts are that participative and directive leadership practices are both associated with high outcomes, but a principal must understand how and when to implement both styles for greatest impact in an organization. Regardless, the literature reveals that both styles of leadership practice should be examined side by side, not independently, to fully understand their organizational influence. The leadership styles discussed in this section are compared in Table 1.

Review of Literature

The synthesis of empirical, theoretical, and systematic literature for this study was accomplished by classifying the factors associated with the perceptions of teacher job satisfaction within transformational and distributed leadership models in secondary schools. Transformational and distributed leadership was the theoretical lens that provided the research analysis. The theoretical analysis was strengthened by consideration of the role that teacher retention plays in low teacher job satisfaction and the common implementation of transformational and distributed leadership models via PLCs. A systematic synthesis of case studies and research was also conducted to compare possible successful remedies against the theoretical framework.

Table 1

Comparative Leadership Styles

Category	Leadership style			
	Transformational	Distributed	Participative	Transactional
Characteristics	Focused on the development of followers. Creates compelling vision to motivate change. Increases morale and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations.	Associated with transformational leadership; also called shared/participative leadership. Often attached to any collaborative and/or shared leadership activities. Establishes democratic networks. Decisions are aligned with common vision.	Often referred to as distributed leadership. Leader exhibits supportive behaviors, instituting group decision-making. Leadership maintaining an open communication and information flow across all levels of the organization.	Based on the relationship between a leader and follower(s). Leaders interact with followers with little consideration for any individual and/or organizational changes and developments.
Structure	Leader can be a follower, and a follower can be the leader. Leaders and followers share mutual trust and goals with moral overtones.	Relatively flat and/or open organizational structure. Influence and power are shared. Reflects group equality.	Democratic networks where influence and power are shared when making decisions clear and systematic structures exist.	The follower offers compliance to the leader and receives tangible rewards in return.
Value Add	Intellectual stimulation. Influencing followers to be intrinsically motivated. Trust and respect inspire followers to collectively work towards accomplishing shared goals.	Members support and learn from one another. Leadership is shared.	Members in the organization support one another and learn from one another. Leadership occurs as a group activity.	Sets clear directions and guidance for followers to meet goals. Clear leader and followers in organization.

Table 1 (cont.)

Leadership style				
Category	Transformational	Category	Transformational	Category
Challenges	Creating a supportive organizational climate where follower's desires and differences are recognized and appreciated. Can maintain status quo by offering incentives for invention and change.	Democratic nature of leadership sometimes clashes with formal leadership structures. Clear framework for decision-making process must exist.	Leader's authority must be evident for shared power structures and decision-making to effectively work. Clear framework for decision-making process must exist	Leadership is not necessarily concerned with developing followers as leaders. Power is not shared in organization, decisions largely centralized

Transformational Leadership

Research on school leadership has investigated the connections between several leadership models and their educational outcomes. Evidence does indicate that transformational leadership has a positive effect on some specific educational outcomes, such as leader effectiveness, teachers job satisfaction, and student achievement (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Silins et al., 2002).

Implications of transformational leadership for teachers can be positive because they inspire greater followership with, commitment to, and overall effort toward a principal's vision. Thus, the implementation of a transformational leadership model is largely considered to make a school more effective and teachers more satisfied with their jobs and more likely to remain in the profession of teaching. However, there is very little evidence at the high school level that supports this belief. The preliminary research on school leadership from Leithwood and Jantzi

(1990) and Leithwood, Jantzi, and Fernandez (1993) underlined the impact of transformational leadership practices and collaborative school cultures on school effectiveness.

The impact of transformational leadership and the connection between transformational and transactional leadership was also studied by Silins (1992, 1994), who examined the association between school improvement outcomes and school leadership practices, building on Bass's (1985) full-range leadership model. These studies revealed that transformational leadership was connected to the variables of charisma or inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, and transactional leadership was associated with contingent reward and management by exception. Canonical analysis and partial-least-squares path analysis were applied in both studies to data from a random sample of 679 teachers in Canada.

A strong positive relationship was shown to exist between transformational and transactional leadership, which signifies that two types of seemingly adversarial leadership styles should not necessarily be treated as independent of each other. This meant that transformational leadership was found to have direct effects on school programs such as instruction as well as some student outcomes. Interestingly, student outcomes were found to be influenced directly and positively by transactional leadership but not by transformational leadership. The education field has seen a small number of studies that have implemented MLQ (also called the MLQ 5X), which measures a comprehensive range of the many types of leadership practiced by, among others, passive leaders, leaders who give conditional rewards to followers, and leaders who believe in investing in their followers so that they may become leaders themselves. Overall all, the MLQ is used to scrutinize the association between transformational leadership, leader effectiveness, and school performance.

Using the MLQ, findings showed that there was a positive association between leadership style and effectiveness. For example, Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) reported a positive correlation between the leadership style of a principal and the principal's effectiveness in the school. Most research focuses on the specific associations between transformational leadership and teacher-related variables such as job satisfaction and commitment. While dependent variables often fluctuate across research and cannot always link leadership approach and leadership effectiveness, the research does reveal potential variables that connect transformational leadership and leader effectiveness.

The MLQ was developed by Bass (1985) to measure transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The MLQ remains the most widely used instrument in research on transformational and transactional leadership. It was used to evaluate the components of the model that was proposed by Avolio and Bass (2004), as well as to assess the link between transactional and transformational leadership styles and job effectiveness and satisfaction.

Koh et al. (1995) researched the effects of transformational leadership in Singapore schools on teacher attitudes and student performance. Data were collected from principals and teachers using different instruments, including the MLQ. Compared to transactional leadership, transformational leadership was found to be connected to positive effects in predicting organizational citizenship behavior and teacher satisfaction, as well as overall organizational commitment. The effects of transformational leadership on student academic achievement were found to be indirect. A connection between teacher outcomes and transformational leadership was also discovered in other studies. For example, Barnett et al. (2005) uncovered a strong correlation between transformational leadership and teacher job satisfaction in secondary education.

The effects of transformational leadership suggest that this type of leadership is much more likely to have a direct impact on the organizational processes connected with employee practices, motivation, and satisfaction, which are all connected to the quality of services offered and performance of the organization as a whole (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005). Most studies saw positive indirect effects on student outcomes, but in Australia Barnett, McCormick, & Connors (2001) found that even though transformational leadership was positively connected to teacher outcomes like extra effort and job satisfaction, it was still negatively linked to a student learning culture.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) researched the effects of transformational leadership using a research-based model of transformational leadership that they created. They found transformational leadership to have strong positive effects on school and classroom conditions (i.e., organizational conditions) (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). School conditions included organizational culture and school planning, while classroom variables reflected policies, procedures, and instructional services.

The Leadership for Organizational Learning and Student Outcomes research project in Australia provided data in support of the positive effects of transformational leadership practices on educational outcomes for schools. Transformational leadership influenced all school and outcome variables except for students' participation in the school (Silins et al., 2002). Unlike transformational leadership, distributed leadership was found to have no substantial impact on student involvement or engagement within school.

Geijsel et al. (2003) examined data from Canada and the Netherlands to explore the association between transformational leadership and teacher effort and commitment regarding reform in their schools. Both countries showed a modest effect on teacher commitment to school

reform from the dimensions surrounding transformational leadership. Vision building by leaders and intellectual stimulation reportedly had a major effect on teacher commitment and extra effort, and individualized consideration demonstrated the least influence. Their findings fall along the same lines as those of earlier studies measuring the impact of transformational leadership practices on extra effort. For example, Bass (1985) revealed that transformational leadership was associated with greater effort among educational administrators in New Zealand than transactional leadership. Seltzer and Bass (1990) and Tucker et al. (1992) reported similar findings in their studies.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) studied the effects of transformational leadership on the teacher variables of classroom practices and student achievement by using data from a national literacy and numeracy program in England. Using path analysis, leadership was found to have meaningful effects on teachers' classroom practices. In conjunction with three other variables, leadership pointed to roughly 25–35% percent of the variation in teachers' classroom practices. In contrast, leadership did not have a meaningful effect on student achievement.

Positive connections between transformational leadership and job satisfaction were also found in several reported studies (Bogler, 2001; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Nguni, Slegers, & Denessen, 2006). Nguni et al. (2006) revealed that job satisfaction, along with organizational commitment and organizational citizenship, was strongly affected by transformational leadership. Eyal and Roth (2011) showed that transformational leadership predicts self-motivation in teachers. Khasawneh, Al-Omari, & Abu-Tineh (2012) similarly discovered a significantly positive relationship between organizational commitment of teachers and transformational leadership. Thoonen et al. (2011) reported that teachers' professional

learning and motivation and school organizational conditions were also strongly affected by transformational leadership practices.

The research findings concerning transformational leadership and teacher-related outcomes mostly reveals positive impacts. Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) analyzed 32 empirical studies published between 1996 and 2005 on transformational leadership. The researchers found that transformational leadership did have an indirectly meaningful effect on student achievement and engagement in school; so, did Leithwood and Sun (2012). The research did reveal a small association between transformational leadership and critical educational outcomes such as student achievement and school performance. Marks and Printy (2003) explained the weak effect using hierarchical linear modeling to examine the effect of school leadership approach on the dependent variables of pedagogical quality and student achievement. Transformational leadership was found to be necessary but not sufficient for instructional leadership. The researchers then proposed an integrated form of leadership that combined transformational and instructional approaches to leadership.

Leithwood and Sun (2012) also suggested integrated models of leadership. They believe that similar leadership practices are found in many leadership models and that leadership effects on educational outcomes should focus on these crucial practices. The practices they mentioned are transformational leadership practices as well as practices devised to specifically improve teaching and learning.

Distributed or Participative Leadership

Effects of distributed leadership, and its varying forms, are just now being discovered (Spillane & Diamond, 2007), even though it is more likely to have a greater impact on student outcomes such as academic achievement than traditional, direct styles of leadership (Gronn,

2000; Spillane et al., 2004). However, there is little research that actually links distributed leadership to educational outcomes.

Mascall, Leithwood, Straus, and Sacks (2008) studied the link between teachers' academic optimism and distributed leadership practices. The researchers collected data from 1,640 elementary and secondary teachers in Ontario through an online survey. The results showed a strong connection between planned practices of distributed leadership and high levels of academic optimism. Hulpia, Devos, and Van Keer (2010) also studied distributed leadership and the organizational commitment of teachers with a semistructured interview. The findings showed that teachers were more committed to a school organization when school leaders were very accessible and encouraged teacher participation in decision-making. These results suggest a positive association between distributed leadership and educational outcomes. However, research on this topic is still sparse, and additional research on distributed leadership practices on educational outcomes is required.

It is important to note here that the most likely reason for a lack of strong, concise research on distributed leadership is that the concept is still somewhat unclear and has many different definitions in the literature. For example, Mayrowetz (2008) categorized four conventional terms for distributed leadership and reviewed the pros and cons of each one. The first definition can be linked to Gronn (2000) and Spillane et al. (2004), who use it in conjunction with social science to examine leadership. In the second definition, distributed leadership is tied to democratic ideology. The third definition conveys organizational efficiency and effectiveness. The fourth definition frames distributed leadership as "organizational capacity building because it emphasizes skill development and other abilities rooted in leadership activity" (Menon, 2011, p. 9).

Mayrowetz (2008) emphasizes the need for “a shared, theoretically informed definition of distributed leadership that is well connected to the problems of practice that this field engages, specifically school improvement and leadership development” (p. 432). This means that although definitions of distributed leadership as capacity building in an organization, the research is simply not substantial enough to draw clear connections between this form of leadership and educational outcomes such as school improvement. This lack of a clearly accepted definition of distributed leadership has also been remarked upon by other researchers.

Harris et al. (2007) write that distributed leadership can describe “many types of shared or collaborative leadership practice” (p. 338). The authors also explain that distributed leadership has often been described by as a contrast to hierarchical leadership and associated with so-called bossless or self-managed groups. Robinson (2008) identified two alternative concepts of distributed leadership, which the researcher referred to as distributed leadership as task distribution and distributed leadership as distributed influence processes, muddying the waters further. Timperley (2005) asserts that “one point on which different authors appear to agree is that distributed leadership is not the same as dividing task responsibilities among individuals who perform defined and separate organizational roles” (p. 396). In this manner, distributed leadership has seemingly become ubiquitous for any type of leadership resembling shared influence or power structures.

The differences among definitions also have an influence on how distributed leadership is measured and used in research. Consequently, study findings are not always comparable and the available research on educational outcomes, such as teacher perceptions, may not necessarily be a reliable gauge of its impact in schools. For example, transformational leadership studies often

use the MLQ in research, but there is no such instrument connected with distributed leadership (Hulpia et al., 2009).

What the research points to is a general lack of clarity on what exactly is distributed leadership. The research also raises questions on assumptions linked to the concepts. As such, distributed leadership as an effective leadership model greatly depends on the quality of distributed leadership practices and the purpose of its implementation (Harris et al., 2007). Timperley (2005) writes that “distributing leadership over [more and] more people is a risky business and may result in the greater distribution of incompetence” (p. 417). What is apparent is that distributed leadership practices in organizations have become associated with inefficiencies because as the number of leaders increases so does the number of disagreements on priorities and direction (Harris et al., 2007). Regardless, distributed leadership practices that create teacher leaders may ultimately cause the authority of those leaders to be questioned or be disrespected (Timperley, 2005). More telling is that teachers do not always want to be part of decision-making for a school. In fact, teacher participation in decision-making suggests that teachers do not expect or desire to participate in every decision (Hoy & Miskel, 2005).

The literature presented reveals several issues that arise with distributed leadership. The most serious issues concern the conceptual and definitional “issues, research and measurement issues, and the validity of underlying assumptions” (Menon, 2011, p. 10). The next section examines the research associated with teacher retention and the effects on education in the United States.

Teacher Retention

Based on the literature review, *teacher turnover* and *teacher retention* are the overarching terms used describe “the departure of teachers from their teaching jobs” (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 500).

Ingersoll (2001) also used *attrition* in connection with teachers leaving the profession altogether and *migration* to describe teachers transferring between schools (p. 503). In 2003, the NCTAF saw in their January report, *No Dream Denied: A Pledge to America's Children*, that the real school staffing problem had become teacher retention. Attracting and retaining quality teachers in many public schools in the United States is increasingly difficult due to pressures of accountability and an increasingly transient workforce. The report stated that “the inability to support high quality teaching in many of the nation’s schools is driven not by too few teachers entering the profession, but too many leaving it for other jobs; teacher retention has become a national crisis” (NCTAF, 2003, p. 8). In response to building crises, Wynn, Carboni, and Patall (2007) suggested that school leaders focus on the “concept of professional learning communities (PLCs), which may serve to make teaching a more desirable profession and possibly avoid teachers leaving the profession” (p. 226).

Heller (2004) suggests that the problem with teacher retention exists in large part because the organizations where teachers work simply drive their employees away. This means that, to attract and keep good teachers, organizational leaders must appreciate “them and treat them as professionals with specialized skills and knowledge” (Heller, 2004, p. 99). The National Center for Education Statistics (2007) conducted a teacher follow-up survey for the 2004–2005 school year and reported that of the 3,380,300 public school teachers who taught during the academic year, 84.5% were termed *stayers* because they stayed at the same school the following year, and 8.0 % were called *leavers* because they left the teaching profession the following year. Approximately 5% of the leavers surveyed did so because their contracts were not renewed. However, about 40% of the leavers reported “opportunities for learning from colleagues were better in their current position than in teaching” (Keigher, 2010, p. 3).

Despite varying expert viewpoints on the specific causes of teacher exodus, the consensus is that recruiting and growing effective teachers is crucial to the overall effort of making teaching attractive to potential candidates (Southeast Educational Development Laboratory [SEDL], 2012). Several states report challenges with recruiting qualified teaching candidates, especially in hard-to-fill subjects such as mathematics, science, technology, and special education. Ironically, evidence implies that incentive programs designed to attract and retain teachers do not necessarily increase collaboration among teachers, nor serve to attract candidates alone (Barnett et al., 2005; Miller, as cited in SEDL, 2012, p. 5).

Berry and Eckert (2012) examined a National Education Policy Center brief that reviewed Federal Teacher Incentive Fund pay for performance systems. The communication indicated that such systems could be effective but required specific teacher input in the decision process. First, incentives should be tied to teacher evaluations that focus on improving instruction and collaborative professional learning. Second, teacher leaders should provide on-demand support and input on evaluations and improvement of instructional delivery. Third, incentives should reflect extra work and achievements (Berry & Eckert, 2012, p. 4).

Explanations for teacher attrition fluctuate according to context. Teachers at urban schools reported being less “satisfied by access to teaching resources and no input over curriculum and pedagogy as opposed to suburban teachers” (Claycomb, as cited in Scherer, 2003, p. 7). New teachers reported that the lack of support they receive from their schools was a main reason for leaving the teaching profession (Scherer, 2003). A U.S. Department of Education (2000) study found that only 44% of new teachers participated in a formal first-year mentoring program, despite evidence that such programs can reduce attrition rates by up to two thirds. Novice teachers who participated in the Project on the Next Generation of Teachers stated that

they received little direction or encouragement from their new schools and little guidance from colleagues on what and how to teach (Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2001). Across the board, high-stakes testing and increased school accountability have also contributed to the decisions of experienced teachers to leave the profession of teaching (Hansel, Skinner, & Rotberg, 2001; Prince, 2002).

An important reason to focus research on retaining teachers (Guarino, Santibañez, Daley, & Brewer, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; NCTAF, 2003) is that studies have demonstrated that growing demand for methodological rigor and teacher quality has a significant impact on student learning (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2002; Rockoff, 2003; Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1998). In fact, Sanders and Horn (1998) claimed that a teacher could very well be the “most important factor in the academic growth of students” (p. 3). Low quality teachers may hinder the academic progress of students (Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005). At the same time, the research suggests that 100% teacher retention is appropriate, either, because then poor-quality teachers would also be retained (Ballou & Podgursky, 1997; Guarino et al., 2004; Hanushek, 2004). As such, a small amount of annual turnover is required to allow schools and teachers with like-minded goals to match, as well as to allow for an amicable parting of ways when they do not (Johnson et al., 2005, p. 10).

The focus on a shortage of high-quality teachers is a matter of retention as much as recruitment (Olson, 2000). Studies have shown that 30–50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll, 2003; C. Wilson, 2000); 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). An important way to keep new teachers is to support them in their learning and development as practitioners by engaging

them in PLCs (Barth, 1990). Heller (2004) wrote that schools must look critically at the conditions in which teachers are trained, work, and remain in the field, as well as at the way school leaders expect teachers to see themselves as professionals (p. 11). As such, school leaders need to create positive and safe climates to ensure teacher retention actively occurs (Heller, 2004). School leaders must deliberately create structures to foster a dynamic, growth-oriented, and professional atmosphere that is designed to attract teachers who strive for intellectual and professional challenges (Heller, 2004, p. 67). Darling-Hammond (2003) conducted a review of research into keeping good teachers and found several remedies, including improving working conditions, creating a sense of collegiality, and demonstrating to teachers that they and their work are appreciated and supported (p. 12). Other remedies included organizations in which teachers have a sense of possibility and in which teachers believe that they are in fact making a difference in the educational outcomes of students (Neito, 2003; Williams, 2003).

Professional Learning Communities

President Bush's 2000 presidential campaign was based on a platform for national educational reform, and he quickly passed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 after he won. The reforms introduced national standards, annual state testing, possible federal bonuses for schools that demonstrated improvement in key areas, possible loss of federal funds for underperforming schools, "corrective action" for habitually underperforming schools, and block grants to poor school districts contingent on academic growth and progress (Calzini & Showalter, 1996, p. 6). NCLB shone a bright light on the national concerns of student achievement, school accountability, and school reform and raised questions about how schools addressed the issues (Hanson, Burton, & Guam, 2006).

Specifically, NCLB (2001, §§ 1606–1608) required school systems that received federal monies to focus on improving student achievement through research-based initiatives of (a) cultivating school reform models, (b) involving teachers and school leaders in the reform effort, and (c) promoting capacity building through ongoing professional development. The enactment of NCLB signified a paradigm shift in public education by forcing a change in how schools addressed their failings (Fullan, 2001; Huffman & Hipp, 2003). Underperforming schools had to now consider whole-school reform initiatives, such as PLCs, that would allow them to examine and overhaul their practices to demonstrate measurable growth of student achievement.

