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Perceived Leadership Practices of Principals-Coaches and Principals-NonCoaches

A dissertation

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education

by

Tony Edward Tipton

August 2007

Dr. Eric Glover, Chair

Dr. Tom Coates

Dr. Jim Lampley

Dr. Louise MacKay

Keywords: *Leadership Practices Inventory*, Principal-Coach, Principal-NonCoach

ABSTRACT

Perceived Leadership Practices of Principals-Coaches and Principals-NonCoaches

by

Tony Edward Tipton

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals who were not coaches. This quantitative study was conducted using a survey-design method in which all 368 public high school principals in North Carolina were given the opportunity to participate. A Principal Demographic sheet along with the 2003 edition of Kouzes and Posner's *Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Self-Form* was used to gather information regarding the principals' perceptions of their leadership practices. The response rate was 64.9%.

This study determined that for the research question: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not, no significant difference, as measured by $\eta^2 (< .01)$ was reported in any of the five dimensions.

This study established that North Carolina high school principals reported significantly higher levels on each of the 5 leadership practices than did those individuals in the Kouzes and Posner study. In addition, a positive relationship was found between the number of previous years of coaching experience and 3 of the 5 leadership practices. The study determined that there was little difference in the mean scores between male and female North Carolina principals.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wife, my best friend, and my constant inspiration, Barbara. You stand the straightest when problems weigh the most; thanks for the life I have.

I also dedicate this work to my three sons: Adam, Cody, and Nick. Adam, the oldest, with his easy gentle ways; Cody, the middle son, who never gives up; and Nick, the youngest, who is the right blend of both. They demonstrate what brothers and sons should be.

Finally, I dedicate this work to my parents, Wayne, who has passed away, and Edith. Neither went to college, but they instilled the love of knowledge in my brothers and sister as well as me. My dad believed there was no greater profession than teaching. He would often ask me at the end of a hard school day, “Did you help someone today?” or “Did you look for a child that you can make a difference with?” My mother, with her quiet patience and love--they are my heroes.

I love all of you.

To the world, you may be just one person; but to one person you may be the world.

~Josephine Billings

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I want to thank my fellow Unicoi Cohort members with special thanks to Chris Cain for all his help in this process. A special acknowledgement goes to Debby Bryan and Susan Twaddle for their invaluable expertise with editing and data analysis.

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Where there is no vision, the people perish

Proverbs 29:18

CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	2
DEDICATION.....	3
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES.....	9
LIST OF FIGURES	11
 Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	12
Statement of the Problem.....	14
Research Questions.....	14
Significance of the Study	15
Assumptions.....	16
Delimitations and Limitations	16
Definitions of Key Terms	16
Overview of the Study	17
2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	18
Current Leadership Theories and Practices	19
Theories and Research on Leadership	20
Situational Leadership Model.....	20
Transactional Leadership.....	21
Transformational Leadership.....	22
The Leadership Practices Model.....	24

Chapter	Page
Leadership: Model the Way.....	27
Leadership: Inspire a Shared Vision.....	29
Leadership: Challenge the Process	29
Leadership: Enable Others to Act.....	31
Leadership: Encourage the Heart.....	32
Principals as School Leaders	33
Attributes of Quality Principals	34
Principals as Instructional Leaders	35
Principals as Cognitive Coaches.....	39
Principals: Model the Way	40
Principals: Inspire a Shared Vision.....	41
Principals: Challenge the Process.....	43
Principals: Enable Others to Act.....	45
Principals: Encourage the Heart	46
Attributes of Good Coaches.....	48
Pathways to Administration.....	51
Shared Attributes of Quality Principals and Good Coaches.....	52
Coaches: Model the Way	57
Coaches: Inspire a Shared Vision	58
Coaches: Challenge the Process	58
Coaches: Enable Others to Act.....	59
Coaches: Encourage the Heart.....	60
Summary	61
3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	63
Research Design	63

Chapter	Page
Population	63
Instrumentation	64
Data Collection	67
Data Analysis	68
Summary	74
4. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS	75
Demographic Data	76
Research Question #1	76
Research Question #2	81
Research Question #3	84
Research Question #4	94
Research Question #5	105
Research Question #6	106
5. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	109
Summary and Discussion of Findings	110
Model the Way	111
Inspire a Shared Vision	113
Challenge the Process	114
Enable Others to Act	115
Encourage the Heart	117
Early Alternative Hypotheses	119
Conclusions	121
Conclusion #1	122
Conclusion #2	122

Chapter	Page
Conclusion #3	122
Conclusion #4	122
Conclusion #5	123
Recommendations for Future Research	123
Recommendation #1	123
Recommendation #2	123
Recommendation #3	124
Recommendations for Practice	124
Recommendation #1	124
Recommendation #2	125
Recommendation #3	125
REFERENCES	126
APPENDICES	133
APPENDIX A: Leadership Practices Inventory (James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner)	133
APPENDIX B: IRB Approval Letter	135
APPENDIX C: Permission Letter From Barry Posner	136
APPENDIX D: Cover Letter (for Traditional Postal Mailing)	137
APPENDIX E: Principal Demographic Sheet	138
APPENDIX F: Kouzes and Posner Norms	139
VITA	140

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. What Discourages Educators From Wanting to Become Principals?.....	13
2. Differences Between Transactional and Transformational Leadership.....	23
3. Characteristics of First- and Second-Order Changes.....	24
4. Characteristics of Admired Leaders	25
5. The 5 Practices and 10 Commitments of Leadership	26
6. Types of Power	49
7. Dimensions of Leadership Behavior in Sports	54
8. Shared Practices of Quality Principals and Coaches	56
9. Leadership Practices Inventory--Self-Form.....	65
10. Means and Standard Deviations for Model the Way by Gender and Coach Status ..	85
11. Means and Standard Deviations for Inspire a Shared Vision by Gender and Coach Status	87
12. Means and Standard Deviations for Challenge the Process by Gender and Coach Status	89
13. Means and Standard Deviations for Enable Others to Act by Gender and Coach Status	91
14. Means and Standard Deviations for Encourage the Heart by Gender and Coach Status	93
15. Means and Standard Deviations for Model the Way by Degree and Coach Status	96
16. Means and Standard Deviations for Inspire a Shared Vision by Degree and Coach Status	98
17. Means and Standard Deviations for Challenge the Process by Degree and Coach Status	100
18. Means and Standard Deviations for Enable Others to Act by Degree and Coach Status	102
19. Means and Standard Deviations for Encourage the Heart by Degree and Coach Status	104

Table	Page
20. Correlations Between Total Years as Principal and the Five Leadership Practices	106
21. Correlations Between Years Spent as Coach and the Five Leadership Practices.....	108

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Boxplot for Model the Way by Coach Status	77
2. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Coach Status	78
3. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Coach Status.....	79
4. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Coach Status	80
5. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Coach Status	81
6. Boxplot for Model the Way by Gender and Coach Status	86
7. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Gender and Coach Status.....	88
8. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Gender and Coach Status.....	90
9. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Gender and Coach Status.....	92
10. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Gender and Coach Status	94
11. Boxplot for Model the Way by Degree and Coach Status.....	96
12. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Degree and Coach Status.....	98
13. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Degree and Coach Status	100
14. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Degree and Coach Status.....	102
15. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Degree and Coach Status.....	104

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The National Center for Education Statistics reported that over 53.6 million students walk into more than 94,000 kindergarten- through 12th-grade schools every day in America (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Principals are the leaders of these schools filled with students who are our future leaders. According to Sybouts and Wendel (1994), these principals:

. . . will be involved in as high a calling as can be found in modern history. Whether in elementary schools, middle-level buildings, or in senior high schools, building principals will be in the most strategically important position found in education. The future of American education will be riding on the shoulders of persons who occupy the principalship. (p. 14)

Where are these shoulders coming from? How do we get the leaders who will be the most successful? These leaders are coming from the ranks of teachers, central office workers, and athletic coaches. Fahrni (2001) found the most common pathways to the secondary principalship included positions of teachers, coaches, and activity advisors. Males listed coaching second only to teaching as to what made them successful in their career pathways of becoming administrators. Females listed coaching in their top five career pathways. However, as Ferrandino (2001) noted, the trend was that principals retired at the first chance they got. In the 10-year span from 1988 to 1998, the attrition rate was 42%, and in the future it could reach 60%. Whitaker (2001) found through surveying superintendents that 90% reported a moderate to extreme shortage of principals. Baker (1997) noted that adding to the principal shortage was the fact that teachers and school counselors were not going into administration as they once did; instead, they observed the life of the principal and decide to stay in their current positions.