As school reform efforts became a movement to build professional capacity within educators to address failings in student achievement, ongoing professional learning within a whole organization became the aim (Eaker, DuFour, & DuFour, 2002). Schmoker's (2006) book *Results Now: How We Can Achieve Unprecedented Improvements in Teaching and Learning* highlights how PLCs became a reform approach recognized by educators that could provide substantial benefits for school-wide results.

In terms of capacity building, PLCs could also work together to meet the reform requirements of student achievement, teacher performance, and accountability (Hord, 1997). For example, DuFour and Eaker (1998) wrote that a hallmark of a learning community in a school is the collaboration among all educators in the building who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student learning to increase achievement. Schmoker (2006) built on this idea by recognizing that such a collective effort could lead to shared responsibility becoming a cultural characteristic of the school. As such, PLCs are often referred to as “communities of practice” and “self-managing teams” (Schmoker, 2006, p. 106).

Louis and Marks (1998) combined quantitative and qualitative sampling methods to examine the impact of PLCs over multiple restructuring school sites: eight elementary schools, eight middle schools, and eight high schools. These researchers studied the association between the quality of classroom pedagogy and the implementation of the core characteristics of PLCs. The researchers conducted interviews with teachers and classroom observations that examined the pedagogy and the social structure of each classroom. Authentic pedagogy was documented using several structural supports. Louis and Marks defined authentic pedagogy as an emphasis on higher order thinking, the construction of meaning through conversation, and the development of depth of knowledge that is valued inside and outside the classroom. The researchers found that the use of PLCs in a school provides higher levels of social support for student achievement and higher levels of authentic pedagogy. The model used accounted for 36% of the variance in the quality of classroom pedagogy, which was a significant indicator of the impact of PLCs on classroom practice.

The Annenberg Institute for School Reform (2004) examined how PLCs were successfully implemented at the district level to improve the culture of professionalism in schools. The researchers found that a district-wide approach was effective in collectively and consistently engaging educators across all levels and areas to improve student learning outcomes. There were data for PLC effectiveness in improving a professional culture in schools, highlighting issues such as trust and equity, developing distributed leadership capacity, and ensuring focus on instruction. Several of the school-based teams that practiced lesson planning and collaborated on curriculum alignment saw significant improvements in student performance. The research showed that schools that had growth in student learning outcomes had clear support of a building principal who endorsed PLCs. For example, there was documentation of teachers

being given extended time to meet during the day to review data and assessments for purposes of instructional planning. An important aspect that the researchers pointed out was that these schools established a culture where teacher leaders pushed PLC members to dive deep into data to explain performance and identify key instructional priorities and impactful instructional activities.

Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2008) studied the PLC effectiveness by reviewing 11 studies on PLCs. Despite their findings that only a “few studies moved beyond self-reports of positive impact” (p. 80), the researchers did note that there was a documented change in teaching practices. Vescio et al. (2008) also found “limited evidence that the impact [was] measurable beyond teacher perceptions” (p. 88). There was evidence that the culture of teaching and collaboration did improve when teachers focused on student learning via PLCs, compared to when PLCs were not used. Interestingly, there were six specific studies that pointed to how PLCs can have organization-wide impact by focusing on students’ learning outcomes to improve achievement scores over time.

DeMatthews (2014) conducted a qualitative multi-case study to examine how school leaders distributed leadership across six elementary schools to create effective PLCs. The in-depth interviews with principals, assistant principals, instructional coaches, and teachers revealed that informants talked about their PLCs using a variety of terms, including “a safe place to share and grow” and a place “where everyone comes together to solve problems, address concerns, and learn” (DeMatthews, 2014, p. 189). Observations of PLCs showed that much of the time was used to plan activities such as classroom observations, learning walks, co-planning opportunities, and data-analysis sessions. There was evidence for strong shared values of collective responsibility for student learning in participating teachers and in the moral purposes of each

school's mission. Interestingly, the study showed that some PLCs focused more on classroom management, issues of mental health, and students who struggled with socioemotional concerns. Despite articulated distributed leadership structures at some schools, each principal was observed maintaining PLC expectations, modeling professional behavior, "and developing a range of objectives for PLCs" (DeMatthews, 2014, p. 196). Regardless, the researcher found evidence of PLC teacher leaders and members still seeking general guidance and formal authority from the principal for support, resources, and assistance.

Peppers (2014) conducted a narrative ethnography study that used face-to-face open-ended semistructured interviews to study teachers' perceptions before and after the implementation of PLCs. The researcher found that PLCs were successful in teachers' professional development, according to teacher perceptions. The PLC model showed evidence that teachers felt they no longer worked in isolation and now had a collegial and a shared learning environment for all members of the learning community (Peppers, 2014, p. 131). Teachers also believed that there was now an increased focus on accountability and professional development along with demonstrated leadership support for new knowledge and skills for them (Peppers, 2014; Vescio et al., 2006). Other findings included the perception that providing professional learning opportunities for each core department led to an overall increase in collaboration. However, interviews also revealed that the time investment of PLCs concerned some teachers who believed that excessive meetings were taking time away from planning (Peppers, 2014, p. 133). Another teacher perception expressed was that PLCs stifled teachers' creativity while not focusing on the needs of diverse learners. The issue of leadership came up as well, because questions emerged of whether more than half of the PLCs that were observed understood the concept of how a PLC operates.

A. Wilson (2016) used a mixed-methods approach to study the perceptions and experiences of secondary teachers participating in PLCs to examine cultivated leadership, identify teacher leadership development, and identify possible prevention variables. A. Wilson (2016) used an online survey based on Hord's (1997) School Professional Staff as Learning Community Questionnaire that allowed teachers to rate their experience and answer open-ended questions. Overall, teachers perceived shared values and vision ($M = 3.95$) and supportive conditions ($M = 3.98$) as strongest in their schools (A. Wilson, 2016, p. 53). The data suggest that PLC participants shared a vision on student learning and believed that their practice was supported by leadership. However, teachers also perceived that shared and supportive leadership was limited to only certain administrators ($M = 3.17$). In response to the open-ended questions, 82% connected teacher leadership with defined duties and tasks, whereas only 25% associated their PLC work to teacher leadership. Furthermore, 31% perceived their principals as consistently involving staff in decision-making for the school. Most tellingly, 89% described their PLC experience as, "inundated with meetings," and felt that their attendance created "unnecessary time constraints" that impacted their job performance (A. Wilson, 2016, p. 54). The overall findings suggest that teachers perceive that PLCs can both help and hinder their teacher leadership development.

Review of Methodological Issues

Overall, the research that focuses on transformational and distributed leadership practices is largely split between what is based on self-reported data and what is based on observational data. About half of the studies gathered information from surveys, while the other half gathered data from through semistructured interviews and observations. For example, transformational leadership research largely uses the MLQ because it was created specifically to examine the link

between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness and school performance (Bass, 1985). As such, the MLQ remains the most popular instrument in research on transformational leadership (Barnett et al., 2005; Geijsel et al., 2003; Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2013; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Silins et al., 2002; Tucker et al., 1992). Although some researchers still use observational or mixed methods such as Bass's (1985) full-range leadership model (Silins, 1992, 1994), most studies are viewed through the MLQ. One study examined 32 empirical studies published between 1996 and 2005 (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005), and one used hierarchical linear modeling to find a weak impact of both transformational and distributed leadership practices on teacher perceptions based on implementation (Marks & Printy, 2003).

Effects of distributed leadership in its various forms are just now being discovered (Spillane & Diamond, 2007) due to a lack of a strong and concise concept (Gronn, 2000; Harris et al., 2007; Mayrowetz, 2008; Menon, 2011; Robinson, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004; Timperley, 2005). The lack of a unified concept or definition influences how distributed leadership is measured and used in research. Consequently, study findings are not always comparable and the available research on educational outcomes, such as teacher perceptions, may not necessarily be a reliable gauge of their impact in schools. For example, transformational leadership studies use the MLQ in research, but there is no such instrument connected with distributed leadership (Hulpia, et al., 2009), which drives the use of observational data (Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Hulpia et al., 2010; Mascal et al., 2008).

Also, research on transformational and distributed leadership practices were often implemented through PLC structures and compared against their impact on teacher retention. Teacher retention (Ballou & Podgursky, 1997; Berry & Eckert, 2012; Goldhaber & Anthony,

2004; Guarino et al., 2004; Hansel et al., 2001; Hanushek, 2004; Heller, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson et al., 2005; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kauffman et al., 2001; NCTAF, 2003; Rivkin et al., 2002; Rockoff, 2003; Rowan et al., 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1998; SEDL, 2012) and PLCs (Annenberg Institute for School Reform, 2004; DeMatthews, 2014; Eaker et al., 2002; Louis & Marks, 1998; Peppers, 2014; Schmoker, 2006; A. Wilson, 2016) were studied through both quantitative and qualitative data gathering using questionnaires, surveys, and semistructured interviews. One PLC study reviewed 11 studies and teacher self-reporting on the impact of PLCs (Vescio et al., 2008).

Although qualitative research is best positioned to provide in-depth information from participants, qualitative research does have limitations that need to be mentioned. First, because of the rich data gathered that need to be mulled over, lower sample sizes are more conducive for data management. As such, with the exception of the studies on transformational leadership (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Geijssel, 2003; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Silins, 1992, 1994; Silins et al., 2002), very few of the qualitative studies had more than 100 participants. Second, in qualitative inquiry it can be difficult to account for confounding variables, such as distributed leadership being perceived as both an effective and ineffective leadership model (Harris et al., 2007; Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Timperley, 2005).

In addition, there was a lack of research on long-term teacher perceptions or educational outcomes of transformational and distributed leadership practices, either because the educational concepts are relatively new and their impact is only now beginning to be understood (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood et al., 1993), or because their definitions are not universally agreed upon (Gronn, 2000; Mayrowetz, 2008; Spillane et al., 2004; Spillane & Diamond, 2007). None

of the studies on transformational and distributed leadership included data from a leadership perspective, despite leadership styles and structural implementation of leadership concepts having dual components, from an adult standpoint, for successful educational outcomes. For example, teacher retention studies did approach the research from multiple perspectives by including district and school leadership, students, and economic considerations to gather data on the problem from inside and outside a school campus and provide a comprehensive view of the subject matter. Finally, the literature analysis revealed a significant quantity of research on transformational and distributed leadership occurring outside of the United States and away from the developed western hemisphere. The studies that were discovered in the United States focused largely on elementary or middle school cultures. There was only a small quantity of available research on transformational or distributed leadership practices at the high school level in the United States.

Synthesis of Research Findings

Two major and closely related themes that emerged were teacher motivation (Berry & Eckert, 2012; DeMatthews, 2014; Eyal and Roth, 2011; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990, 1999, 2000, 2005; Leithwood et al., 1993; Peppers, 2014; Mascal et al., 2008; Thoonen et al., 2011; A. Wilson, 2016) and teacher job satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Barnett et al., 2005; Bogler, 2001; Braun et al., 2013; DeMatthews, 2014; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2013; Keigher, 2010; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Nguni et al., 2006; Peppers, 2014; Silins et al., 2002; Vescio et al., 2008).

Two other intertwining emergent themes were organizational commitment by the teacher to the school (Annenberg Institute for School Reform, 2004; Geijsel et al., 2003; Hulpia et al.,

2010; Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2013; Khasawneh et al., 2012; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016) and organizational commitment from the school to the teacher (Annenberg Institute for School Reform, 2004; Barth, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 2003; DuFour & Eaker, 1998; Eaker et al., 2002; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004; Heller, 2004; Hulpia et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2005; Kauffman et al., 2001; Louis & Marks, 1998; Neito, 2003; Olson, 2000; Peppers, 2014; Rivkin et al., 2002; Rockoff, 2003; Rowan et al., 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1998; Scherer, 2003; Schmoker, 2006; SEDL, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2000; Williams, 2003; A. Wilson, 2016).

Although PLCs are often used as the vehicles of implementation for transformational and distributed leadership practices (Peppers, 2014; Wynn et al., 2007), the research revealed that it is how they are implemented that defines their effectiveness (DeMatthews, 2014; Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016). An analysis of the research revealed a need for future research into the effects of transformational and distributed leadership practices specifically on student outcomes (Gronn, 2000; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Marks & Printy, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004). Analysis also revealed a need for future research into how distributed leadership practices influence teacher efficacy, teacher motivation for participation within PLCs, and definition issues for distributed leadership (Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Menon, 2011; Timperley, 2005). A final, reoccurring issue that emerged was that although transformational leadership studies often use the MLQ in research to provide quantitative data, there is no such instrument connected with distributed leadership (Hulpia et al., 2009). As such, the formation of qualitative instruments, or at research into factors that could be universally agreed upon to define such instruments, would provide for easier comparisons between the leadership practices associated with transformational and distributed leadership.

Critique of Previous Research

The research discovered during the literature review focused on either teacher perceptions of the implementation of either transformational leadership or distributed leadership practices in schools, but not both at the same time. In large part, the transformational leadership studies were quantitatively based and used the MLQ (Barnett et al., 2005; Geijsel et al., 2003; Ibrahim & Al-Taneiji, 2013; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Silins et al., 2002; Tucker et al., 1992), because it was created specifically to investigate the link between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness or school performance (Bass, 1985). Some studies did use observational methods such as Bass's (1985) full-range leadership model (Silins, 1992, 1994). Yet, the MLQ remains the standard way that transformational leadership is analyzed and discussed in literature. However, at least some studies used a confirmatory factor analysis for multidata sources (Muenjohn, 2008) and found that the full leadership model (a nine-way correlated leadership model; Silins, 1992, 1994) could more adequately capture the factor constructs of transformational–transactional leadership.

The literature review also suggests that transformational leadership focuses more heavily on a type of inspirational leadership that forges positive relationships with teachers (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Thoonen et al., 2011), and the impact of distributed leadership practices on teacher perceptions is widespread due to the lack of a strong, concise, and clear definition of distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000; Harris et al., 2007; Mayrowetz, 2008; Spillane & Diamond, 2007; Spillane et al., 2004). Yet, some of the studies did find that a mix of transactional and transformational leadership may be ideal for building capacity within an organization and positively impacting student outcomes (Silins, 1992, 1994), suggesting that the two leadership styles can work together when the conditions are right. In fact, as a stand-alone leadership

model, transformational leadership was found to positively influence teacher perceptions on several education outcomes but have no effect, or a negative effect, on student learning outcomes (Barnett et al., 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Distributed leadership models were found to build leadership capacity in teachers because they emphasize skill development and influence organizational processes (Menon, 2011; Robinson, 2008).

PLC research focuses largely on how they are often used as vehicles for implementation of either transformational or distributed leadership practices (Peppers, 2014; Wynn et al., 2007), but it is how they are implemented that defines their effectiveness (DeMatthews, 2014; Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016). Teacher retention was largely examined through lens of PLCs as a remedy (Berry & Eckert, 2012; Heller, 2004; Keigher, 2010; Wynn et al., 2007). Within this context, PLCs could facilitate the development of teachers, because teacher quality has a significant impact on student learning (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004; Rivkin et al., 2002; Rockoff, 2003; Rowan et al., 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1998). Of course, PLCs also serve as mechanisms for teachers to garner a sense of possibility and establish an atmosphere of collegiality (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Neito, 2003; Williams, 2003).

The literature review identified a gap in the research for a study that examines transformational and distributed leadership practices operating together in attracting, motivating, developing, and building skills in teachers for the purpose of capacity building in a school environment and thus driving positive teacher retention. An analysis of the literature also reveals that the study's investigation of simultaneous transformational and distributed leadership practices in PLC implementation is best conducted through a largely qualitative methodology,

which includes observations, surveys, evaluations, and organizational artifacts, to provide data that is comparable to the literature.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working under transformational and distributed leadership practices at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The literature review revealed the current state of transformational and distributed leadership practices at the secondary level within the United States. The themes that emerged were teacher motivation, teacher job satisfaction, and commitment by the teacher to the school and by the school to the teacher.

It is important to highlight here that although PLCs are often cited as the vehicles to use for transformational and distributed leadership practices (Peppers, 2014; Wynn et al., 2007), it is how they are implemented that determines their effectiveness (DeMatthews, 2014; Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016). Areas for future research include the impact of transformational and distributed leadership practices on student outcomes (Gronn, 2000; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Marks & Printy, 2003; Spillane et al., 2004), as well as distributed leadership practices and teacher efficacy, teacher motivation for participation, and definition issues (Hoy & Miskel, 2005; Menon, 2011; Timperley, 2005). Lastly, transformational leadership studies often use the MLQ in research to provide quantitative data, but there is no such instrument connected with distributed leadership (Hulpia et al., 2009); the creation of one could allow easier comparisons between the two leadership practices.

While the tandem adoption of transformational and distributed leadership practices defined the research parameters, very little qualitative evidence for teachers at the high school level was discovered for these two simultaneous practices within the United States. This gap in

knowledge is addressed in the present study and is aligned with the purpose of the study and the research questions. Chapter 3 provides details of the method, purpose, and how the research gap established in this chapter was addressed.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. Today's school leaders are visionaries, administrators, motivators, and leaders of instruction (Danielson, 2007) who often use distributed or transformational leadership practices to positively affect the educational outcome of teachers' job satisfaction (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Silins et al., 2002). However, this study sought to close a gap in the research by examining the simultaneous implementation of transformational and distributed leadership practices and their impact on teacher perceptions at the high school for the goal of positive teacher retention.

This chapter offers a comprehensive description of the research design, data collection instruments, participant sampling, data collection protocols, limitations and delimitations of the study, validation, expected findings, and ethical issues. The chapter concludes with a summary and an overview of the remainder of this dissertation. The data from this single-embedded multiple-case study revealed case themes that explored the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership hybrid model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The intent was that the findings of the study could be used to design principal training programs that better prepare new and existing school administrators in the use of the combination of transformational and distributed leadership practices for teacher job satisfaction, positive teacher retention, and maximization of educational outcomes for students.

Setting and Background

The study site was a large comprehensive high school in Texas between the cities of San Antonio and Austin. The high school works with approximately 2,000 students and has a total teaching staff of 170. The school employs 153 regular education teachers and 17 special education teachers in core academic subject areas, with all classes taught by highly qualified teachers (Seguin Independent School District, District Education Improvement Committee, 2017). There are 14 support staff members, 9 administrators, and 17 paraprofessionals.

The school serves a diverse population of students from rural farmlands, suburban middle-class areas, and affluent gated communities. The student ethnic background is approximately 70% Hispanic, 24% Caucasian, 5% African American, and 1% other (Seguin Independent School District, District Education Improvement Committee [SISD], 2017). About 60% of all students are on free or reduced lunch and considered economically disadvantaged (SISD, 2017). The average experience of teachers at the school is 10 years, with 40% having more than 11 years of experience (Texas Education Agency, 2016).

As part of a district and community initiative, the 60-year-old high school building was torn down and a new, state of the art, 110 million dollar one was erected in the same location for the year of this study. The district also hired a new superintendent with a demonstrated history of implementing PLCs for collaborative leadership and professional learning.

Research Questions

The research was guided by the following questions, which were designed to aid in uncovering the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South-Central Texas:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices?
2. How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
3. How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
4. What are teachers' feelings towards administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates?

Research Design and Rationale

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to discover the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at the high school level. Accordingly, a qualitative research method was selected for this study because the researcher sought to comprehend the experience of how people understand their world (Ashworth, 2015). Qualitative research usually focuses on understanding the meaning of an experience for participants in a research study, not the meaning for the researchers (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This type of research centers on developing an in-depth and detailed understanding of a phenomenon based on rich and detailed data from subjective experiences and perceptions of individuals who are willing to share their stories with a researcher (McMillan, 2012).

Creswell and Poth (2018) defined case study research as a qualitative approach in which the researcher investigates a “real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving *multiple sources of information*” (p. 96). This single-embedded multiple-case study explored the perceptions of teachers while working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas.

The researcher presented an in-depth understanding of the case by collecting and integrating many forms of qualitative data, ranging from (structured or semistructured) interviews, to artifacts (such as documents). Using only one source of data is generally not sufficient to develop the in-depth understanding needed in a case study. This particular case study made use of a specific instrument associated with the specific measurement of transformational leadership.