Ferrandino (2001) pointed to three factors causing this shortage. First, was inadequate compensation. For the school year 1999-2000, the national mean salary for principals was \$69,407. This was equivalent to the salary of a middle-level bureaucrat with the responsibilities of a CEO. Second, job-related stress and burnout from the pressures of the job caused veteran

teachers not to move into administration despite their salaries being a third less than that of principals. According to a survey by the National Association of Elementary School Principals, (as cited in Ferrandino), 1 in every 10 principals has been named in a civil lawsuit springing from job-related accidents such as playground accidents or disciplinary actions. The last factor was time fragmentation: There simply was not enough time in the school day to fulfill the various responsibilities of a principal and instructional leader. This shortage of aspiring principals makes it harder and harder to fill these positions. As shown in Table 1, the *Education Vital Signs* from December 1998 backed Ferrandino's findings. The first three factors mirrored the findings of Ferrandino, in that low pay, high stress, and long hours stop many educators from taking the step into administration.

Table 1

What Discourages Educators From Wanting to Become Principals?

Rationale	%
Compensation insufficient compared to responsibilities	60
Job too stressful	32
Too much time required	27
Difficult to satisfy parents-community	14
Societal problems make focus on instruction difficult	13
Fewer experienced teachers interested	12
Testing/accountability pressures	7
Job viewed as less satisfying than previously	6
Bad press/PR problems for district	4
Inadequate funding for schools	3
Openings not well publicized	2
Would lose tenure as teacher	1
No tenure for position	1

Source: *Education Vital Signs*, 1998, p. A14

As reported in the March 2005 *Principal Supply and Demand Report*, in North Carolina, 51% of the current principals were over the age of 50 and had 25 years or more of education experience, making them eligible for retirement within the next 5 years with 36% of current principals leaving the principalship after their 6th year. As at the national level, North Carolina's administrators pointed to salary and long hours as their leading reasons for leaving the profession.

What previous experiences helped prepare individuals for the principalship? This study addressed whether coaching experience generates principals who are better prepared.

Statement of the Problem

People have been arguing about coaches becoming school leaders as long as high school coaching has existed. According to Booth (1985), “There appears to be a close correlation between successful coaches and principals” (p. 3). Some maintained that coaches were not intelligent enough to be instructional leaders and others were of the belief that coaching was a natural step up the administration ladder (Booth, 1985). According to Stogdill (1974), the best predictor of good leadership is prior experience. The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals who were not coaches.

Research Questions

In order to gather information on leadership practices and qualities of high school principals in North Carolina who had and who had not been athletic coaches in their careers, the following six research questions were developed:

Research Question #1: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not?

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

Research Question #3: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status?

Research Question #4: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ among principals with masters, specialist, or doctoral degrees as a function of previous coaching status?

Research Question #5: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal?

Research Question #6: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

Significance of the Study

This quantitative study focused on discovering if there are differences in leadership practices between high school principals in North Carolina who have coached and those principals who have not coached in their careers. This researcher investigated self-reported responses of the two groups concerning desired leadership practices. If there are significant differences found in the leadership practices, it should be of interest to superintendents and others who hire principals, as well as universities and state department personnel who are engaged in training principals and studying the principalship. The outcome of the study should be of equal interest if no significant differences are found. This might suggest that the skills used in coaching have no benefit in leadership positions within the principalship.

Assumptions

It was assumed that:

1. Principals-coaches and principals-noncoaches would volunteer to participate in the study in proportionate numbers thereby limiting voluntary bias.
2. The instruments used in the study would measure self-perception of leadership skills.
3. All respondents answered all survey questions honestly and to the best of their abilities.
4. The collected data were accurately interpreted to provide a true account of the principals' responses.

Delimitations and Limitations

1. This study was delimited to the self-reported perceptions of public high school principals in North Carolina.
2. This study was limited by the accuracy of the information obtained exclusively from high school principals' self-assessment of their leadership skills.
3. Results of this study might not be generalized to other populations.

Definitions of Key Terms

This study has limited terms that most readers will not readily understand. Following are terms that might require clarification:

1. *Athletic coach*: The leader of a high school sports team responsible for the results of the team.
2. *Leadership*: The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).
3. *Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)*: A 30-item instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003a) from over 18 years of research that included 4,000 cases and over

- 200,000 surveys. Kouzes and Posner (2003a) translated the actions that make up the five practices of exemplary leadership into behavioral statements.
4. *Principal-coach*: Any school principal with coaching experience (Booth, 1985).
 5. *Principal-noncoach*: Any school principal who has had no coaching experience (Booth).
 6. *Perception*: The process, act, or faculty of perceiving (Morris, 2004).