Although the research was based on a qualitative research model, the MLQ is a quantitative standardized assessment instrument widely used for determining transformational and transactional leadership behaviors in an organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Quantitative research studies a phenomenon through a lens of a single true reality, but qualitative research examines multiple possible realities rooted in subjects' perceptions (McMillan, 2012). The MLQ was used to measure the presence of transformational leadership at the campus being studied (Denzin, 2009) in data triangulation with teacher perceptions and questionnaires. The single-embedded design (Yin, 2014) refers to the "embedded case study" within a larger case. For this research study, the school was the large case with the individual participating teachers making up the smaller cases to be analyzed.

Target Population, Sampling Method, and Related Procedures

The target population consisted of teachers at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The sample consisted of 15 teachers chosen from the study site, which was approximately one third of the projected sample pool. To the greatest extent possible, the sample represented teachers with diverse service years from throughout the study site.

Purposeful sampling (Patton, 2015) was used to select information-rich cases for in-depth study. The nonrandom technique of purposeful sampling yields a sample of participants who can

specifically inform the researcher about their understanding of an examined experience (Creswell & Poth, 2018). There were 131 teachers at the study site that taught a full load of academic classes (Texas Education Agency, 2016). The researcher looked at teachers with 1–6 years of teaching experience, because studies have shown that 30–50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll, 2003; C. Wilson, 2000), 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year, and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). Approximately 38% of teachers at the study site had 1–5 years of experience, and 59% of the teachers had 1–10 years of experience. The remaining 41% of teachers at the study site had 11 or more years of teaching experience and were well into their careers. The likelihood of teachers in this latter subset leaving the profession due to leadership practices was not a theme that surfaced in the literature.

External influences on teachers leaving or staying at the school study site and the profession of teaching, beyond the impact of school building leadership, were purposefully mitigated. Teachers who coached a sport or led an extracurricular activity, such as band or theater, were not sampled because their turnover rate may be influenced by forces outside of a school; such as community pressures for new coaches or people leaving to improve their professional standing through prestigious or higher paying leadership positions. Likewise, these teachers may choose to stay at the school, or in the teaching profession, because of their commitment to an extracurricular activity or personal commitments and beliefs.

Finally, teachers who taught only a full schedule of the core academic classes of math, science, social studies, or English, and who were not rated by the researcher conducting the study, were identified as a pool for potential case studies. Teachers who had full core academic classes were chosen because of the impact that building leadership plays in influencing and

supporting teacher success in academic areas of school accountability. There were 37 potential teachers who could be classified as possible research participants in this study according to this purposive sampling.

Informational letters were sent out to the possible participants. The intent was to gather a sample with maximal diversity in terms of years of experience in teaching, gender, and subject area, to provide rich perspectives. The ideal sample of teachers would consist of equal parts male and female teachers with 1–6 years of teaching experience.

Each participant was presented with a brief description of the study and agreed to sign a consent form (see Appendix A). Careful thought was given to ensure the privacy and confidentiality of teacher participants. Instead of names or other identifiers, teachers were given a designated number used in interview transcripts and other instrumentation. No one, other than the researcher, knew the participants' names or identification. This study was a local knowledge case because it relied on insider knowledge that the researcher had of the institution and participants (Thomas, 2015).

The MLQ was used to collect information regarding transformational leadership behaviors and practices from the sample of teachers. Statistical analysis was applied to the data to examine the links between transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors, the leader's perceived effectiveness, and the teachers' job satisfaction. Finally, the data was analyzed as outlined in the following sections.

Instrumentation

The study used three measures to triangulate data: a preliminary four-question open-ended response questionnaire, semistructured interviews, and the MLQ.

Instrument 1: Preinterview Open-Ended Response Questionnaire

A preinterview consisting of an open-ended four-question response questionnaire was created to substantiate and enhance the understanding of collected evidence from participant interviews (see Appendix B). According to Creswell and Poth (2018), the researcher should design an instrument that uses open-ended questions to better understand the experience as seen through the eyes of the participant. Using open-ended questions allows for respondents to include more detailed information, such as feelings, attitudes, and their preliminary understanding of transformational and distributive leadership practices.

A preinterview open-ended questionnaire also gives participants the opportunity to explain if they do not understand the question or do not have an opinion on leadership practices at the study site. Finally, open-ended questions may yield more candid information and unique insights for researchers because respondents may find them less threatening than scaled questions. Most importantly, the open-ended questions are more generally modeled after the study's research questions and are designed to gather preliminary teacher understanding of working under transformational and distributed leadership practices. The following questions made up the questionnaire:

1. Do leadership structures and/or practices in your school make you feel more able, or less able, to accomplish your job? Please explain your answer and provide examples?
2. Do the leadership structures of the school positively, negatively, or does not have any impact on your job satisfaction? Please explain.
3. Do Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in your school positively, negatively, or do not have any impact on your job satisfaction? Please explain.

4. Have your experiences with leadership structures and/or practices at this school caused you to consider staying or leaving the profession of teaching? Please give examples to explain your answer.

Instrument 2: Semistructured Interviews

Interviews are one of the most important sources of evidence in a case study (Yin, 2014). Accordingly, in-person, one-on-one interviews were conducted with all study participants (see Appendix C). Face-to-face interviews have the benefit of uninterrupted time and space that can provide a great number of social cues to examine, including voice, intonation, and body language (Opendakker, 2006). The interviews were designed to uncover the personal experiences and perceptions of participants operating in the organization daily. Creswell and Poth (2018) wrote that “the more open-ended the questioning, the better, as the researcher listens carefully to what people say or do in their life setting [and experience]” (p. 24).

An interview protocol was created and used to conduct interviews around the four research guiding questions, as described below.

Research Question 1. What are teachers’ perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices?

Interview Question 1. In your own words, what is Transformational Leadership? Can you describe some practices at your school that reflect your definition?

Interview Question 2. In your own words, what is Distributed Leadership? Can you describe some practices at your school that reflect your definition?

Research Question 2. How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?

Interview Question 3. In your perception, do Transformational leadership practices at

your school help and/or allow you to do your job better, have no effect, or make your job worse?
Please explain your answer.

Research Question 3. How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?

Interview Question 4. In your perception, do distributed leadership practices at your school help and/or allow you to do your job better, have no effect, or make your job worse?
Please explain your answer.

Research Question 4. What are teachers' feelings towards administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates?

Interview Question 5. Based on your experiences at your current school working under your administration's leadership structures and strategies, do you feel more likely to stay or leave the teaching profession? Please explain your answer.

Notes were taken during the interview, and the interviews were recorded and transcribed with transcription software. Lastly, participant-specific transcripts were provided to participants to be verified for review and accuracy.

Instrument 3: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The MLQ provides individual feedback on how often a leader is perceived to exhibit leadership behaviors along a full range of leadership performance (see Appendix D). The MLQ used for this study is a trademarked instrument and licensed through Mind Garden, Inc., an independent research organization that publishes various instruments for research purpose. Mind Garden, Inc., provided permission for use of the instrument in this study through purchase of a group license. The MLQ feedback is an individualized, computer-generated report that provides an in-depth summary of how often leaders are perceived to exhibit specific behaviors for a full

range of leadership performance. Participants are asked to respond to 45 items in the MLQ using a 5-point behavioral scale (*not at all* to *frequently if not always*). Approximately 15 minutes is required for questionnaire completion.

While the MLQ was first developed by Bass (1985) and based on four leadership factors, Avolio and Bass (2004) grew the model to further assess “nine single-order factors, comprising of five transformational leaderships, three transactional leaderships and one non-transactional laissez-faire leadership component” (Menon, 2014, p. 511). The nine factors of the model are:

1. Attributed idealized influence is the degree to which followers consider leaders to be powerful and charismatic, which causes them to develop feelings of trust and confidence.

2. Idealized influence as behavior references leader behavior characterized by values and a sense of purpose which causes individuals in the organization to emulate their example.

3. Inspirational motivation is the leader inspiring followers through meaning and challenge by projecting hope and optimism for the future, which enhances shared commitment to goals.

4. Intellectual stimulation is the leader encouraging followers to be creative and innovative. At the same time, followers become critical of their existing beliefs, traditions, and problem-solving assumptions.

5. Individualized consideration occurs when leaders understand the needs of individuals through individualized attention. Transformational leadership practices create organizational cultures that support individual improvement and growth.

6. Contingent reward leadership is one of three dimensions of transactional leadership and refers to leader behaviors that reward followership behaviors based on fulfilling requirements.

7. Active management by exception is the leader being directly involved in determining whether requirements are met.

8. Passive management by exception refers to situations where a leader responds to problems after mistakes have occurred.

9. Laissez-faire leadership is where a leader constantly avoids, delays, or abdicates making a decision.

These nine components, comprising the full-range model of leadership, are fleshed out in greater detail in Avolio and Bass (2004).

The MLQ is a well-established instrument in the measure of transformational leadership and is extensively researched and validated. For example, Avolio and Bass's (2004) MLQ manual shows strong evidence for validity, as well as for the MLQ being used regularly in research programs and doctoral dissertations studying outcomes for transformational leadership. Construct validity is also thoroughly explained with factor analyses that have resulted in a basic six-factor model for the MLQ. Finally, a study conducted by Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) supported a nine-factor leadership model that was stable in homogeneous situations. Reliability scores for the MLQ subscales ranged from moderate to good.

Data Collection

The preinterview open-ended response questionnaires, semistructured interviews, and MLQ responses were collected according to the following protocols. No more than two major data collection events were scheduled for each teacher to make the process convenient and manageable for their scheduling. In the first session, participants were scheduled for an approximately 20-minute preinterview open-ended response questionnaire via Qualtrics (for ease

of collection). Participants had access to a computer or laptop during the preinterview that was provided by the researcher. Preinterview questionnaires were provided along with a brief study description and definitions of transformational and distributed leadership.

The MLQ was then administered to participants using Qualtrics. The data collected through the semistructured interviews was collected manually and will be discussed shortly. Qualtrics is an enterprise research platform used to deliver online surveys and questionnaires that is vetted and approved by Concordia University–Portland. It is important to note here that the MLQ is usually hosted through another research platform because the instrument is covered by U.S. and international copyright laws as well as various state and federal laws regarding data protection. However, the instrument was purchased through a company that provides licenses of the MLQ for research use. Mind Garden, Inc. is a for-profit research support company that publishes many assessments including the MLQ. The Full Range Leadership is a trademark of Bass and Avolio Assessments. The company gave approval for the questionnaire to be delivered through the research platform of my choosing, such as Qualtrics. After the data had been collected, the company assisted with creating individualized reports to be used by the researcher via the data analysis program NVivo (Version 11).

In the second session, the semistructured interviews were scheduled for approximately 45 minutes, but extra time was allotted in case participants chose to provide more detailed responses. Each interview was recorded via recording software and a brief study description was delivered before each session. Consent to record the interviews was gained in the recruitment process, and participants were given information about the confidentiality of the research. Teachers were interviewed based on their availability. Following Yin's (2014) recommendation to ensure that the case study is an iterative process, interview schedules were developed along

with previous data collection. The interviews were transcribed professionally from the audio recordings and the original interviews were kept for reference to use for clarification of ambiguities in the transcriptions.

Data Analysis Procedures

Attention to detail and careful organization of information is paramount in case studies because of the large quantity of data that is gathered (Thomas, 2015). According to Concordia University's policy and procedures for conducting doctoral research, the preinterview open-ended response questionnaires and MLQ data were first delivered to participants through Qualtrics, which is an enterprise research platform used to deliver online surveys and questionnaires that is vetted and approved by Concordia University–Portland. After the data was collected, Mind Garden, Inc. assisted with creating individualized and group reports to be used by the researcher in the format of the researcher's choosing. The raw data from the MLQ was analyzed according to raw scores for all leadership scales as reported to the selected norm. Raw scores in this matter are of little importance, so norm-referenced scores were considered. Data used for norm-referenced MLQ profiles were represented in standardized T scores.

NVivo (Version 11) software was used to assist with analyzing data, examining patterns, and identifying emerging case themes. The software was also used to keep digital copies of information and ease the review of the rich and complex data. Data classification included open-ended preinterview responses and transcribed interview notes. In addition, the MLQ individual feedback report for each participant was entered, categorized, and scrutinized.

NVivo (Version 11) is specifically designed to work with qualitative, or unstructured, data by digitally organizing and storing multiple sources of rich data. The software facilitates organization and analysis as well as the highlighting of themes and patterns (insights) in

qualitative data such as interview responses and open-ended survey responses. Most importantly, NVivo can easily fold the MLQ individualized reports into its data repository for analysis. The software assists with the coding of open-ended question matrices to compare the answers of different types of respondents. Furthermore, it can display graphically the codes and categories. The review of transcripts of semistructured interviews revealed key topics and themes using text search and word frequency queries.

After data was gathered, thematic analysis was conducted (Braun & Clarke, 2014). As outlined by Braun and Clarke (2014), there are six stages to applied thematic analysis: (a) familiarizing yourself with the data, (b) coding the data, (c) searching for themes in the data, (d) reviewing themes that arise, (e) defining and naming themes, and (f) writing up the evaluation. It is important to note here that a grounded theory approach was applied as a general strategy for coding in this case study.

As such, coding occurred in three distinct phases: open, axial, and selective (Strauss and Corbin, as cited by Creswell & Poth, 2018). Grounded theory offered a process for identifying categories based on information (open coding), then connecting the categories (axial coding) to allow a narrative to emerge that ties the categories together (selective coding). This narrative, or theme, can then be analyzed and applied over a variety of epistemological foundations (Braun & Clarke, 2014) for examination and theoretical propositions. When looking specifically at the semistructured interviews, thematic or data saturation was considered for collecting data until no more patterns or themes emerged from the data (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012).

Limitations of the Research Design

The primary limitation of this case study is the small sample size. The study focused on one school with 15 teacher participants. As such, the findings cannot be generalized because

data gathered is limited only to the perceptions and experiences of the participants. The use of the MLQ also presented a limitation because it is almost exclusively accepted, and used, as the only appropriate instrument for measuring transformational leadership. Although the MLQ is widely used in the western hemisphere, more research is needed in the eastern hemisphere to determine its reliability in different cultures (Menon, 2014). The constraints of the researcher's job created additional time limitations on the collection of data.

Validation

Validation is the extent to which the results of a research study can be considered reflective and accurate of the experiences of each participant (McMillan, 2012). To increase internal validity, triangulation and member checking were implemented. McMillan (2012) defines member checking as “asking participants to review interpretations and conclusions, and [then asking] participants [to] confirm the findings” (p. 303). Each transcribed interview was reviewed by the primary researcher and then presented to each participant for review, in-person, within a week of their respective interviews. All participants received copies of their transcripts for corrections and clarifications. Triangulation is defined as the “convergence of data collected from different sources, to determine the consistency of a finding” (Yin, 2014, p. 241). In the research study, the semistructured interview data was corroborated with data from the MLQ and the open-ended questionnaire.

The use of thick, rich descriptions and the exact language of each participant provided authentic perspectives of their experiences working in a transformational and distributive leadership structure. This process created a credible qualitative study by way of thorough and extensive descriptions (McMillan, 2012). Detailed descriptions further bolstered the credibility

of the case study because of the intense interaction required to sift through and make sense of such complex information.

Expected Findings

It was anticipated that the teacher participants would define their respective ideas of transformational leadership but would be unaware of the differences between transformational and distributed leadership practices in their school. It was also expected that the MLQ would show some aspects of transformational leadership occurring in the school along with some transactional leadership practices. Finally, it was predicted that participants would largely have high levels of job satisfaction with the leadership practices in their school.

Ethical Issues

The study followed all ethical standards as set forth by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research (1979). This seminal report outlined three foundational ethical principles when using human subjects in research: (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence, and (c) justice. All participants received an explanation the purpose, benefits, and risks of the research. In addition, each participant was provided with the scope and limitations of confidentiality and was required to sign an informed consent to participate in the study (Patton, 2015). Each participant also signed an informed consent document, as outlined under Concordia University's Institutional Review Board requirements, prior to the interview.

Participants were selected because they were teachers at the research site and could provide personal perspective based on their experiences working under transformational and distributed leadership practices for at least 1 school year. Participation in the research study was wholly voluntary, and each participant had the ability to withdraw at their discretion.

Participants were not coerced, nor did they fall under the direct supervision of the researcher. When the study began, the researcher served as the dean of instruction for the school site. Mid-way through the study, the researcher took another position in the school district as an instructional coordinator for grades K-12. At no time did the researcher serve as a direct supervisor for any participant in the study. The researcher explained the study to each participant and provided an outline of the steps that would be taken to ensure privacy and confidentiality.

Maintaining noncoercion, ensuring privacy, and ensuring confidentiality were the three most ethically critical parts of this study because of the researcher's position as a member of the leadership team at the study site, and later as an instructional coordinator for the district. It was paramount to the integrity of the study that all conflicts of interest be eliminated or mitigated. Participants were neither identified to one another, nor did anyone outside of the study know who was participating as communication was conducted through confidential emails and face-to-face interviews were done separately, discreetly, and outside of the school day in private. Participants were identified with alphanumeric identifiers in the NVivo (Version 11) software and all documents. Any printed or written documents were stored away from the research site in a secured storage cabinet accessible only to the researcher. As an overarching protocol, the dissertation committee members were consulted throughout the data collection and analysis process.

Summary

Chapter 3 discussed the purpose and manner of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study, which examined how high school teacher perceptions were impacted by the simultaneous implementation of transformational and distributed leadership practices toward

positive teacher retention. The chapter provided a comprehensive description of the research design, data collection instruments, participant sampling, data collection protocols, limitations and delimitations of the study, validation, expected findings, and ethical issues.

The study used three measures to triangulate data: a preliminary four-question open-ended response questionnaire, semistructured interviews, and the MLQ. Collected data was coded and categorized based on the theoretical framework and on themes that emerged during the analysis. The use of three different data sources produced rich descriptions and comprehensive understanding of the case study (Yin, 2013). Particular attention was given to how the target population, at the large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas, were sampled. To recruit the target sample size of 15 teacher participants, purposeful sampling techniques were implemented. Purposeful sampling is a nonprobability sampling method in which participants are selected based on whether they satisfy key inclusion criteria (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Teachers at the study site took part willingly and were not directly supervised in any capacity by the researcher. The next chapter presents the findings of the case study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

Study Overview

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the research study. The goal of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study is to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The study documented and analyzed teachers' perceptions because they are linked to teacher job satisfaction levels, as well as their overall commitment and the productivity of the school (Anderson, 2004). The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices?
2. How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
3. How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
4. What are teachers' feelings toward administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates?

Data for this research were gathered outside of regular work hours. Data were collected through short answer preinterviews, the MLQ quantitative standardized assessment instrument widely used for determining transformational leadership behaviors in an organization, and semistructured interviews. First, the four-question open-ended preinterview survey was delivered to teachers and captured through Qualtrics, a data collection web site. The questions were based on the four research questions.

Second, study participants took the MLQ and only performed one-way rating. One-way rating consists of study participants only rating their directly supervising principal or assistant principal without receiving a feedback rating on transformational leadership practices

themselves. The MLQ used for this study is a trademarked instrument licensed and delivered through Mind Garden, Inc., an independent research organization that provides various instruments for research purposes. The MLQ is a well-established instrument in the measure of transformational leadership and is extensively researched and validated. For example, Avolio and Bass (2004), in their MLQ manual, show strong evidence for validity, and note that the MLQ is being used regularly in research programs and doctoral dissertations studying outcomes for transformational leadership. Construct validity is also thoroughly explained with factor analyses that have resulted in a basic six-factor model for the MLQ. Reliability scores for the MLQ subscales ranged from moderate to good.

The semistructured interviews were conducted in person. The five questions for the interviews were based on the research questions, were followed an interview protocol, and inquired specifically about teachers' perceptions of transformational and distributed leadership, as well as the impact on teacher job satisfaction, at the study site. The interviews were designed to uncover the personal experiences and perceptions of participants operating in the organization daily.

In addition to being the primary investigator, I also served as the Dean of Instruction and Associate Principal for the school at the time of the study, which allowed me access to the participants who provided the data. Purposeful sampling was used to identify potential participants who were not directly supervised by the primary investigator, taught a full schedule of core academic classes (math, English, social studies, and science), did not coach or lead an extracurricular activity, and had 1–6 years of service. Purposeful sampling involves selecting participants that may best provide insight into a particular phenomenon (Patton, 2015) and was used to identify participants able to answer the research questions most effectively. Patton

(2015) suggested that the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. All participants received an informational email briefly detailing the study along with a consent form outlining the role of their participation and the protections afforded to them. To be clear, the primary investigator did not evaluate the job performance of any of the participants, and study participation had no effect on teacher job performance evaluations either in general or specifically.

The study presented minimal risk to the participants but had some potential negative consequences that needed to be accounted for and mitigated as far as possible. The main risk was the potential for negative repercussions for the teachers in the study from supervising administrators. The participants were asked to provide perceptions and insights that may reflect poorly on the organization for which they work. To help alleviate this potential risk, all participant information was altered to help ensure anonymity and protect confidentiality. Furthermore, the researcher was the only one who had access to the original data, including the full transcripts of interviews and survey responses.

Understanding why teachers leave the profession of teaching because of leadership is important because of the negative economic and academic impacts on schools, communities, and the nation from ongoing recruiting, training, and development of new educators. As such, the study results may be used to design principal training programs that better prepare new and existing school administrators in the simultaneous use of both transformational and distributed leadership practices for teacher job satisfaction, positive teacher retention, and maximization of educational outcomes for students.

Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of 15 teachers, approximately one third of the available sample pool of 37 teachers out of the 131 total teachers on the study site who taught a full load of six academic classes (Texas Education Agency, 2016). All potential candidates in the sample pool received an email invitation to participate in the study. Of the total number of teachers available, teachers with 1–6 years of teaching experience were considered because studies show that 30–50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll, 2003; C. Wilson, 2000), 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year, and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). Approximately 38% of teachers at the study site had 1–5 years of experience, with 59% of the teachers having 1–10 years of experience. The remaining 41% of teachers at the study site had between 11 or more years of teaching experience and were well into their careers. The likelihood that teachers in this subset would leave the profession due to leadership practices was low.

External influences on teachers leaving or staying at the school or in the profession of teaching, beyond the impact of school building leadership, were purposefully mitigated. Teachers who coach a sport or lead an extracurricular activity such as band or theater were not sampled because of the sometimes-high turnover rate that may be influenced outside of a school such as community pressures or people leaving to improve their professional standing. Likewise, these teachers may choose to stay at the school, or in the teaching profession, because of their commitment to an extracurricular activity or personal commitment and beliefs.

Only teachers who taught a full schedule of core academic classes (math, science, social studies, or English) and who were not directly supervised by the researcher were included in the sample pool. Teachers who have full teaching schedules of core academic classes were chosen

because of the impact that building leadership plays in influencing and supporting teacher success in academic areas of school accountability. There were 37 possible teachers who received requests to participate in the study because they met the purposive sampling criteria. Fifteen teachers indicated that they wanted to take part in the study. See Appendix E for the demographic characteristics of each study participant.

Research Methodology and Analysis

According to Adams and Lawrence (2015), a qualitative methodological approach is a good way to gather nonnumerical data that can identify relationships among variables, usually in a verbal account or descriptive manner. Qualitative research allows a researcher to develop holistic understandings of rich, contextual, and mostly unstructured data (Mason, 2002) through the process of unstructured conversations with research participants in a comfortable and natural setting (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Broad questions give participants leeway to answer with more depth, which in turn allows a researcher to develop detailed views of the participants and their experiences. The researcher then analyzes and codes the data collected during interviews, surveys, and observations to interpret their meaning while drawing on their own reflections and past research (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

A key defining feature of case study research is its focus on how and why questions (Myers, 2009), which makes the approach ideal for descriptive and exploratory studies (Mouton, 2001). As Bordens and Abbott (2008) pointed out, case studies deal with information that wrestles with issues of perceptions and interactions, as well as with ideas where numerical data may not yield the same outcomes. In addition, case studies can address questions in much greater detail by using one, all, or a mix of surveys, observations, and interviews (Yin, 1994).

A strength of case study research is that the methodology is both flexible and adaptive, allowing for single or multiple methods of data collection (Cavaye, 1996; Davies, 2007). The various methods of data collection may include direct observation, participant observation, interviews, focus groups, document sources, archives, and other physical artifacts (Mouton, 2001; Myers, 2009). However, data triangulation must use multiple sources of data with multiple participants whenever possible (Yin, 1994). Using multiple data sources and participants permits meaningful insights to be identified (Myers, 2009). Other advantages of case study methodology include rapport-building with the participants (Mouton, 2001), acquiring rich, transferable descriptions that allow inferences to be drawn for similar situations (Merriam, 1998), and in-depth insight into participant interviews with clarifying questions and opportunities to ask for elaboration.

While hypotheses are not usually developed in a case study, the insights gained from case-based research may prove applicable for use in future research. In this study, no formal hypotheses were identified; however, there were several expected findings. The researcher anticipated that teacher participants would define their respective ideas of transformational leadership but would be unaware of the differences between transformational and distributed leadership practices in their school. However, the researcher also expected that the MLQ would reveal some aspects of transformational leadership occurring in the school along with some transactional leadership practices. Finally, the researcher expected that participants would largely have high levels of job satisfaction with the leadership practices in their school.

Once the Institutional Review Board and the school district research review committee both approved the pool of the 37 potential candidates identified through purposive sampling, the researcher sent an email advising them of the study's purpose and process along with a consent

form and the district's approval of the study. The email requested that potential candidates respond if they were interested in participating in the study. Because of the timeline of the study, potential candidates who did not respond to the original email within three days were disqualified from participating. Because of the position of the researcher in the organization, no attempts were made to follow up with nonrespondents to guard against any possible perceptions of coercion. The researcher did immediately follow up with each responsive candidate in person to obtain a signed consent form for the study and set up an interview day and time out of working hours.

A second email was then sent to interested study participants with links to the preinterview questionnaire and MLQ, which had to be completed before the semistructured interview took place. The presurvey, MLQ, and voice files have been placed under lock and key away from the study site to protect participant privacy and ensure security of the data; they will be kept for three years from the date of the close of the study—June 2018. The presurveys took candidates about 10–15 minutes to finish, the MLQ took approximately 20 minutes to complete, and interviews averaged about 15–20 minutes. Once the presurvey, MLQ, and face-to-face interviews were complete, the data collection phase was complete. Every study participant completed the preinterview survey, MLQ, and interview. All data collection was completed within 14 days.

For all participants, alpha coding was used to make data sets unidentifiable. According to Concordia University policy and procedures for conducting doctoral research, the preinterview open-ended response questionnaire was delivered through Qualtrics to participants. Qualtrics is an enterprise research platform used to deliver online surveys and questionnaires that are vetted and approved by Concordia University–Portland. Mind Garden,

Inc. delivered the MLQ to participants. The semistructured interviews were digitally recorded by me and transcribed using intelligent transcription to edit out the fillers and repetitions that can distract from the content of an interview. The aim of an intelligent interview transcript is accuracy of the substance of the research interview, considering the meanings and perceptions created and shared during a conversation. The researcher read the transcribed interviews several times to become extremely familiar with the contents of the documents.

The open-ended presurvey questions, MLQ group report, and transcribed interviews were loaded into the NVivo (Version 11) analytical software. The MLQ norm-referenced leadership group report was used instead of individual feedback reports because overall themes were being considered and not individual leadership patterns. Data used for norm-referenced MLQ profiles were represented as standardized t-scores. NVivo is specifically designed to work with qualitative, unstructured data by digitally organizing and storing multiple sources of rich data. Specifically, the software assists with the coding of open-ended question matrices to allow comparison of the answers of different types of respondents. Review of transcripts of semistructured interviews can reveal key topics and themes using text search and word frequency queries.

Thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2014) was used to triangulate all three data sets. As outlined by Braun and Clarke (2014), applied thematic analysis occurs in six stages: (a) familiarizing yourself with the data, (b) coding the data, (c) searching for themes in the data, (d) reviewing themes that arise, (e) defining and naming themes, and (f) writing up the evaluation. It is important to note here that a grounded theory approach was applied as a general strategy for coding in this case study.

Coding occurred in three distinct phases: open, axial, and selective (Strauss and Corbin, as cited in Creswell & Poth, 2018). Grounded theory offers a process for identifying categories based on information (open coding), then connecting the categories (axial coding) to allow a narrative to emerge that ties the categories together (selective coding). The narrative, or themes, may then be analyzed and applied over a variety of epistemological foundations (Braun & Clarke, 2014) for examination and theoretical propositions. When looking specifically at the semistructured interviews, thematic data saturation was used to collect data until no new patterns or themes were emerging from the data (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012).

The two data sets—the presurvey of 15 participants with four qualitative questions for each and the in-depth semistructured interviews—were coded. Analysis of data collected using the MLQ group report was also coded. An analysis was then conducted on the presurvey responses and semistructured interview of each participant. Triangulation was then used with the MLQ analysis to determine whether the findings confirmed the MLQ analysis or identified additional hidden factors and structures in leadership styles and outcomes. The qualitative analysis and coding of the presurvey and semistructured interview data sets was specifically conducted in the following steps (see Appendix F):

1. Line-by-line coding: Select the dominant word from each line of code.
2. Focused coding: Categorize the data based on similarity or shared themes.
3. Axial coding: The creation of themes and subthemes and explaining relation.

The data were reduced to a manageable set of themes or categories using coding and condensing. The data were then reviewed, and nodes were created within NVivo (Version 11). Nodes represent categories that have arisen in the data. The two most common types of node are

tree nodes (codes that are organized in a hierarchical structure) and free nodes (freestanding and not associated with a structured framework of themes or concepts).

When the coding was completed, the data were ready to develop findings. This last phase of the data analysis, the representation and visualization of the data, included developing descriptions for the data, classification of the data into themes, and interpretation of the data. As a point of reference, themes were developed against the MLQ's three broad categories of leadership measurement: transformational leadership, transactional leadership and passive-avoidant behaviors.

Themes were developed according to the MLQ because of its validity and reliability as the accepted instrument for measuring transformational leadership, a primary component in this study. Each category differs in the nature of the associated leadership behaviors and expected outcomes, as shown in Table 2, which is taken from the *Multifactor Leadership QuestionnaireTM Rater Only Group Report* (see Appendix G).

The MLQ also measures three outcomes of leadership. The instrument measured teachers' perceptions of what is provided by the leader according to categories of:

- extra effort;
- individual, unit, and organizational effectiveness ratings; and
- satisfaction with leadership.

It is important to note that feedback is first profiled against researched benchmarks of the optimal frequency for each style. Comparisons are then provided with universal norms. Of the leadership styles and outcome scales contained in the MLQ, eight measure behaviors which can be practiced; the ninth is *builds trust*, which measures important concepts that are attributed to the leaders by their raters (e.g., that they instill pride in others for being associated with them).

Fundamental to the full-range leadership model is that every leader displays each measured style to some degree. The leader with an optimal profile infrequently displays *avoids involvement* leadership. An optimal profile shows increased frequencies of *fights fires*, *monitors deviations and mistakes*, and *rewards achievement*. The transformational leadership styles are used most frequently in an optimal leadership profile include: *builds trust*, *acts with integrity*, *encourages others*, *encourages innovative thinking*, and *coaches and develops people*.

Table 2

The MLQ Category Measurements

Category	Label	Code
Transformational leadership		
The 5 Is		
Builds trust	Idealized Influence—attributes	IIA
Acts with integrity	Idealized influence—behaviors	IIB
Encourages others	Inspirational motivation	IM
Encourages innovative thinking	Intellectual stimulation	IS
Coaches & develops people	Individualized consideration	IC
Transactional leadership		
Constructive		
Rewards achievement	Contingent reward	CR
Corrective		
Monitors deviations & mistakes	Management-by-exception: active	MBEA
Passive-avoidant behaviors		
Passive		
Fights Fires	Management-by-exception: passive	MBEP
Avoidant		

Avoids Involvement	Laissez-faire	LF
<i>Note.</i> Adapted from <i>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Only Group Report</i> , by B. M.		

Bass and B. J. Avolio, 2018, City, ST: Mind Garden, p. 3. Copyright 1996, 2003, 2015 by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio.

While distributed leadership is not explicitly measured like transformational leadership in the MLQ, attributes of this leadership style are still measured in the instrument. Closely associated with transformational leadership, and also called shared or participative leadership, distributed leadership is the process by which a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Distributed leadership organizations establish democratic networks, align decisions with common vision, have a relatively flat or open organizationally structure, and share power and influence.

Summary of the Findings

Using the four research questions as guides, which also served as the basis for the preinterview survey and semistructured interview questions, the purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The study used a preinterview questionnaire, the MLQ, and semistructured interviews to capture teacher perceptions. The data gathered and analyzed in this research helped to gain an understanding of the impact of school-based leadership on teacher job satisfaction levels at the high school level in the United States generally and the state of Texas specifically.

Furthermore, this research validated parts of the information presented in the literature review of Chapter 2, specifically the way that transformational leadership is characterized by a clear focus on the role of leadership in the development of followers (Dansereau et al., 1995), which increases teacher motivation and creativity in a school (Burns, 1978). Expected findings, as identified in Chapter 3, were that teachers would be unaware of the differences between transformational and distributed leadership practices in their school, there would be evidence of transformational and distributed leadership behaviors occurring in the school, and teacher job satisfaction would be high. The expectations were all met, as seen in the results of the preinterview questionnaire, MLQ, and interviews.

Preinterview Questionnaire

The preinterview questionnaire was designed to reveal the perceptions and understandings of leadership practices and behaviors that teachers had of their school. The survey required participants to answer four short questions about leadership on their campus. For the first questions, overall responses revealed that teachers felt that leadership structures and practices in the school made them feel able to accomplish their jobs, with 87% of the participants answering in the affirmative. This common perception is captured in Participant A responded, “I believe that Leadership Structures in place at Seguin High School have improved my ability to accomplish various tasks that are related to teaching.” Teachers also specifically cited perceptions of how leadership used their feedback and opinions in managing the school. Participant E said, “Those in leadership roles at our school practice open door policies and always welcome feedback, concerns, suggestions, etc.” Participant F stated that he or she felt supported by administration and “encouraged to be innovative in the classroom, and even if a lesson does not go the way I planned, I can be reflective and continue to improve.”

Two participants, or 13% of teachers in the study, did not feel that leadership structures made it easier to do their job. Participant M focused on communication as an issue, saying that “I believe that leaders at my school all have the best of intentions, but often do not communicate with each other resulting in contradicting messages being given from one leader to the next.”

This sentiment was echoed by Participant N, who said that the

autonomy often makes my job easier, but the lack of communication can make it more difficult. An example is giving last minute instruction to make parent phone calls and log them during specific hours on specific days with less than 24-hour notice.

As to whether leadership structures of the school impact teacher job satisfaction positively, negatively, or not at all, 87% of study participants again answered in the affirmative. Participant I captured several respondents’ views by saying that the structures positively impacted their job satisfaction. Participant I went on to explain that

if it wasn’t for the leadership structures provided within my school, I don’t believe I would have been as successful as I was with my students this year. The confidence my leadership structure has instilled within me has, in turn, enabled me to pass that confidence along to my students.

Participant J believed that leadership structures positively impacted his or her job satisfaction, but also that leadership in the central office counteract these decisions and structures. Participant J went on to explain that he or she “[feels] like several ideas that could positively influence our students’ scores and attitudes tend to be approved by our campus administration, but central office tends to reject these ideas without giving proper reasons.” Participant E felt that “the structures in place are helpful in some areas while not beneficial in others. . . . [For example] it is my personal feeling the PLCs during conference

times are too frequent, it does not negatively impact me.” Participant B had a slightly different take on leadership structures not having an impact, stating that the “leadership structures that the school has in place do not have any affect [*sic*] on my job satisfaction as I have very few interactions with them.”

The question regarding whether PLCs in the school impacted teacher job satisfaction positively, negatively, or not at all produced mixed perceptions. Only one teacher, or 7% of the study sample, felt explicitly negative about PLCs. Participant H expressed strong emotions against PLCS, saying that “PLCs were a waste of time. That is why we never did them again after like 3 months of it.” Participant H was referring to cross-curricular PLCs that occurred every other week, were provided with problems of practice from school administration, and included approximately 8–10 teachers with a lead teacher facilitator. Problems of practice mainly focused on school-wide issues like discipline and other issues of school culture. So-called super PLCs occurred about once a month with 2–3 cross-curricular PLCs at one time. Super PLCs focused on compliance and training, like standardized testing preparation and special education. Regardless of whether a PLC was cross-curricular or a Super PLC, it occurred during the school day during a teacher’s planning period.

All other study participants, 93% of the sample, expressed conflicting perspectives on PLCs. For example, Participant F wrote:

PLCs are as strong as the members. I feel that PLCs with my [English 1] team are positive. We are comfortable with each other and support each other, so our conversations are open, honest, and solution-based. [Cross curricular] PLCs have been somewhat ineffective because some members do not care to participate, and others simply want to complain without being open to solutions.

Participant J wrote:

PLCs can be a mixed bag when it comes to how they impact my job as an educator.

While I have had strong PLC Leaders over the last two years, the effectiveness of a PLC tends to depend on the members that make up the PLC. I am always open to hearing new ideas and collaborating with a team to make our school a better place. Unfortunately, not all teachers feel this way. When I have been a part of an open minded and collaborative PLC, then I felt like the PLC impacted my job positively. When the majority of the PLC refuses to be open to new ideologies and teaching methods/activities, then the entire PLC suffers.

Participant O expressed a slightly different take on the same perception of ineffective PLCs but saw the issue as one of leadership. Participant O wrote that PLCs do not accomplish what they were intended to at the study site,

which [was] to give teachers an opportunity to work together to improve their practices.

Our PLCs instead have become more of a memo, where administration just delivers messages to the staff and doesn't really give us a time to build each other up.

The fourth question of the preinterview questionnaire asked teachers whether their experiences with leadership structures and practices at the study site caused them to consider staying or leaving the profession of teaching. Most respondents, 73%, expressed positive, specific feelings about leadership structures and practices at the study site influencing them to stay in the teaching profession. Participant L explained that

one of the main reasons I have enjoyed teaching so much over the last 3 years is because of the leadership structures and practices. Having all the principals know each teacher by

name and always checking in if they can help is amazing. I also have the PLC leaders and my instructional coach that I can lean on and ask for advice any time I need it.

Participant K also said that leadership structures and practices have caused him or her to consider staying in the teaching profession longer. Participant K said that “[I] have found great satisfaction in the fact that we are constantly learning. We learn how to be better educators and better co-workers.” Participant I acknowledged being significantly influenced by leadership practices and structures to stay in the profession of teaching. Participant I wrote:

Had it not been for the autonomy and leadership structures and practices at this school I would more than likely not consider continuing my career as a high school educator, or my decision to continuing teaching at my respective school.

Four of the respondents, or 27% of the sample, felt very strongly that leadership structures and practices do not have any impact on making them want to leave or stay in the profession of teaching. Participant B felt that leadership at the study site “has never made me consider leaving teaching. I do not teach for the leaders at my school, I teach for the students. I would not allow the politics of being a teacher affect how I feel about teaching.” Participant H wrote that they stay in the teaching profession “because I LOVE my job, not because of some leadership structure.” Participant G had one of the strongest responses to the question: “No leadership structure could ever take away my passion for teaching. If anyone answers this question differently, they don’t deserve a classroom next year.”

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

In addition to a preinterview questionnaire, study participants were asked to complete the MLQ instrument by Mind Garden, Inc. The MLQ responses are presented in a group format to reveal trends in the data. The charts that follow represent the highest rated area in the MLQ,

according to the strongest reported area of leadership in the study, transformational leadership. Although little evidence of transactional leadership was found at the site through the instrument, some aspects of the leadership style that align with distributed leadership characteristics were noted and outlined in the following. The green lines, or validated benchmarks at the bottom of each chart, are driven by thousands of research studies which show which leadership behaviors are most powerful in achieving the best outcomes with followers and associates.



Figure 1. Transformational leadership behaviors at study site.

Note that, according to the research-validated benchmark, the ideal frequency of all five transformational behaviors should be a *fairly often* rating of 3 or greater. Each rating category represents a 3.2–3.5, indicating a high level of transformational leadership perceived by teachers in the study. Also, rater scores for the highest rated transformational leadership categories were between 0.04 and 0.07 standard deviations, indicating a high agreement among group ratings.

In terms of the MLQ rating system, transformational leadership is a process of influencing in which leaders change their follower’s awareness of what is important and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way.

Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimize individual, group, and organizational development and innovation—not to merely perform at expectations. They convince their followers to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher moral and ethical standards. According to the MLQ optimal profile of a transformational leadership style, a leader's profile will include: builds trust, acts with integrity, encourages others, encourages innovative thinking, and coaches and develops people.