Overview of the Study

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the study as well as the statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, assumptions, delimitations, limitations, and definitions of key terms used in the study. Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature. Chapter 3 presents the methodology of the research as well as a description of the survey instrument used to collect data. The findings of the study are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 provides a summary and discussion of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Amtmann (2005) focused on the achievements of Joe Ehrmann, a 13-year National Football League veteran, and Biff Poggi, a coach at Gilman High School in Baltimore, Maryland, and their approach to coaching high school football. Amtmann stated that these two leaders believed their number one job was guiding players to become successful in life. According to Amtmann, Joe Ehrmann used two standard questions for his team. The first question was, "What is our job as coaches?" The response was always, "to love us!" The second question was, "What is your job?" and the response was always, "to love each other!" (p. 36). Coach Poggi, when asked how successful his team was going to be, replied, "I have no idea-- won't know for 20 years. I'll be able to see what kind of fathers they are. I'll see what they are doing in the community" (p. 38). Coach Poggi told his players, "If we lose every game and go 0-10, as long as we try hard, I don't care; if they learn that lesson, they will go 10-0 in the game of life" (p. 38). According to Amtmann, educators can look at short-term successes and failures, the yearly end-of-course test scores, or the pass-fail percentages; however, they also have to wait many years to see the true measure of their work. According to Sergiovanni (1996):

Students who play high school football in well-designed programs and under progressive leadership, for example, can learn a great deal about sportsmanship, leadership, community, and responsibility. They often get important self-esteem boosts, and they benefit physically as well. Further, their grades are usually better, and they are likely to be better behaved. (p. 119)

This statement has suggested strong similarities between football coaches and school leaders. This review of literature will provide background on the subjects of current leadership theories, leadership practices, the role of the principal as the school leader, and athletic coaches as leaders.

Current Leadership Theories and Practices

“Concepts of leadership, ideas about leadership, and leadership practices are the subject of much thought, discussion, writing, teaching, and learning” (DePree, 1989, p. 9). Leadership is a complex area of study. Indeed, even the term “leadership” has had multiple definitions. Gardner (1995) defined it as “The ability to influence--either directly or indirectly--the behavior, thoughts, and actions of a significant number of individuals” (p. ix). Lambert (2003) noted that leadership has been defined as “reciprocal purposeful learning in a community” (p. 54). Stogdill (1950) defined it as “The process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal achievement” (p. 4). Drucker (2001) noted that the only real definition of leadership was someone who had followers. Bennis (1989) said leadership is “like beauty, you know it when you see it” (p. 34). According to Stogdill (1950), leadership cannot exist without "a group (of two or more persons, a leader and at least one follower); a common task (or goal oriented activities); and differentiation of responsibility (some of the members have different duties)" (p. 4). Kouzes and Posner (2003a) suggested, “Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow” (p. 1). Bennis and Nanus (1985) defined the difference between a leader and a manager: "To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct. Leading is influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, or opinion” (p. 21). These authors pointed out that the distinction was crucial by stating, “Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing” (p. 21). This study focused on leadership. For the purposes of this study, leadership was defined as, “The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 83). Regardless of the definition used, DePree (1989) suggested, “The first responsibility of a leader is to define reality. The last is to say thank you. In between the two, the leader must become a servant and a debtor” (p. 9).

Theories and Research on Leadership

Sergiovanni (1994) stated that all leadership theories should emphasize connecting people to each other and to their work. However, not all theories or approaches emphasized the same kinds of connections. Selecting the correct theories or leadership skills for a given task can be important. What are some approaches to leadership that principals can use? Three approaches found in the literature review were: (a) situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982); (b) transactional leadership (Burns, 1978); and (c) transformational leadership (Burns).

Situational Leadership Model

According to Northouse (2001), one of the more recognized approaches to leadership was the situational approach developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1982. Two studies (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard) addressed the question: Are leaders born or made? If leaders were born, then what value was there in training individuals to assume leadership positions? Jennings (as cited in Hersey & Blanchard) declared, “. . . 50 years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate between leaders and nonleaders” (p. 83). Chelladurai (1999) suggested that if leadership was a behavioral process, the focus should be on “what the leader does--not what he is” (p. 160). According to Northouse, the five leadership traits most widely studied were intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. However, leadership has been an ever-changing process varying from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers, and events. The focus in a situational approach to leadership has been on learned or trained behavior and not on traits with which a person was born. The situational approach has been refined many times over the last decades. The basic premise was that different situations demanded different kinds of leadership. As interpreted by Marzano et al. (2005), leaders should adopt behaviors based upon the maturity of their followers. Case (1984) defined this maturity as “the capacity to set high but attainable goals” (p. 52).