It is important to note here that the MLQ uses several attributes and behaviors to measure transformational leadership which are often used to describe distributed leadership. For example, the builds trust (idealized influence attributes [IIA]) measurement refers to leaders who are able to build trust in their followers. These leaders are seen to inspire power and pride in their followers by going beyond their own individual interests and focusing on the interests of the group by articulating a compelling vision of the future. Likewise, encourages innovative thinking (intellectual stimulation [IS]) describes leaders who foster follower innovation and creativity by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. There is no ridicule or public criticism of individual members' mistakes. New ideas and creative solutions to problems are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Also, coaches and develops people (individual consideration [IC]) depicts leaders who pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers are developed to higher levels of potential by creating new learning opportunities in a supportive climate. Much like distributed leadership, individual differences in needs and desires are recognized, where followers are treated as individuals rather than as a group. For this reason, Timperley (2005) wrote that the issue is the

question of “whether [transformational leadership] is a sub-set of [distributed leadership]” (p. 397) or the other way around.

Closely associated with transformational leadership, and also called shared or participative leadership, distributed leadership is the process in which a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Influence and power are shared, and structures reflect group equality. Closely aligned with distributed leadership, and often referred to as distributed leadership, participative leadership is the process of a leader creating democratic networks where influence and power are distributed or shared when making decisions that are aligned with a common organizational vision; members in the organization support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

A participative leader creates a healthy organization by exhibiting supportive behaviors, instituting group decision-making, and maintaining open communications and information flow across all levels of the organization (Lorsch & Trooboff, 1989). The key here is that a leader’s authority still must be evident, but a clearly shared power structure exists in all group decision-making and problem-solving (Lorsch & Trooboff, 1989). This means that the traditional relationship between principals and teachers becomes a collaborative one that invites all members of a school community to participate in the creation of a healthy school environment (Pepper & Thomas, 2002; Razik & Swanson, 2010; Somech, 2010).

Figure 2. Transformational leadership behaviors compared against MLQ norms.

shows participants’ perceptions of the frequency of behaviors the leaders they rated exhibited

compared to various norms for the MLQ. The universal norms represent data from 27,285 previous raters who completed the MLQ.



Figure 2. Transformational leadership behaviors compared against MLQ norms.

Study participants consistently rated leadership at the study site above MLQ validated norms. As a category, scores averaged 3.36 compared to the instrument's norm of 2.86.

Transactional leadership behaviors were also found through the MLQ at the study site, as shown in Figure 3. Transactional leadership behaviors at the study site.. Take note that according to the research-validated benchmark, the ideal frequency of rewards achievement behaviors should be between *sometimes* and *fairly often* (2.0– 3.0). Rewards achievement (contingent reward [CR]) refers to leaders who frequently reward achievement tending to clarify expectations and offering recognition when goals are achieved. This should result in individuals and groups achieving expected levels of performance. Monitors deviations and mistakes (management-by-exception: active) refers to a leadership style that specifies the standards for

compliance, as well as what constitutes ineffective performance, and may punish followers for being out of compliance with those standards. This style of leadership implies close monitoring for deviations, mistakes, and errors and immediate corrective action when any of these are detected.

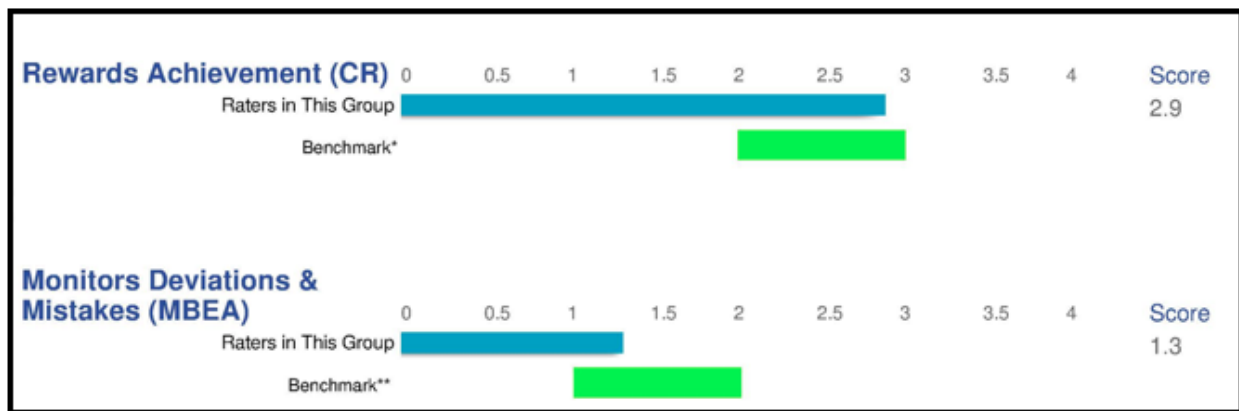


Figure 3. Transactional leadership behaviors at the study site.

Respondents reported a combined frequency of rewards at 2.3, still within ideal rewards achievement. Rater scores for the transactional leadership categories were between 1.0 and 1.1 standard deviations, indicating agreement amongst the group ratings.

Figure 4 shows participants' perceptions of the frequency of behaviors that leaders they rated exhibited compared to various norms for the MLQ. Again, the universal norms represent data from 27,285 previous raters who completed the MLQ.

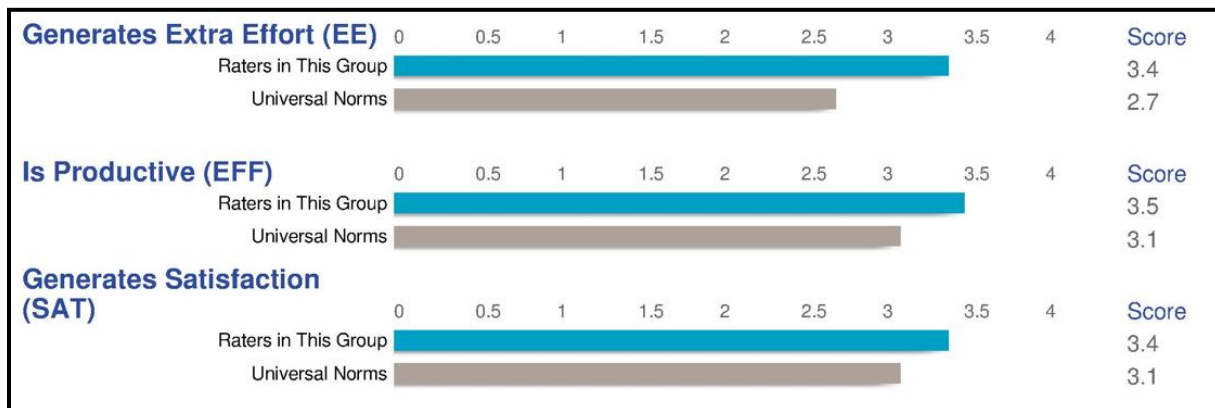


Figure 4. Transactional leadership behaviors compared against MLQ norms.

Transactional leaders display behaviors associated with two transaction styles measured by the MLQ: constructive (rewards achievement) and corrective (monitors deviations and mistakes). Transactional leadership traditionally defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Providing rewards for achievement and monitoring deviations and mistakes are two core behaviors associated with traditional ideas of management functions in organizations. It is not unusual to find leaders who rate high in transformational leadership also use this style when necessary.

Transformational and transactional leadership are both related to the success of the group. The transactional leadership outcomes (generates extra effort, is productive, and generates satisfaction) are desired results of positive leadership associated with influencing follower satisfaction. Numerous scientific studies have shown that these outcomes—and many others, such as productivity, innovation, and sales performance—are achieved at the highest levels when transformational leadership is used.

Figure 5 shows the measured outcomes of leadership behaviors of the two most highly rated leadership styles in the study, transformational and transactional leadership. Generates extra effort (extra effort [EE]) signifies that this leadership style is able to generate extra effort in followers. Extra effort here refers to the desire of followers to strive for superior performance by acting beyond their job expectations. Is productive signifies that this leadership style is efficient. Efficient leaders effectively represent the group to higher organizational levels, are efficient in meeting organizational objectives, and generate a higher efficiency in all the domains with which they are involved. Generates satisfaction (satisfaction with the leadership [SAT]) means that this leadership style is able to generate

satisfaction in followers. These leaders are warm, nurturing, open, authentic, and honest, with good interpersonal and social skills. They are capable of developing feelings of job and organizational satisfaction in their followers.

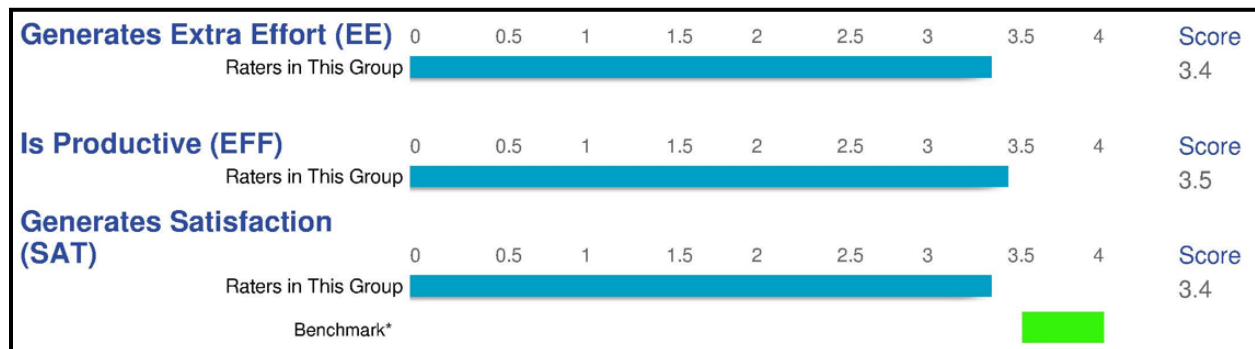


Figure 5. Outcomes of leadership behaviors at the study site.

According to the research-validated benchmark, the strongest leaders achieve rated frequencies for the above outcomes of 3.5 or greater. Participants rated leaders' outcomes of leadership behaviors for generates extra effort, is productive, and generates satisfaction collectively at 3.4, 3.5, and 3.4, respectively. Although the ratings were high in this category, they were just at or slightly below the MLQ validated benchmark. Rater scores for this category were between 0.06 and 0.09 standard deviations, indicating a high agreement amongst the group rating.

Study participants collectively rated leaders at the research site consistently higher in every area compared to MLQ norms. For example, generates extra effort was rated at 3.4 compared to 2.7, is productive was 3.5 compared to 3.1, and generates satisfaction was 3.4 compared to 3.1. Figure 6 shows the measured outcomes of leadership behaviors of the two most highly rated leadership styles in the study, transformational and transactional leadership, against MLQ established norms.

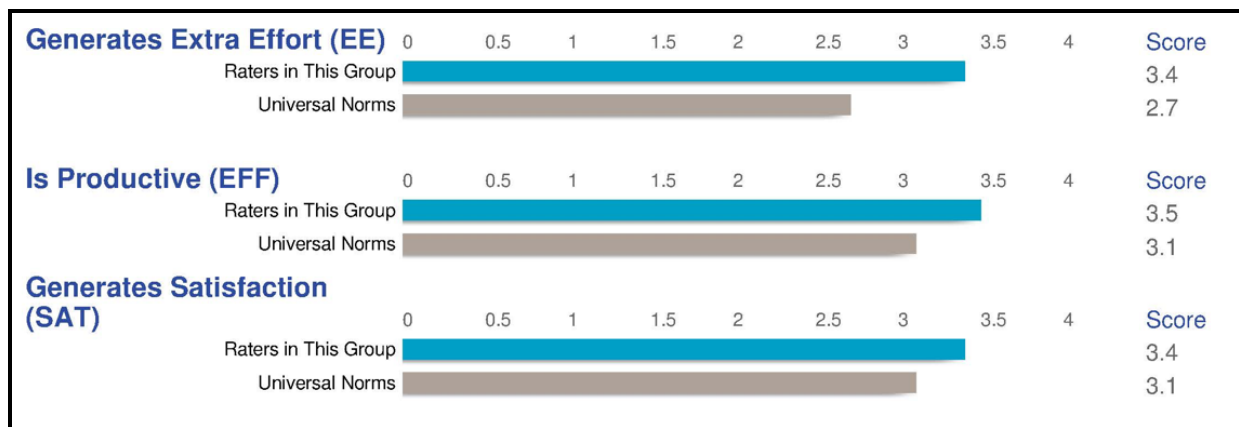


Figure 6. Outcomes of leadership compared against MLQ norms.

Of the most frequently observed behaviors, the top two were encourages others and builds trust, at 3.6 and 3.5, respectively. The 10 least frequently observed leadership behaviors rated by study participants are listed in Table 4. This table shows transformational leadership areas that raters in the study perceived that their leaders could develop. Of the least frequently observed behaviors, the least were act with integrity and coaches and develops people, both at 2.3. The 10 most frequently observed leadership behaviors rated by study participants are shown in Table 3 (below).

Semistructured Interviews

The semistructured interview responses resulted in four main themes emerging:

1. Most teachers in the study were not sure what transformational leadership was or if it was occurring on the study site.
2. Most teachers in the study were clear what distributed leadership was and that it was occurring on the study site.
3. Teachers in the study saw PLCs as both positive and negative, having some impact on their job satisfaction.

4. The majority of teachers in the study reported that leadership at the school site was positive and felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession.

Table 3

Most Frequently Observed Leadership Behaviors

Scale	Item	Score
Encourages others (IM)	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	3.6
Builds trust (IIA)	Displays a sense of power and confidence	3.5
Acts with integrity (IIB)	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	3.5
Builds trust (IIA)	Acts in ways that builds my respect	3.5
Coaches & develops people (IC)	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	3.5
Coaches & develops people (IC)	Helps me to develop my strengths	3.4
Encourage others (IM)	Talks optimistically about the future	3.4
Acts with integrity (IIB)	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	3.3
Encourages innovative thinking (IS)	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	3.3
Encourages others (IM)	Articulates a compelling vision of the future	3.3

Regarding Theme 1, being able to identify and explain transformational leadership, three (20%) study participants were able to define and give accurate examples, four (27%) could not define it but did give accurate examples, and eight (53%) could not define or give accurate examples of the leadership style. One of the teachers who could define and provide accurate examples, Participant G, said:

Transformational leadership is going to be leaders that are inspiring a change, and that change is going to be not limited to just one area, so not just academics, but also the relationship building within the community, with the students, with the teachers, and faculty, and staff together. Transformational leadership is going to be that leadership that

is ultimately going to have a significant change on how things are done within the building.

Table 4

Least Frequently Observed Leadership Behaviors

Scale	Item	Score
Acts with integrity (IIB)	Talks about their most important values and beliefs	2.3
Coaches & develops people (IC)	Spends time teaching and coaching	2.3
Acts with integrity (IIB)	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	2.9
Encourages innovative thinking (IS)	Reexamines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	3.0
Encourages others (IM)	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	3.2
Builds trust (IIA)	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	3.2
Coaches & develops people (IC)	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	3.2
Encourages innovative thinking (IS)	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	3.2
Encourages innovative thinking (IS)	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	3.3
Builds trust (IIA)	Instills pride in me for being associated with him or her	3.3

Participant G went on to identify examples of his or her definition as,

the constant support that we receive from administration to collaborate with our colleagues, as well as making sure that we are work - as teachers we are working with teachers not just in our department, but we are working across content areas.

Participant J echoed these sentiments, saying that “transformational leadership is leadership that tries to bring people together, tries to increase morale, and tries to get everybody to work together for one common purpose or goal.” Participant E directly tied transformational leadership to

PLCs: “PLCs offer new ways to be trained and Super PLCs that help teachers support each other,

but that way leaders are also able to generate ideas and take those ideas and apply them.”

The participants who could not define transformational leadership did accurately associate it with PLCs. Participant F said that,

PLCs [and] having PLC facilitators is an example of transformational or distributive leadership because you have people who are normal—they are regular classroom teachers, but they are put in a sort of, not in a supervisory role, but more of a—they help to direct the conversation in professional learning communities.

Participant I identified transformational leadership practices as,

when we meet up with PLCs - throughout the week it's usually on Thursdays. We meet up in the war room or in the library over here. And all that information that is given to us from other leaders, that's transformation leadership.

Participant M, one of the study participants who could not define or give accurate examples of the leadership style, succinctly summed up what several teachers stated: “Honestly, I don't know what transformational leadership is.” Respondent's guesses as to examples of transformational leadership at the study site ranged from being able to talk with colleagues to instructional strategies in the classroom.

In terms of Theme 2, 14 study participants (93%) gave accurate definitions of distributed leadership, with more than half of the sample teachers (57%) tying their definition directly to PLCs. For example, Participant O said,

Distributed leadership is this idea that transformational leadership can't be done just by one person. And so that this model of growth is held by a lot of people in different standings and can be spread throughout the school. That with someone who is not even formally in a leadership position can still hope and help carry on his improvement in the

school. . . . I think the number of initiatives that allow teachers to join various task forces, having our input at different PLCs in ways that we are able to all have a voice and communication to what happens.

Participant B pointed to,

leader teachers who . . . can relate since they are in the classroom with you or just like you. . . . I know at any level if I needed help with something, I could go to assistant principal or another teacher or the principal and they would all, you know, be willing to help and be a leader.

Only one teacher (7%), Participant J, could not define distributed leadership and compared the leadership style to campus administration instructional walkthrough evaluations in teacher classrooms.

With regard to Theme 3, teachers in the study see PLCs as both positive and negative and having some impact on their job satisfaction. Five study respondents (33%) stated that PLCs were positive and had positive impacts in their job satisfaction. Nine respondents (60%) said that PLCs were both good and bad with mixed impact on job satisfaction. One teacher (7%) did not perceive PLCs as good or bad, nor did they have any impact on the teacher's job satisfaction.

Of the teachers who felt that PLCs were positive and had positive impact in their job satisfaction, Participant C reiterated two recurring themes from other teachers who shared the same perspective, which were support from different people in the organization and continuing learning. Participant C said:

I definitely think that [PLCs] help because I'm getting to interact with different people and get different ideas. If I'm talking about instruction, I know that I can come to [administrators], but I can also go to [assistant principals] if I'm talking about SPED. I

think that transformational leadership practices like PLCs help allow me to do my job better. I think that meeting with different people and having different PLCs on different aspects of things really help me learn a lot.

It is important to note here that nearly half (40%) of the study participants who perceived that PLCs were both good and bad with mixed impacts on job satisfaction also specifically connected PLCs with distributed leadership exclusively. Participant E said that PLCs were good and bad because

a lot of it also tends to fall on who the leaders are that it's being distributed to. . . . So I can say for two years I have been in two different PLCs, and I have had awesome leaders for both, but I can tell you one year I have had a group that no matter how good the leader is, if the group don't basically take responsibility, not just individually but as a whole to make the group better, it's not going to be better. No matter how great the leader is leading, because basically you have to not just have a leader, you have to have individual members that are having some of that leadership even if it is different responsibilities distributed to them and they have to become their own leader in that sense.

Participant D echoed this mixed-impact approach for distributed leadership, explaining that,

I wouldn't say it has neither helped nor hurt me. The time is taken away from planning per se, which therefore that can kind of hinder me if I'm set back, but I wouldn't say it has been a disservice.

Participant D went on explain that the PLCs they took part in were used to:

kind of brainstorm and give [our PLC leader] ideas to take back to the administration.

Sometimes our ideas are heard, sometimes they're not. I would say it's kind of a 50-50 if [PLCs] are productive or not, if that makes sense.

Participant I, who neither perceived PLCs as good or bad, nor perceived them to have any impact on job satisfaction, also served as a PLC leader. Participant I said,

Well, it's been unclear what PLCs [should] look like. . . . [but] I really like the idea of different disciplines coming together and talking. In practice though, we have a bunch of negative attitudes and people that don't—teachers that don't necessarily have a growth mindset that just turned into a complaining session. So, it's speaking to a room with a bunch of bumps on a log. . . . So it wasn't anything that could build us up.

Theme 4 revealed that 12 participants (80%) perceived leadership at the school site as positive and felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession specifically because of their experience. Three teachers (20%) said that leadership had no effect on their decision to stay in teaching. Although teachers that felt leadership had positively impacted them, they did not explicitly point to the practice of PLCs as influencing them to stay in teaching. They did speak about leadership at the school that supported and encouraged them as educators. For example, Participant M said,

I would definitely say stay [in the teaching profession]. There's been times where, not at this school but at other places, where administration has definitely curbed me to move out of the district or out of the school, but it's never curbed me to change fields. But here, they encourage us to think creatively, to grow professionally, to think beyond just the classroom what our future is going to be. And I think that's important as far as being in the teaching profession.

Participant G said that collaborating with the school's administration's leadership structures and strategies made them feel encouraged to stay in the teaching profession because they felt very supported, which was really important to them. Participant G specifically stated,

I know who to go to get help; I know what's expected of me from the different leaders.

And for the most part that's a consistent expectation. So, I appreciate that. . . . I see consistent expectations from one administrator to another, and that's really beneficial for me.

The recurring themes of support, structure, and personal relationships surfaced in many responses of study participants as reasons why they felt encouraged to stay in teaching.

The teachers who perceived that leadership had no effect on their decision to stay in teaching largely justified that attitude by citing personal beliefs and a deep-seated conviction for teaching. For example, Participant F said,

There's absolutely nothing you can do that would make me want to stop being a teacher, and there's not much you can do to make me want to keep being a teacher. I don't teach for you or for anybody, I teach for my kids. I'm here for them and this is, I mean, any teacher who would answer that question differently doesn't deserve a classroom next year. We're here for them. I will teach out of a cardboard box in Africa. I don't care. I am here to teach kids English, that's all I care about.

Participant I echoed this sentiment, "Well, I'll stay to be a teacher because I love my job, instead of a thing of about leaderships and stuff." Participant N explained that leadership alone did not influence their decision to leave or remain in the profession because "teaching is an internal joy for me."

Presentation of Data and Results

For the purpose of data triangulation, all preinterview responses, MLQ answers, and transcribed semistructured interviews were uploaded to NVivo (Version 11) to find emergent themes. Themes were developed according to the MLQ because of its validity and reliability as the accepted instrument for measuring transformational leadership, a primary component in this study. The categories that were considered are outlined in full in Table 2.

Data triangulation revealed themes of high levels of transformational leadership and distributed leadership practices and behaviors occurring on the study site. For example, under transformational leadership, subcategories of builds trust, acts with integrity, encourages others, and coaches and develops people, triangulation found that teachers repeatedly had the following occurring perceptions. Numbers in parentheses represent the number of times teachers presented this topic across all data sets:

- their leaders being able to create shared vision (5),
- participative decision-making (5),
- teacher's leadership being valued (6),
- decentralization of leadership being useful (12),
- teachers being treated as individuals (12),
- administration being supportive of teachers and their needs (14),
- distributed leadership on campus having a positive impact (14), and
- decentralization of leadership facilitating mentoring relationships (20).

Data triangulation also revealed that PLCs were a recurring theme in the study. Triangulation showed that:

- small PLCs either become faculty meetings or venues for teachers to air their

resentments and complaints (4);

- sometimes PLC member behaviors are negative (10), which results in waste of time (5) instead of productive participative learning;
- PLCs are distributed leadership (14);
- PLC direction is inconsistent—with formats and procedures being changed arbitrarily without input from teachers and co-opted in favor of administrative leadership (17);
- small-group PLCs were not seen as very useful or a waste of time (21);
- in many cases, teachers do not consider PLCs as useful but only as venues of venting out frustration (24); and
- large-group learning for teachers (super PLCs) was seen by teachers as very useful (28).

A recurring connection that teachers in the study perceived was that distributed leadership is associated strongly with PLCs. Transformational leadership practices did not surface as being as strongly associated with PLCs as distributed leadership. In terms of transformational leadership and distributed leadership outcomes for generating follower satisfaction, respondents indicated that they were very happy, with repeated mentions of high retention and enthusiasm (18).

As was stated in Chapter 3, transformational leadership describes a set of practices that enhance the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass 1985; Burns 1978; Northouse, 2013). Likewise, distributed leadership is closely associated with transformational leadership and is the process by which a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn

from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). The emergent themes in this study show that these two types of leadership were occurring at the school in the eyes of the study participants. Much aligned with the semistructured interview emergent themes, data triangulation of all three data sets demonstrated that the four reoccurring perceptions in the study were:

1. Teachers very positively perceived transformational leadership behaviors even though they were not able to fully describe the leadership style in their own words.
2. Most teachers in the study were clear what distributed leadership was, that it was occurring on the study site, and that PLCs represented it.
3. Teachers in the study viewed PLCs as both positive and negative and as having some impact on their job satisfaction.
4. The majority of teachers in the study felt appreciated or respected as individuals, appreciated administrative support, found the distributed leadership helpful, felt mentored as professionals, and thus felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession.

The four emergent themes from the data processing and triangulation analysis, and their implications, will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 5.

Summary

The study revealed that almost all the participants in the sample felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession because of the transformational and distributed leadership structures and practices that were occurring at the school. This finding was consistent with the available research that points to high levels of teacher job satisfaction where transformational and distributed leadership styles are implemented (Bennett et al., 2003; Leithwood et al., 1999; Pounder, 2008; Rost, 1993). Teachers were also able to point to accurate examples of distributed

leadership practices on the campus and felt that they had a mostly positive impact. However, teachers could not accurately explain transformational leadership practices, though they did describe positive leadership behaviors and structures that were examples of the style without specifically knowing that they were doing it. In fact, the triangulated data sets revealed several emergent themes that are expressly components of transformational leadership, such as creating a shared vision, feeling supported, and being valued as professionals.

Likewise, research supports mixed teacher perceptions of PLCs having negative or positive teacher impact depending on how they are implemented (Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016). Specifically, PLCs that use transformational leadership practices are the hallmark of a learning community in a school because of the collaboration among all educators in the building who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student learning to increase achievement (DuFour & Eaker, 1998). On the contrary, the cross-curricular PLCs that were implemented at the study site were predicated on distributed leadership practices and focused heavily on operational items such as student discipline and school culture. The larger super PLCs focused on training and compliance issues like special education or testing. While teachers found the super PLCs more beneficial than the cross-curricular PLCs, perceptions of inconstancy and lack of leadership direction led to questions of whether the individuals at the site actually understood the concept of how a PLC operates and whether the PLCs were a waste of time.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter identifies the most important and influential research presented in Chapter 2 to support this study, then discusses the common themes that emerged from the research. The chapter also includes recommendations for implementing transformational and distributed leadership practices for high teacher job satisfaction toward improving teacher retention. Finally, suggestions for future research are offered.

Summary of the Results

The purpose of this qualitative, single-embedded multiple-case study was to explore the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at a large comprehensive rural high school in South Central Texas. The topic of leadership as a catalyst for teachers leaving or staying in the profession of teaching is important because of the significant economic and academic costs to schools, communities, and the nation from the continual recruiting, training, and developing of new educators. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices?
2. How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
3. How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction?
4. What are teachers' feelings towards administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates?

There were two conceptual frameworks used that structured this study through a particular set of lenses: transformational leadership and distributed leadership.

Seminal Literature

Chapters 1 and 2 provided a detailed and thorough examination of the literature that served as the foundation for the research in this study. Essentially, teacher retention rates in schools are greatly impacted by teacher motivation, teacher job satisfaction, and organizational commitment by the teacher for the school and by the school for the teacher. In addition, PLCs are often used as the vehicles of implementation of transformational and distributed leadership practices for the purpose of stimulating these impacts. However, the research revealed that how PLCs are implemented defines their effectiveness.

Teacher Retention

Chapter 2 discusses high attrition rates that plague the teaching profession. The problem is that low teacher job satisfaction is correlated with teachers seeking to leave the teaching profession in general (Eldred, 2010, p. 3). Teachers often leave teaching due to job dissatisfaction coupled with desires to find a better career (Ingersoll, 2001). This combination accounts for 42% of teachers who leave the profession of teaching in general (Ingersoll, 2001). The numbers reveal that the main sources of teacher dissatisfaction are “low salaries, lack of support from the school administration, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over schoolwide and classroom decision making” (Menon, 2014, p. 522). Most importantly, research states that “teachers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness and teachers’ overall job satisfaction are found to be significantly linked to principal leadership behaviors” (Menon, 2014, p. 509).

Evidence does indicate that transformational leadership has a positive effect on specific educational outcomes such as leader effectiveness or teachers’ job satisfaction (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Implications of

transformational leadership on teachers can be positive because they inspire greater followership with, commitment to, and overall effort toward a principal's vision. Thus, the implementation of a transformational leadership model is largely considered to make a school more effective and teachers more satisfied with their jobs so that they are more likely to remain in the profession of teaching.

For example, Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) reported a positive correlation between the leadership style of a principal and his or her effectiveness in the school. The majority of research focuses on the specific associations between transformational leadership and teacher-related variables such as job satisfaction and commitment. Eyal and Roth (2011) showed that transformational leadership predicts self-motivation in teachers. Khasawneh et al. (2012) similarly discovered a significantly positive relationship between organizational commitment of teachers and transformational leadership. Thoonen et al. (2011) reported that teachers' professional learning and motivation and school organizational conditions were also strongly affected by transformational leadership practices. Leithwood and Sun (2012) suggested integrating models of leadership to maximize followership impact. They believe that similar leadership practices are found in many leadership models, like transformational and distributed leadership. More importantly, leadership practices that affect educational outcomes should focus specifically on improving teaching and learning by, for instance, starting with teacher job satisfaction.

Hulpia et al. (2010) also studied distributed leadership and the organizational commitment of teachers with a semistructured interview. The findings showed that teachers were more committed to a school organization when school leaders were very accessible and encouraged teacher participation in decision-making. These results suggest a positive

association between distributed leadership and educational outcomes. In terms of practices of distributed leadership, Peppers (2014) conducted a narrative ethnographic study that used face-to-face open-ended semistructured interviews to study teachers' perceptions before and after the implementation of PLCs. The researcher found that PLCs were successful for teachers' professional development, according to teachers' perceptions. The PLC model showed evidence that teachers felt they no longer worked in isolation and now had a collegial and a shared learning environment for all members of the learning community (Peppers, 2014, p. 131). Other findings included the perception that providing professional learning opportunities for each core department led, overall, to more collaboration. However, interviews also revealed that the time investment of PLCs concerned some teachers because of excessive meetings that were seen as taking time away from planning (Peppers, 2014, p. 133).

A. Wilson (2016) used a mixed-methods approach to study the perceptions and experiences of secondary teachers participating in PLCs to examine cultivated leadership and identify teacher leadership development and possible prevention variables. The overall findings suggest that teachers perceive that PLCs can both help and hinder their teacher leadership development. Most tellingly, 89% described their PLC experience as inundated with meetings and felt that their attendance created unnecessary time constraints that impacted their job performance (A. Wilson, 2016).

Review of Methodology

This study utilized a qualitative research methodology and a single-embedded multiple-case approach. This methodology enabled a deeper and more nuanced understanding of the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model at the high school level. The purposive sample of study participants consisted of 15 teachers, or

approximately one third of the available sample pool of 37 teachers, out of 131 teachers in total at the study site who taught a full load of six academic classes. All of the potential candidates in the available sample pool received an email invitation to participate in the study. Teachers with 1–6 years of teaching experience were considered because studies show that anywhere from 30–50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll, 2003; C. Wilson, 2000), 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year, and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002).

Data was provided through online short-answer preinterviews, the online MLQ quantitative standardized assessment instrument widely used for determining transformational leadership behaviors in organizations, and in-person semistructured interviews based on the four research questions. All participants fully completed each instrument within two weeks. Before entering the study, each participant signed a consent form outlining the role of their participation and the protections afforded to them. Participation in the study had no impact on job performance evaluations of any of the participants either generally or specifically.

To minimize any risks to participants, teacher information was altered to help ensure anonymity and to protect confidentiality. The two data sets of the presurvey and qualitative questions were first alpha coded. Analysis of data collected using the MLQ group report was also alpha coded. All data was downloaded into the NVivo (Version 11) software. Triangulation was then performed with the MLQ analysis to determine if the findings confirmed the MLQ analysis or identified additional hidden factors and structures in leadership styles and outcomes. Emergent themes were developed according to the MLQ because of its validity and reliability as the accepted instrument for measuring transformational leadership, a primary component in this

study. The researcher was the only one who had access to the data, which was under lock and key away from the study site.

Discussion of the Results

All of the participants completed the data collection process and provided candid insights while delivering clear and direct elaborations of their responses. Forty-five minutes were allotted for each semistructured interview, but most lasted for 15–20 minutes. Almost every participant seemed genuinely interested in this research and was ready to provide their perspectives on the topic. The research took place at a large comprehensive high school in Texas between the cities of San Antonio and Austin. The high school works with approximately 2,000 students and has 170 members on its teaching staff. The school serves a diverse population of students from rural farmlands, suburban middle-class areas, and affluent gated communities. More than half of the students are on free or reduced lunch and considered economically disadvantaged by the Texas Education Agency. The average experience of teachers at the school is 10 years, with 40% having more than 11 years of experience (Texas Education Agency, 2016).

Although the research site may be unique, other schools may still benefit from conducting research using a similar approach to ascertain teacher perceptions about specific leadership styles, such as the implications of transformational and distributed leadership behaviors for teacher job satisfaction. The only apprehension on the part of the participants came from an expressed uneasiness about school administrators becoming upset with some of their responses. To protect the participants, no names or identifying information were shared that would allow anyone to identify specific participants. Additionally, confidentiality was ensured, and no sensitive information will be shared with any member of the public, particularly members of the research site's administration.

Finding 1: Transformational Leadership

The first finding that emerged through data triangulation was that participants very positively perceived transformational leadership behaviors even though they could not fully describe the leadership style in their own words. This revelation was particularly interesting because in the MLQ participants perceived their leaders acting with integrity, encouraging innovation, and developing or coaching followers in the organization. Each of these categories received scores of 3.2–3.5, indicating a high level of transformational leadership perceived by teachers in the study. Also, rater scores for the highest rated transformational leadership categories were between 0.04 and 0.07 standard deviations, indicating a high agreement among group ratings.

Study participants did provide evidence in their preinterview questionnaire responses to support the MLQ's findings in this area. For example, Participant F stated that he or she felt supported by administration and “encouraged to be innovative in the classroom, and even if a lesson does not go the way I planned, I can be reflective and continue to improve.” Variations of this thought surfaced several times in responses. In terms of the semistructured interviews, about half of the respondents (47%) were able to identify, explain or provide examples of transformational leadership, while the rest (53%) could not define or give accurate examples of the leadership style at all.

This evidence for transformational leadership behaviors points to a set of practices that enhances the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013). In this way, transformational leadership is characterized by a clear focus on the role of leadership in the development of followers (Dansereau et al., 1995). Expected findings, as identified in Chapter 3,

were that teachers would be unaware of the differences between transformational and distributed leadership practices in their school. Not all participants could easily explain evidence of transformational and distributed leadership behaviors occurring in the school, but they were largely able to describe practices that could be categorized as transformational leadership, as seen in the results of the preinterview questionnaire, MLQ, and interviews.

Finding 2: Distributed Leadership

The second finding that was revealed through data triangulation was that most of the participants were able to clearly explain and identify what distributed leadership was, that it was occurring on the study site, and that PLCs represented it. It is important to note here that the MLQ uses several attributes and behaviors to measure transformational leadership that are often used to describe distributed leadership. The issue is whether transformational leadership is a subset of distributed leadership, or vice versa (Timperley, 2005). In fact, 14 study participants (93%) gave accurate definitions of distributed leadership during their semistructured interviews, with more than half of these teachers (57%) tying their definition directly to PLCs.

At the same time, the MLQ recognizes aspects of distributed leadership, such as acting with integrity, because these behaviors emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission. Encouraging innovative thinking, like getting teachers to look at problems from many different angles, takes place in a PLC model that operates as a distributed leadership model. More specifically, these democratic networks share influence and power when making decisions, and members not only support one another, but also learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). When talking about PLCs, Participant J wrote, “I am always open to hearing new ideas and collaborating with a team to make our school a better place.”

The practice of distributed leadership is also often called shared or participative leadership, and is the process by which a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). Participant O captured this sentiment succinctly, saying:

this model of growth is held by a lot of people in different standings and can be spread throughout the school. That with someone who is not even formally in a leadership position can still hope and help carry on his improvement in the school.

Participant O went on to explain that he or she felt that he or she saw distributed leadership through “the number of initiatives that allow teachers to join various task forces, having our input at different PLCs in ways that we are able to all have a voice and communication to what happens.”

Expected findings, as identified in Chapter 3, were that distributed leadership would be easily identifiable, as was the case with most teacher perceptions. However, many participating teachers were unaware of the differences between transformational and distributed leadership practices in their school and saw them largely, as Participant G said, “[as] the constant support that we receive from administration to collaborate with our colleagues, as well . . . teachers . . . working across content areas.” Yet, distributed leadership practices and high teacher job satisfaction were clearly tied together by teacher perceptions, as seen in the results of the preinterview questionnaire, MLQ, and interviews. For example, 87% of participants responded positively to the first preinterview question, which asked whether teachers felt that leadership structures and practices in the school made them feel more or less able to accomplish their jobs.

Finding 3: Professional Learning Communities

The third finding that emerged from triangulating the data was that the participants viewed PLCs as both positive and negative, and having some impact on their job satisfaction. This sentiment was echoed many different times throughout the data. Consider, for example, the preinterview question that asked whether the PLCs in the school impacted teacher job satisfaction positively, negatively, or not at all. This question produced mixed perceptions. Only one teacher, or 7% of the sample, felt explicitly negative about PLCs. Participant H expressed strong emotions against PLCs, saying that “PLCs were a waste of time.” Participant P wrote that PLCs do not accomplish what they were intended to at the study site,

which [was] to give teachers an opportunity to work together to improve their practices.

Our PLCs instead have become more of a memo, where administration just delivers messages to the staff and doesn’t really give us a time to build each other up.

All other study participants, 93% of the sample, expressed conflicting perspectives on PLCs.

In order to better grasp the context of participant perceptions, it is important to note here that the study site operated two distinct types of PLCs with specific focuses that seemed to significantly affect teacher perspective. The first type of PLC was known as a cross-curricular PLC and took place twice a month. The PLC incorporated 8–10 teachers from diverse subject areas across the school who shared the same planning period (conference period). Participants in these PLCs came together to address problems of practice that were identified by their own, or another, PLC. Problems of practice focused largely on climate and structural issues on the campus, such as discipline, lunch schedules, etc. Super PLCs were the second kind of PLCs that operated at the site. These PLCs focused largely on compliance and training concerns such as special education training and training for state-mandated testing.

Teacher responses largely reflected the two very kinds of PLC. Participant O explained that PLCs did not accomplish what they were intended to at the study site,

which [was] to give teachers an opportunity to work together to improve their practices.

Our PLCs instead have become more of a memo, where administration just delivers messages to the staff and doesn't really give us a time to build each other up.

The implication here is that the PLC models that were present on the campus did not focus on student achievement. DuFour and Eaker (1998) explain that a hallmark of [PLCs] in a school is the collaboration among all educators in the building who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student learning to increase achievement.

Schmoker (2006) builds on this idea by recognizing that such a collective effort could lead to shared responsibility actually becoming a cultural characteristic of the school. As such, PLCs are often referred to as “communities of practice” and “self-managing teams” (Schmoker, 2006, p. 106). From this perspective, it is clear that some teachers at the study site seemed to bring an expectation of a learning community as a PLC expectation, other teachers saw PLCs as compliance based, and still others saw PLCs as simply distributed leadership in the running of a school. These conflicting ideas surface repeatedly in the data to offer a mixed view of PLCs being positive and negative, with some impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Finding 4: Teacher Job Satisfaction

The fourth finding that was revealed through triangulation of the data was that the majority of teachers in the study felt appreciated and respected as individuals, appreciated administrative support, found the distributed leadership helpful, felt mentored as professionals, and thus felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession. While Finding 1 clearly points to strong teacher perceptions of transformational leadership on the campus, their perspectives

include transactional leadership behaviors associated with two transaction styles measured by the MLQ: constructive (rewards achievement) and corrective (monitors deviations & mistakes).

Transactional leadership traditionally defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Providing rewards for achievement and monitoring deviations and mistakes are two core behaviors associated with traditional ideas of management functions in organizations. At the same time, it is not unusual to find that leaders who rate highly in transformational leadership also use this style when necessary. According to the MLQ, teachers rated transactional leadership behaviors at the study site as generating satisfaction and extra effort at 3.5 on a 0–4 scale, with universal norms rating 2.5–3 on the same scale.