Northouse (2001) stressed that situational leadership was composed of both a directive and a supportive behavior and each must be used correctly at the correct time. He explained that directive behaviors were often one-way communication methods telling others “what is to be done, how it is to be done, and who is responsible for doing it” (p. 57). Supportive behaviors were more like two-way communication and were used to get input, offer praise, and listen. Leaders must evaluate their followers to assess their ability and commitment to any situation and then decide how much direction or support is needed at that time and place. As staff and schools change, so does the amount of direction and support needed. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) advanced that idea by stating that they believed most people could enhance their leadership through education, training, and development. This changing behavior was called adaptive leadership. According to Hersey and Blanchard, “The more managers adapt their style of leader behavior to meet the particular situation and the needs of [their] followers, the more effective [they] will tend to be in reaching personal and organizational goals” (p. 94).

Transactional Leadership

Burns (1978) identified two broad leadership theories: transactional and transformative. Burns stated that by nature most relationships between leaders and followers have taken the form of transactional leadership: Leaders and followers work together for a goal. The goal might not be a common goal; the leader could have something he or she wanted to get accomplished and the followers were willing to help as long as they got what they wanted. Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) described this process as trading one thing for another, or quid pro quo. This method, according to several researchers (Burns, 1978; Owens, 2004; Sergiovanni, 1991), led to a type of leadership by bartering. Positive or contingent reinforcement was given for good work, promotion for a job well done, security provided by tenure, and a feeling of belonging. According to Burns, transactional leadership focused on basic and largely extrinsic motives and needs. Cotton (2003) described this type of leadership as bureaucratic wherein the principal leader looked for ways to appeal to the self-interest of staff members as a strategy for inducing

them to do his or her bidding. The two parties agreed on what was to be done and then the leader monitored the progress to make sure the goal was reached. Burns noted a problem with this leadership method: Although change might take place, there was nothing that held the leader and followers together in pursuit of a higher purpose.

Transformational Leadership

The second and more advanced leadership theory identified by Burns (1978) was transformational leadership. This was a method where the leader recognized and tried to satisfy higher needs of the staff. Transformational leaders have focused on higher-order and intrinsic motives and needs. In transformational leadership, Sergiovanni (1991) suggested both principals and teachers were united in pursuit of high-level goals that were common to both parties. Both parties must want to become better and make the school better. Transformational leadership, according to Burns, “converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents” (p. 4). Moral leadership emerged from and always has returned to the fundamental needs and wants of the followers. Bass (1990), building on Burns' earlier work, outlined four factors of transformational leadership as: (a) charismatic leadership, or the ability to "share complete faith in him or her," (b) inspirational leadership, or the ability to “communicate high performance expectations,” (c) intellectual stimulation, or the ability to enable others “to think about old problems in new ways,” and (d) individualized consideration, or the ability to “give personal attention to members who seem neglected” (p. 218). Burns also suggested that principals using transformational leadership behaviors would be more effective in bringing about desired outcomes such as improved teachers and teaching, faculty development, and collaborative decision-making. Cotton (2003) submitted that researchers found that transformational leadership promoted greater student achievement and proved to be more effective than bartering between principal and staff. Table 2 shows the differences in the two behaviors as described by Bass (1985).

Table 2

Differences Between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Leadership	Factors Affected	Outcomes
Transactional	Cognition Abilities Exchange	Lower turnover and absence Satisfaction Expected performance
Transformational	Emotions Values, goals, and needs Self-esteem	Higher aspirations Greater efforts Performance beyond expectations or call of duty Lower turnover and absence Satisfaction

Source: Bass (as cited in Chelladurai, 1999, p. 172)

Whichever leadership type was used, the goal of the school or leader has been to improve and change. These changes might have come in a magnitude of ways; some were small whereas others were school wide. Waters et al. (2003) identified what they termed as characteristics of first- and second-order changes. First-order changes were those changes that were consistent with the existing values and created advantages for individuals or groups with similar interests. There was agreement on what changes needed to be made. A second-order change was a change where it was not obvious how it would affect people with similar interests. The stakeholders must be willing to learn new skills or approaches in their work to achieve this high order of change. Depending on where staff members were in relation to the need for change, a single change might mean first order for some and second order for others. Walters et al. noted, “Change can lead to one person’s solution becoming someone else’s problem” (p. 7). The characteristics of first-and second-order changes as identified by Waters et al. are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Characteristics of First- and Second-Order Changes