In terms of preinterview questions, overall responses revealed that teachers felt that leadership structures and practices in the school made them feel more or less able to accomplish their job, with 87% of the participants answering in the affirmative. As to whether leadership structures of the school impacted teacher job satisfaction positively, negatively, or not at all, 87% of participants again answered in the affirmative. This perspective was not surprising, because transformational leadership behaviors were occurring at the site, and this type of leadership increases a follower's motivation and creativity in an organization (Burns, 1978). As such, transformational leaders engage their followers by concentrating on driving their intrinsic self-assurance and motivation. As Participant M stated in the semistructured interview, "Here, they encourage us to think creatively, to grow professionally, to think beyond just the classroom what our future is going to be. And I think that's important as far as being in the teaching profession." This sentiment was repeated several times in the data, with 80% of the teachers in the semistructured interview perceiving leadership at the school site as positive and feeling encouraged to stay in the teaching profession specifically because of their experience. The

recurring themes of support, structure and personal relationships surfaced in many responses of study participants as reasons why they felt encouraged to stay in teaching.

One point to mention here is that three teachers (20%) perceived that leadership had no effect on their decision to stay in teaching and largely cited personal beliefs and a deep-seated conviction as reasons. This was summed up by Participant I, who said, “Well, I’ll stay to be a teacher because I love my job, instead of a thing of about leaderships and stuff.” Interestingly, this data runs counter to national reports that the main reason cited by new teachers leaving the teaching profession is lack of support (Scherer, 2003) and that school leaders need to treat new teachers as professionals with specialized skills and knowledge (Heller, 2004). What most likely is responsible for this data is the study’s situation in what may colloquially be considered a small town, where civic pride runs deep, and traditions abound. The town shuts down for holiday parades, local businesses close for high school Friday-night football games, and civic organizations routinely vie for the opportunity to work at the Fall Pumpkin Patch Community Fundraiser: Evidence abounds of strong civic pride in the town. It is common for students to graduate from the high school, go to college, return to work in the community, and then settle down to repeat the process again with their children. In fact, roughly 40% of the overall teaching population at the study site are graduates of the high school who have returned.

Summary

The four findings in this study were, for the most part, in line with the existing research literature. Teachers’ job satisfaction rises when they are working in a transformational and distributed leadership style on a school campus. Teachers’ job satisfaction will remain high even when the teachers might not be able to definitively explain the similarities and differences of the leadership styles, but they can point to behaviors and practices that increase their desire to stay in

teaching. At the same time, PLCs are not a surefire way to implement transformational or distributed leadership, even though they are often used to implement one or both of the leadership styles. What matters most in PLCs is that teacher collaboration occurs with a focus on student improvement. When PLCs move away from transformational practices like instructional collaboration and focus more on distributed leadership practices like improving school climate, teacher perception begins to lose sight of PLC effectiveness; this generates a mix of positive and negatives effects on teacher job satisfaction.

Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Literature

Over the course of about 20 years, the researcher worked on campuses and in central offices for school districts across three states, ranging from the nation's largest public-school district in New York City to a fledgling charter school system on the Texas–Mexico border. A constant that the researcher encountered at every stop, one that aligns with the available research, was that retaining teachers was a top priority of any educational leadership team. A major concern of the many teachers with whom the researcher personally worked was not feeling supported through lack of training, not believing that their voice matters in leadership decision-making, and consistent thoughts that they work in isolation to educate children against overwhelming social, economic, and cultural odds. The implications for the researcher, as a leader, have been that schools must look critically at the conditions in which teachers are trained, work, and remain in the field, as well as at the way school leaders expect them to see themselves as professionals (Heller, 2004). The alternative is that educators continue business as usual while steadily bleeding teaching talent, to the detriment of students, the profession, and the nation.

Research on school leadership has unearthed much evidence that separately links distributed and transformational leadership practices with encouraging effects on the educational

outcome of teachers' job satisfaction (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Lowe et al., 1996; Silins et al., 2002). However, research on the simultaneous implementation of transformational and distributed leadership practices and their impact at the high school level on teacher perceptions for the purpose of teacher retention has remained sparse, particularly in the state of Texas and the United States generally. This study sought to inspect findings in the available literature and examine how transformational and distributed leadership practices on teachers together inspire greater followership with, commitment to, and overall effort toward to a principal's vision at the high school level.

As stated in Chapter 2, the nation's high rate of teacher attrition is a focus of both professional concern and research (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Palmer & Van Wyk, 2012, 2013; Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). The research shows that, much like my personal experience in public and charter schools, teachers often report low job satisfaction and leave the profession due to (a) the perception of little to no community in a school organization, (b) little to no professional growth, and (c) a lack of shared or participatory leadership, all of which are key ingredients in a positive school climate for teacher job satisfaction (Pepper & Thomas, 2002; Watlington et al., 2010). This combination accounts for 42% of teachers who leave the profession of teaching in general (Ingersoll, 2001).

Contrary to the existing research, all of the participants in this study indicated that they had no intention of leaving the profession of teaching, and at least 20% were adamant that leadership had no impact on their decision to stay or leave. The teachers in the study had 1–6 years of teaching experience in the classroom, but their commitment ran counter to the available research, in that studies show 30–50% of teachers leave the profession after five years (Ingersoll,

2003; C. Wilson, 2000), 9% of new teachers do not complete their first year, and 14% leave after the first year (Black, 2001; Ingersoll, 2002). One possible explanation for the 20% of teachers in this study who claim to be unaffected by school leadership style may lie in the strong civic pride exhibited by many residents in the town where the study took place. This is not surprising, given that many businesses shut down during Friday-night football games, many residents are involved in multiple civic organizations, and it is common for much of the populace to be born, grow up (maybe go away to college), and then settle in the town during adulthood to repeat the process with their children. About half of the participants in the study were born in the town, and approximately 40% of all teachers at the study site are alumni of the school.

However, the study finding that 100% of the sample decided to stay in teaching because of their experience working in an organization using transformational and distributed leadership styles, while extremely high, is aligned with the available research that points to organizations that employ these leadership styles having higher rates of job satisfaction. This finding aligns with the research, in that studies found that a mix of transactional and transformational leadership styles could be ideal for building capacity within an organization and positively impacting student outcomes (Silins, 1992, 1994). As a standalone leadership model, transformational leadership was found to positively influence teacher perceptions on several education outcomes, but have no effect, or a negative effect, on student learning outcomes (Barnett et al., 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Distributed leadership models were found to build leadership capacity in teachers because they emphasize skill development and influence organizational processes (Menon, 2011; Robinson, 2008). Again, the available research was reflected in the findings of this study, in that teachers had positive perceptions of leadership and high job satisfaction due to transformational

leadership behaviors, but they also felt that distributed leadership behaviors had positively affected their development as teachers (via PLCs).

Participants recognized leadership behaviors and practices that they felt encouraged them to stay in the teaching profession while at the study site. Again, this finding was consistent with the available research that points to high levels of teacher job satisfaction where transformational and distributed styles are implemented (Bennett et al., 2003; Leithwood et al., 1999; Pounder, 2008; Rost, 1993). Conversely, participants had mixed perspectives on exactly which practices constituted transformational and distributed leadership, but they did make relatively accurate descriptions of both that were occurring at the school. Teachers were able to point to examples of distributed leadership practices more accurately on the campus and felt that they had a mostly positive impact. In fact, the triangulated data sets revealed several emergent themes that are expressly behavioral components of transformational leadership, such as creating a shared vision, feeling supported, and being valued as professionals. The findings here also aligned with literature, in that there is lack of a clearly accepted definition of distributed leadership. For example, Mayrowetz (2008) emphasized the need for “a shared, theoretically informed definition of distributed leadership that is well connected to the problems of practice that this field engages, specifically school improvement and leadership development” (p. 432). In general, the literature reveals several issues that arise with distributed leadership. The most serious issues concern the conceptual and definitional “issues, research and measurement issues, and the validity of underlying assumptions” (Menon, 2011, p. 10).

Regardless, the strong teacher perceptions of distributed leadership practices on the campus and in literature can also be seen in the study by Hulpia et al. (2010) of distributed leadership and the organizational commitment of teachers. The findings showed that teachers

were more committed to a school organization when school leaders were very accessible and encouraged teacher participation in decision-making. These results pointed to a positive association between distributed leadership and educational outcomes.

A poignant theme that emerged from this study was that participating teachers viewed PLCs as both positive and negative, which had some impact on their job satisfaction. This finding broadly aligned with the available literature in terms of practice of distributed leadership. For example, Peppers (2014) conducted a narrative ethnography study that used face-to-face open-ended semistructured interviews to study teachers' perceptions before and after implementation of PLCs. The researcher found that PLCs were successful for teachers' professional development, according to teacher perceptions. The PLC model showed evidence that teachers felt they no longer worked in isolation and had a collegial and a shared learning environment (Peppers, 2014). Other findings included the perception that providing professional learning opportunities for each core department led to more overall collaboration, but the time investment of PLCs concerned some teachers because of the perception of excessive meetings taking time away from planning (Peppers, 2014).

It is important to note here that the specific types of PLCs that were implemented at the study site focused heavily on teacher development of classroom management, climate building, and legal requirements, as opposed to being based on student achievement. PLCs that collectively work together to meet the significant educational reform requirements of student achievement, teacher performance, and accountability lean more heavily toward a transformational leadership style (Hord, 1997). For example, DuFour and Eaker (1998) explained that a hallmark of a learning community in a school is the collaboration among all educators in the building who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student

learning to increase achievement. Schmoker (2006) builds on this idea by recognizing that a collective effort of shared responsibility actually becomes a cultural characteristic of the school, transforming campuses into “communities of practice” and “self-managing teams” focused on student achievement (Schmoker, 2006, p. 106). According to teacher perceptions, this was not the practical focus of PLCs at the study site.

In terms of a PLCs being implemented as distributed leadership, A. Wilson (2016) used a mixed-methods approach to study the perceptions and experiences of secondary teachers participating in PLCs, to examine cultivated leadership and identify teacher leadership development and possible prevention variables. The overall findings suggest that teachers perceived that PLCs could help and hinder their teacher leadership development. Most telling, 89% described their PLC experience as inundated with meetings and felt that their attendance created unnecessary time constraints that impacted their job performance (A. Wilson, 2016).

As many participants stated in their semistructured interviews, PLCs were as effective as their leadership and members. This emergent theme follows PLC research which does not focus on them solely as vehicles for implementation for either transformational or distributed leadership practices (Peppers, 2014; Wynn et al., 2007), but rather on how their implementation defines their effectiveness (DeMatthews, 2014; Peppers, 2014; A. Wilson, 2016). Teacher retention was also examined largely through lens of PLCs as a remedy (Berry & Eckert, 2012; Heller, 2004; Keigher, 2010; Wynn et al., 2007). Within this context, PLCs could facilitate the development of teachers, as teacher quality has a significant impact on student learning (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004; Rivkin et al., 2002; Rockoff, 2003; Rowan et al., 2002; Sanders & Horn, 1998) and establishing an atmosphere of collegiality (Darling-Hammond, 2003; Neito, 2003; Williams, 2003).

Finally, a subsequent question that emerged through the data and resulting themes speaks directly to the community of scholars who investigate transformational and distributed leadership practices in organizations. Specifically, research going forward in this area must consider regularly widening its focus to consider at least two forms of ongoing leadership styles, and their combined, simultaneous impact in organizations; this is especially true when examining transformational and distributed leadership. This practice has not been the norm for studies of transformational leadership or distributed leadership, which usually focus on one or the other as a separate phenomenon.

Available research aligns with this emerging question. For example, Marks and Printy (2003) conducted a study using hierarchical linear modeling to examine the effect of school leadership approach on the dependent variables of pedagogical quality and student achievement. These researchers also suggested an integrated form of leadership that combined transformational and instructional approaches to leadership. More explicitly, Leithwood and Sun (2012) proposed integrated models of leadership. They believed that similar leadership practices are found in many leadership models and leadership effects on educational outcomes should focus on these crucial practices. The practices they mention are transformational leadership practices as well as practices devised to specifically improve teaching and learning, such as distributed leadership.

Even the MLQ, the standard measurement for transformational leadership, which was used for this study, indicates that creators of the instrument incorporated measures for transactional leadership behaviors. The MLQ highlights that transactional leadership traditionally defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Providing rewards for achievement and monitoring deviations and mistakes are two core behaviors

associated with traditional ideas of management functions in organizations. More tellingly, that teachers do not always want to be part of decision-making for a school. In fact, teacher participation in decision-making suggests that teachers do not expect or desire to participate in every decision (Hoy & Miskel, 2005). The world of teaching is often hectic to the point that teachers are bombarded with a multitude of often-competing goals and needs. As some teachers in the current study explained, teaching is a demanding profession and teachers sometimes simply want to be told clearly what needs to be accomplished and then celebrated for meeting a specific goal. Also, as seen in use of the MLQ, it is not unusual to find leaders who rate highly in transformational leadership also using a transactional style of leadership when necessary and appropriate.

Based on the study results, the literature review and participant perceptions working under a transformational and distributed leadership model are aligned. Transformational leadership behaviors were perceived very positively by teachers and most were clear about examples of distributed leadership that were occurring at the study site. Teachers viewed PLCs as both positive and negative, which had an impact on their job satisfaction, largely depending on how they were implemented. Also, the majority of teachers in the study felt encouraged to stay in the teaching profession because of the combined transformational and distributed leadership styles implemented at the study site. A question was raised with respect to a need for the simultaneous study of one or more leadership styles in conjunction with at least transformational leadership. Finally, while a few teachers claimed that their job satisfaction was not affected by leadership, the influence of civic pride could reasonably explain this deviation from existing research. As such, no major discrepancies appear to be present between the literature review and the study results.

Limitations

As with any research, there are limitations inherent in this study. The most significant limitation of this study is the small sample size. Having a study with only 15 participants may not accurately reflect the feelings of the teaching profession as a whole and there is the possibility that the participants in this study are an anomaly. For example, the sample of teachers that agreed to participate in the study were most likely to be engaged in the school and more likely to remain at the campus regardless of leadership. At the same time, the sample size allowed me to conduct in-depth interviews and gain a deeper understanding of the studied phenomenon. The study site was a school that serves a population that is varied socioeconomically, ethnically diverse, and has particularly strong civic pride. This may be a unique mix that makes the results impossible to generalize. Also, the focus of the study was on learning how the perceptions of teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership style impacted their job satisfaction, but there are certainly other factors that have a significant impact on feelings of satisfaction that may not have been captured.

Triangulation of data was difficult because the data sets had to be run through two different data analysis systems and transcribing the semistructured interviews depended on participants answering all questions truthfully. Although purposeful sampling was used to mitigate potential data contamination by ensuring that the interviewer did not also serve as a direct supervisor of teacher participants, some teachers may still have been unwilling to be completely forthcoming about their perceptions out of fear of leaders being upset with their answers. The use of the MLQ also presented a limitation, in that it is almost exclusively accepted and used as the only appropriate instrument for measuring transformational leadership. It is important to note that, although the MLQ is widely used in the western hemisphere, more

research needs to be conducted in the eastern hemisphere to determine its reliability within different cultures (Menon, 2014), which could affect the reliability of the instrument in a diverse organization. There is no such standardized or universally accepted instrument for measuring distributed leadership, which presents its own challenges to comparing the leadership style between different studies with differing definitions.

Implication of the Results for Practice, Policy, and Theory

In terms of theory, there were two conceptual frameworks that structured this study through a particular set of lenses: transformational leadership and distributed leadership. Transformational leadership describes a set of practices that enhances the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2013) and is characterized by a clear focus on the role of leadership in the development of followers (Dansereau et al., 1995). Closely associated with transformational leadership, and also called shared or participative leadership, is the process where a leader establishes a democratic network in which organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006). These two theoretical frameworks were chosen because they are linked to positively impacting teacher job satisfaction. Teachers are an important piece of the overall educational system and their job satisfaction level is extremely important to the success of students.

The study findings revealed that 100% of the sample decided to stay in teaching because of their high job satisfaction from working in an organization using transformational and distributed leadership styles. These findings supported the conceptual framework for this study,

in that transformational and distributed leadership styles had higher rates of teacher job satisfaction. In addition, this finding aligned with studies that found that a mix of transactional and transformational leadership styles could be ideal for building capacity within an organization and positively impacting student outcomes (Silins, 1992, 1994). Scholars have found that transformational leadership positively influences teacher perceptions on several education outcomes, but has no effect, or a negative effect, on student learning outcomes (Barnett et al., 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999, 2000, 2005, 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Distributed leadership models built leadership capacity in teachers because they emphasized skill development and influence organizational processes (Menon, 2011; Robinson, 2008). This study suggested that a combined or joint theoretical framework of transformational and distributed leadership should be considered in future research examining leadership and teacher job satisfaction. Implications of the results for practice and policy are as follows.

Principal Training in Transformational and Distributed Leadership

Leadership at the campus level is one of the most critical components of school success. Traditional models of leadership have historically focused on top-down leadership and been overly concerned with maintaining organizational control with clear power structures than with developing followers. This style identified specific leaders within a school who were believed to metaphorically (sometimes literally) hold all possible solutions to any given problem or issue. At the same time, this heroic style of leadership limited teacher input and decision-making by permitting only one leader on a campus. As a side effect, this single-leader style of leadership also exacted a heavy toll on principals, often causing early burnout due to the high workload and responsibility that they shouldered alone.

On the contrary, the literature examined in this study revealed that although teacher job satisfaction is heavily affected by principal leadership, schools also thrive when these same teachers partake in campus leadership and become more fulfilled in their jobs because they see that their efforts have observable impact. As such, principal training programs would be best served by specifically building out their curricula to include transformational and distributed leadership practices. Practices may be taught in isolation or in tandem. More importantly, programs must include explicit practices and behaviors that are associated with these leadership styles to provide practical instruction for structuring a school. In addition, school districts should employ ongoing professional development for incumbent principals on transformational and distributed leadership practices for building leadership capacity while maintaining high rates of teacher retention and lowering principal turnover due to burnout.

It is also important to note that principal training programs and ongoing professional development should include the use of transactional leadership for incorporation with transformational and distributed leadership. As uncovered in the literature review and emergent in the data analysis, transactional leadership historically defines clear expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Due to often-competing goals and tensions in modern schools, teachers do not always want to be part of everyday decisions but would sometimes rather be directed and rewarded when organizational goals are met.

Professional Development on Professional Learning Community Implementation

A major theme that emerged from this study was that participating teachers viewed PLCs as both positive and negative, which had some impact on their job satisfaction. This finding converged with the existing literature in terms of practices of distributed leadership. Also, many participants stated in their semistructured interviews that PLCs were only as effective as their

leadership and members. What was discovered through teacher perspectives was that the PLCs that were being implemented were focused heavily on the teacher development of classroom management, climate building, and legal requirements, as opposed to being based on student achievement. As revealed in the literature, PLCs that collectively work together to meet the significant educational reform requirements of student achievement, teacher performance, and accountability lean more heavily toward a transformational leadership style, not just distributed leadership.

In order to maximize leadership in schools that use PLCs, ongoing professional development, and training from the district and at the campus level must focus on a heavily transformational model. To positively impact teacher job satisfaction and student academic growth, this model should be aligned to DuFour and Eaker's (1998) description of a learning community in schools as educator collaboration with people who are willing to share in the responsibilities of targeting student learning to increase achievement. With ongoing training embedded in the school day, and revisited regularly, campuses can build collective efforts for shared responsibility, ultimately transforming a school into communities of practice that operate on distributed leadership but really implement transformational leadership focused on student achievement during PLC time. Based on the available literature, this style of PLC implementation shows the strongest evidence for positively impacting teacher job satisfaction, raising teacher retention rates, and increasing student achievement.

Recommendations for Further Research

The present study highlighted some important areas that may help schools increase teacher job satisfaction and improve teacher retention rates. Most notably:

1. Utilize transformational and distributed leadership practices in principal training programs and ongoing professional development for current principals.

2. Incorporate the appropriate use of transactional leadership in conjunction with transformational and distributed leadership in principal training programs and in ongoing professional development for current principals.

3. Implement ongoing professional development and training from the district, and at the campus level, on a transformational leadership model for PLCs that focuses heavily on educator collaboration and shared responsibilities for targeting student learning to increase achievement.

With respect to future research, a similar study with a larger sample size and different setting that includes teachers from across the academic spectrum may generalize the findings. The current study is limited by its single site, narrow focus of teaching experience, and relatively small sample size. As a result, the findings are not generalizable. Future research may attempt to expand on the current methodology and incorporate multiple schools while comparing teachers from across grades in both elementary and secondary levels. Participants in this study were purposively sampled to focus on teachers with 1–6 years of experience. Future research may consider random sampling of research sites to learn more about transformational and distributed leadership impacts on perceptions of teachers who have seven or more years of experience.

In addition, research going forward should consider widening its focus to regularly consider studying the transformational and distributed leadership styles together, along with their combined, simultaneous impact in organizations. This practice has not been the norm for studies of transformational leadership, or distributed leadership, which usually focus on one or the other as a separate phenomenon. At the very least, future research would best be served by developing

a specific, standardized instrument or process to measure distributed leadership in much the same way that the MLQ measures transformational leadership. Having a standard, universally accepted way to define and measure distributed leadership would allow for researchers to be clear about inputs and outcomes when comparing the leadership style across studies.

Conclusion

Teaching has long been known as a noble profession because of the long hours, often low pay in comparison to other professions, and ever growing federal and state mandates associated with student performance. School leaders are coming to realize that leadership styles, and their impact on the work environment, are now becoming deciding factors for many educators when choosing whether to stay in their schools or even the entire profession of teaching. The study of leadership as a reason for teachers leaving the profession of teaching is important because of the negative economic and academic impacts on schools, communities, and the nation from the ongoing recruitment, training, and development of new educators. More specifically, the study of transformational and distributed leadership practices and behaviors has become a growing focus of research because of their positive impact on rates of teacher job satisfaction. However, there is a gap in the existing research corresponding to the study of both of these leadership styles together, especially at the secondary level in the United States.

This study examined the perceptions of teacher job satisfaction by teachers working in a transformational and distributed leadership model in a large comprehensive high school in rural South-Central Texas. The research was guided by the following research questions: (a) What are teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy as they relate to transformational and distributed leadership practices? (b) How do distributive leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction? (c) How do transformational leadership practices impact teacher job satisfaction? and (d) What are

teachers' feelings toward administrative leadership and strategies as they relate to positively impacting teacher attrition rates? The study results showed that teachers reported high levels of self-efficacy working in a transformational and distributed leadership style. Even though teachers were not able to fully describe the leadership styles, they largely viewed both leadership behaviors and practices as positively impacting their jobs by including them in the decision-making process, professionally developing them, moving them from isolation to collaboration with their colleagues, and making them feel like they were respected as professionals. As a result, teachers stated that they felt encouraged to continue teaching at the study site and remain in the profession of teaching.

The overall study was successful in that teacher participants all reported being thankful for being able to communicate their perceptions and insights in hopes that it would continue to improve educational leadership at the study site and in schools generally. The expectation is that the outcomes in this study will influence further research and inspire school leaders to look critically at the conditions in which teachers are trained, work, and remain in the field, as well as at the way they view themselves as professionals committed to the teaching profession. Desirable leadership styles are those that generate collaboration focused on student achievement, create optimism and self-efficacy, and build a culture of professionalism. Implementing, examining, and then refining such desirable leadership styles can reverse the bleeding of teaching talent which has plagued students, the profession, and the nation.

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Appendix A: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Research Study Title:	A Case Study of the Perceptions of Teacher Job Satisfaction Working Under a Transformational and Distributed Leadership Style.
Principal Investigator:	James A. Diaz
Research Institution:	Concordia University–Portland
Faculty Advisor:	Dr. John Mendes

Purpose and what you will be doing:

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions of teacher job satisfaction working under a Transformational and Distributed Leadership style in a large comprehensive high school in rural Southcentral Texas. I expect approximately 10-12 volunteers. No one will be paid to be in the study. We will begin enrollment on 5/31/18 and end enrollment on 6/20/18. To be in the study, you will first answer a 5 question pre-interview open ended response survey, complete a 45 item questionnaire taking approximately 15 minutes for completion, and then participate in an interview that will last no longer than 45 minutes.

Risks:

There are no risks to participating in this study other than providing your information. However, we will protect your information. I will record interviews. The recording will be transcribed by me, the principal investigator, and the recording will be deleted when the transcription is completed. Any data you provide will be coded so people who are not the investigator cannot link your information to you. Any name or identifying information you give will be kept securely via electronic encryption on my password protected computer locked inside the cabinet in my office off site. In addition, in order to guard against deductive disclosure, any information that is provided that may identify a participant will be omitted from the study. Also, recordings will be deleted as soon as possible; all other study documents will be kept secure for 3 years and then be destroyed.

Benefits:

Information you provide will help higher education institutions provide better training for pre-service and/or training programs for administrators. You could benefit from this research by gaining a better understanding for how school leadership practices affects your feelings of job satisfaction.

Confidentiality:

This information will not be distributed to any other agency and will be kept private and confidential. The only exception to this is if you tell us abuse or neglect that makes us seriously concerned for your immediate health and safety.

Right to Withdraw:

Your participation is greatly appreciated, but we acknowledge that the questions we are asking are personal in nature. You are free at any point to choose not to engage with or stop the study. You may skip any questions you do not wish to answer. This study is not required and there is no penalty for not participating. If at any time you experience a negative emotion from answering the questions, we will stop asking you questions.

Contact Information:

You will receive a copy of this consent form. If you have questions you can talk to or write the principal investigator, James A. Diaz at [email redacted]. If you want to talk with a participant advocate other than the investigator, you can write or call the director of our institutional review board, Dr. OraLee Branch (email obran@cu-portland.edu or call 503- 493-6390).

Your Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I asked questions if I had them, and my questions were answered. I volunteer my consent for this study.

_____	_____
Participant Name	Date
_____	_____
Participant Signature	Date
_____	_____
Investigator Name	Date
_____	_____
Investigator Signature	Date

Investigator: James A. Diaz;
email: [redacted]
c/o: Professor John Mendes
Concordia University–Portland
2811 NE Holman Street
Portland, Oregon 97221

Appendix B: Preinterview Open-Ended Questionnaire

Date: _____

Time: _____

Participant: _____

Years Experience: _____

Participant Position: _____

Brief description of study: This research study is examining perceptions of teacher job satisfaction working in a transformational and distributed leadership model in a large comprehensive high school in rural Southcentral Texas.

Directions: *Please answer the following five questions on Transformational and Distributed Leadership to the best of your ability. For your reference, definitions for both concepts are identified below.*

Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership describes a set of practices that enhances the motivation, morale, and overall performance of followers through collaborative and interactive approaches to situations (Bass 1985; Burns 1978; Northouse, 2013).

Distributed Leadership: Closely associated with Transformational leadership and also called shared/participative leadership, is the process where a leader establishes a democratic network where organizational influence and power are shared, decisions are aligned with a common vision, and members support one another and learn from one another (Claudet, 1999; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Somech & Wenderow, 2006).

Short answer questions:

(1) Do leadership structures and/or practices in your school make you feel more able, or less able, to accomplish your job? Please explain your answer and give examples?

(2) Do the leadership structures of the school positively, negatively, or does not have any impact on your job satisfaction? Please explain.

(3) Do Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in your school positively, negatively, or do not have any impact on your job satisfaction? Please explain.

(4) Have your experiences with leadership structures and/or practices at this school caused you to consider staying or leaving the profession of teaching? Please give examples to explain your answer.

Appendix C: Semistructured Interview Protocol

Date: _____

Time: _____

Participant: _____

Years Experience: _____

Participant Position: _____

Investigator: _____

Brief description of study: This research study is examining perceptions of teacher job satisfaction working in a transformational and distributed leadership model in a large comprehensive high school in rural Southcentral Texas.

Questions:

1. In your own words, what is Transformational Leadership? Can you describe some practices at your school that reflect your definition?
2. In your own words, what is Distributed Leadership? Can you describe some practices at your school that reflect your definition?
3. In your perception, do Transformational leadership practices at your school help and/or allow you to do your job better, have no effect, or make your job worse? Please explain your answer.
4. In your perception, do Distributed leadership practices at your school help and/or allow you to do your job better, have no effect, or make your job worse? Please explain your answer.
5. Based on your experiences at your current school working under your administration's leadership structures and strategies, do you feel more likely to stay or leave the teaching profession? Please explain your answer.

Appendix D: MLQ Rater Form and Scoring Key

For use by James Diaz only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on December 12, 2017

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

- ☐ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ☐ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
- ☐ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ☐ Other than the above.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

The Person I Am Rating: . . .

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.....0 1 2 3 4
2. *Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.....0 1 2 3 4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious.....0 1 2 3 4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.....0 1 2 3 4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.....0 1 2 3 4
6. *Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.....0 1 2 3 4
7. Is absent when needed.....0 1 2 3 4
8. *Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.....0 1 2 3 4
9. *Talks optimistically about the future.....0 1 2 3 4
10. *Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.....0 1 2 3 4
11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.....0 1 2 3 4
12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.....0 1 2 3 4
13. *Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.....0 1 2 3 4
14. *Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.....0 1 2 3 4
15. *Spends time teaching and coaching.....0 1 2 3 4

Continued →

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	
0	1	2	3	4	
16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.....	0	1	2	3	4
17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4
18. *Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.....	0	1	2	3	4
19. *Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.....	0	1	2	3	4
20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.....	0	1	2	3	4
21. *Acts in ways that builds my respect.....	0	1	2	3	4
22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.....	0	1	2	3	4
23. *Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24. Keeps track of all mistakes.....	0	1	2	3	4
25. *Displays a sense of power and confidence.....	0	1	2	3	4
26. *Articulates a compelling vision of the future.....	0	1	2	3	4
27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28. Avoids making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29. *Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.....	0	1	2	3	4
30. *Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31. *Helps me to develop my strengths.....	0	1	2	3	4
32. *Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.....	0	1	2	3	4
33. Delays responding to urgent questions.....	0	1	2	3	4
34. *Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.....	0	1	2	3	4
36. *Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.....	0	1	2	3	4
37. Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.....	0	1	2	3	4
38. Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.....	0	1	2	3	4
39. Gets me to do more than I expected to do.....	0	1	2	3	4
40. Is effective in representing me to higher authority.....	0	1	2	3	4
41. Works with me in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42. Heightens my desire to succeed	0	1	2	3	4
43. Is effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44. Increases my willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45. Leads a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

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MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Key (5x) Short

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

Scoring: The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. **If an item is left blank, divide the total for that scale by the number of items answered.** All of the leadership style scales have four items, Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

*Idealized Influence (Attributed) total/4 =

*Idealized Influence (Behavior) total/4 =

*Inspirational Motivation total/4 =

*Intellectual Stimulation total/4 =

*Individual Consideration total/4 =

Contingent Reward total/4 =

Management-by-Exception (Active) total/4 =

+Management-by-Exception (Passive) total/4 =

+Laissez-faire Leadership total/4 =

Extra Effort total/3 =

Effectiveness total/4 =

Satisfaction total/2 =

1. Contingent Reward.....	0	1	2	3	4
2. Intellectual Stimulation.....	0	1	2	3	4
3. Management-by-Exception (Passive).....	0	1	2	3	4
4. Management-by-Exception (Active).....	0	1	2	3	4
5. Laissez-faire Leadership.....	0	1	2	3	4
6. Idealized Influence (Behavior).....	0	1	2	3	4
7. Laissez-faire Leadership.....	0	1	2	3	4
8. Intellectual Stimulation.....	0	1	2	3	4
9. Inspirational Motivation.....	0	1	2	3	4
10. Idealized Influence (Attributed).....	0	1	2	3	4
11. Contingent Reward.....	0	1	2	3	4
12. Management-by-Exception (Passive).....	0	1	2	3	4
13. Inspirational Motivation.....	0	1	2	3	4
14. Idealized Influence (Behavior).....	0	1	2	3	4
15. Individual Consideration.....	0	1	2	3	4

Continued →

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	
0	1	2	3	4	
16. Contingent Reward.....	0	1	2	3	4
17. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
18. Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
19. Individual Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
20. Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0	1	2	3	4
21. Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
22. Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
23. Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
24. Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
25. Idealized Influence (Attributed)	0	1	2	3	4
26. Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
27. Management-by-Exception (Active)	0	1	2	3	4
28. Laissez-faire Leadership	0	1	2	3	4
29. Individual Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
30. Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
31. Individual Consideration	0	1	2	3	4
32. Intellectual Stimulation	0	1	2	3	4
33. Laissez-faire Leadership	0	1	2	3	4
34. Idealized Influence (Behavior)	0	1	2	3	4
35. Contingent Reward	0	1	2	3	4
36. Inspirational Motivation	0	1	2	3	4
37. Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
38. Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
39. Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
40. Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
41. Satisfaction	0	1	2	3	4
42. Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
43. Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4
44. Extra Effort	0	1	2	3	4
45. Effectiveness	0	1	2	3	4

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Appendix E: Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Participant	Gender	Ethnicity	Age	Years of experience
A	Male	Hispanic	26–30	4
B	Female	White	26–30	3.5
C	Female	White	26–30	1
D	Female	White	21–25	1
E	Female	White	31–35	5
F	Male	White	31–35	6
G	Female	White	26–30	3
H	Male	White	26–30	5
I	Male	White	26–30	1.5
J	Male	Hispanic	26–30	4
K	Female	White	36–40	2
L	Female	White	21–25	1
M	Female	White	26–30	3
N	Female	White	26–30	4
O	Female	White	21–25	1

Appendix F: Analysis and Triangulation of Data

			Triangulation with qualitative data (number of references)	
Scale	Score	SD	Agreements	Disagreements
Transformational leadership				
Builds trust	3.5	0.7		
Instill pride in others for being associated with them	3.3			
Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	3.2		Transformational leadership - group work (2)	
Act in ways that builds others' respect for me	3.5		Transformational leadership - consistency (2); transformational leadership - consistency and repetition (1)	
Display a sense of power and confidence	3.5			
Acts with integrity	3.2	0.5		
Talk about their most important values and beliefs	2.3		Transformational leadership as visionary (1)	
Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	2.9		Transformational leadership - student centered (4); outcome based understanding of transformational leadership (7)	
Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	3.5			
Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	3.3		Transformational leader being able to create shared vision (5)	
Encourages others	3.4	0.6		
Talk optimistically about the future	3.4			
Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	3.2			
Articulate a compelling vision of the future	3.3		Transformational leadership - effective communication (7); transformational leadership - information sharing (1)	
Express confidence that goals will be achieved	3.6		Delegated and distributed leadership (4); rotating delegation (1); distributed leadership (14)	Lacking decentralization at school district and curriculum setting level (1); centralized delegation (5)
Encourages innovative thinking	3.5	0.6		

Scale	Score	SD	Triangulation with qualitative data (number of references)	
			Agreements	Disagreements
Reexamine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	3			
Seek differing perspectives when solving problems	3.3		Transformational leadership for outcome - critical thinking (8); teacher's leadership (1); participative decision-making (5); teacher's leadership (6); teachers as transformational leaders (1); teachers have voice (11)	Inconsistent opportunities for participative decision-making - inconsistent (5)
Get others to look at problems from many different angles	3.3		Large group learning for teachers - useful (28); large group learning for teachers - somewhat useful (12)	Large group learning for teachers - inconsistent (11); gap in usefulness between general ed and special ed (2); gap in usefulness between higher grades and lower grades (2); negative attitudes of some teachers at large group learning (PLCs) (10); not very beneficial for new teachers (8); not very useful - waste of time (21)
Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	3.2			
Coaches and develops people	3.2	0.4		
Spend time teaching and coaching	2.3			
Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group	3.5		Teachers as autonomous individuals (10)	
Consider each individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	3.2		Students as individuals (12)	
Help others to develop their strengths	3.4		Administrative support (14); supportive leadership (12); distributed leadership for individual growth (3); decentralization useful (12); decentralization as mentoring relationships (20); transformational leadership - useful (7); transformational leadership - outreach to teachers (1); transformational leadership - outcome - more perceived options and avenues of growth (2)	Delegation - fragile balance (6); delegation not effective when incompetent people are not in-charge (2)

Triangulation with qualitative data (number of references)				
Scale	Score	SD	Agreements	Disagreements
Transactional leadership				
Rewards achievement	2.9	1.0		
Provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	3.4			
Discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance goals	2.5		Clear direction and goals (4); clearly defined roles and responsibilities (2)	
Make clear what one can expect when performance goals are achieved	2.4			
Express satisfaction when others meet expectations	3.4		Appreciation of teachers for good performance (1)	
Monitors deviations and mistakes	1.3	1.1		
Focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	1.4			
Concentrate their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	2.1			
Keep track of all mistakes	1.2			
Direct their attention toward failures to meet standards	1.3			
Passive/avoidant behaviors				
Fights fires	0.6	0.7		
Fail to interfere until problems become serious	0.5			
Wait for things to go wrong before taking action	0.5			
Show a firm belief in “if it ain’t broken, don’t fix it”	0.7			
Demonstrate that problems must become chronic before taking action	0.4			
Avoids involvement	0.3	0.4		
Avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0.1			
Absent when needed	0.4			
Avoid making decisions	0.2			
Delay responding to urgent questions	0.5			

			Triangulation with qualitative data (number of references)	
Scale	Score	SD	Agreements	Disagreements
Outcomes of leadership				
Generates extra effort	3.4	0.9		
Get others to do more than they are expected to do	3		Innovation (1); learning to treat students as unique individuals (7)	
Heighten others desire to succeed	3.6		Reflective teaching (1); transformational leadership - outcome - more perceived options and avenues of growth (2); transformational leadership outcome - high retention and enthusiasm (18)	
Increase others' willingness to try harder	3.5		Outcome of transformational leadership - most and best effort (4); transformational leadership outcomes - increased willingness to try harder (2)	
Is productive	3.5	0.6		
Are effective in meeting others' job related needs	3.4		Administrative support (14); supportive leadership (12)	
Are effective in representing their group to higher authority	3.5			
Are effective in meeting organizational requirements	3.1		Administrative support (14); supportive leadership (12); transformational leadership outcome - group work and support (8)	
Lead a group that is effective	3.4		Individual attention to each student (2); transformational leadership - outcomes for students (5)	
Generates satisfaction	3.4	0.7		
Use methods of leadership that are effective	3.2		Opportunities for all to contribute to shared goals (2)	

Appendix G: MLQ Rater Only Group Report

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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

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Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below.

Sample Items:

As a leader

- I talk optimistically about the future.
- I spend time teaching and coaching.
- I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating...

- Talks optimistically about the future.
- Spends time teaching and coaching.
- Avoids making decisions.

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Sincerely,

Robert Most
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Appendix H: Statement of Original Work

The Concordia University Doctorate of Education Program is a collaborative community of scholar-practitioners, who seek to transform society by pursuing ethically-informed, rigorously-researched, inquiry-based projects that benefit professional, institutional, and local educational contexts. Each member of the community affirms throughout their program of study, adherence to the principles and standards outlined in the Concordia University Academic Integrity Policy. This policy states the following:

Statement of academic integrity.

As a member of the Concordia University community, I will neither engage in fraudulent or unauthorized behaviors in the presentation and completion of my work, nor will I provide unauthorized assistance to others.

Explanations:

What does “fraudulent” mean?

“Fraudulent” work is any material submitted for evaluation that is falsely or improperly presented as one’s own. This includes, but is not limited to texts, graphics and other multi-media files appropriated from any source, including another individual, that are intentionally presented as all or part of a candidate’s final work without full and complete documentation.

What is “unauthorized” assistance?

“Unauthorized assistance” refers to any support candidates solicit in the completion of their work, that has not been either explicitly specified as appropriate by the instructor, or any assistance that is understood in the class context as inappropriate. This can include, but is not limited to:

- Use of unauthorized notes or another’s work during an online test
- Use of unauthorized notes or personal assistance in an online exam setting
- Inappropriate collaboration in preparation and/or completion of a project
- Unauthorized solicitation of professional resources for the completion of the work.

Statement of Original Work (Continued)

I attest that:

1. I have read, understood, and complied with all aspects of the Concordia University–Portland Academic Integrity Policy during the development and writing of this dissertation.
2. Where information and/or materials from outside sources has been used in the production of this dissertation, all information and/or materials from outside sources has been properly referenced and all permissions required for use of the information and/or materials have been obtained, in accordance with research standards outlined in the *Publication Manual of The American Psychological Association*



Digital Signature

James A. Diaz 5/01/18

Name (Typed)