First-Order Change	Second-Order Change
An extension of the past	A break with the past
Within existing paradigms	Outside of existing paradigms
Consistent with prevailing values and norms	Conflicted with prevailing values and norms
Focused	Emergent
Bounded	Unbounded
Incremental	Complex
Linear	Nonlinear
Marginal	A disturbance to every element of a system
Implemented with existing knowledge & skills	Requires new knowledge and skills to implement
Problem-and solution-oriented	Neither problem-nor solution-oriented
Implemented by experts	Implemented by stakeholders

Source: Waters et al., 2003, p. 7

The Leadership Practices Model

Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow. Sometimes the relationship is one-on-one. Sometimes it's one-to-many. Regardless of the number, to emerge, grow, and thrive in these disquieting times, leaders must master the dynamics of this relationship. They must learn how to mobilize others to want to struggle for shared aspirations. (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a, p. 1)

Over the past 20 years, Kouzes and Posner (2003a) have looked into the leader-constituent relationship. Kouzes and Posner (1995) started their studies in 1983; their work included over 780 surveys and 42 indepth interviews with managers and nonmanagers from a wide variety of occupations. To balance their understanding of leadership, Kouzes and Posner (2003b) wanted to know what leaders at all levels and in all contexts did. Kouzes and Posner (2002) asked the following open-ended question: "What values (personal traits or characteristics) do you look for and admire in your leader?" (p. 24). They received more than 225 different

responses. Through follow-ups and using a few synonyms, they narrowed the list to 20 characteristics. A questionnaire with these 20 characteristics was sent to over 75,000 people around the world on six continents; they asked constituents to tell what they “most look for and admire in a leader, someone whose direction they would willingly follow” (p. 24). The key word was *willingly*, what they expected from a leader they would follow, not because they had to, but because they wanted to. Table 4 shows three sets of data gathered over the last 2 decades. While each characteristic received some votes and was, therefore, important to some people, evidence showed that over time and across six continents only four characteristics continuously received over 50% of the votes.

Table 4

Characteristics of Admired Leaders

Characteristic	% of Respondents Selecting Characteristic		
	2002 edition	1995 edition	1987 edition
Honest	88	88	83
Forward-Looking	71	75	62
Competent	66	63	67
Inspiring	65	68	58
Intelligent	47	40	43
Fair-minded	42	49	40
Broad-minded	40	40	37
Supportive	35	41	32
Straightforward	34	33	34
Dependable	33	32	33
Cooperative	28	28	25
Determined	24	17	17
Imaginative	23	28	34
Ambitious	21	13	21
Courageous	20	29	27
Caring	20	23	26
Mature	17	13	23
Loyal	14	11	11
Self-Controlled	8	5	13
Independent	6	5	10

Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 25

Most people, in order to follow a leader willingly, must have believed the leader was: honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

From their studies, Kouzes and Posner (2002) were able to identify what they called the five practices of exemplary leadership. These five practices of exemplary leadership were: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart. Embedded in each of the five practices were two behaviors that could serve as the basis for learning to lead. Kouzes and Posner (2003a) identified these as the "Ten Commitments" of leadership. The 5 practices and 10 commitments of leadership are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

The 5 Practices and 10 Commitments of Leadership

Practice	Commitment
Model the Way	1. Find your voice by clarifying your personal values. 2. Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
Inspire a Shared Vision	3. Envision the future by imaging exciting and ennobling possibilities. 4. Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.
Challenge the Process	5. Search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve. 6. Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes.
Enable Others to Act	7. Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust. 8. Strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.
Encourage the Heart	9. Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. 10. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

Source: Kouzes and Posner, 2003a, p. 12

The leadership practices inventory has been field-tested and proven reliable in identifying the behaviors that made a difference in leaders' effectiveness. Kouzes and Posner (2002) noted others frequently viewed managers, individual contributors, volunteers, pastors, government administrators, teachers, school principals, students, and other leaders who used the five practices of exemplary leadership as being better leaders. In other words, as pointed out by Kouzes and Posner (2002), "The more you engage in the practices of exemplary leaders, the more likely it is that you'll have a positive influence on others in the organization" (p. 389). The internal reliability or the extent to which items in a scale were associated with one another has been quite strong. All five leadership practices have internal reliability scores, as measured statistically, that were above .75 for the 2003 Self-form (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a).

Leadership: Model the Way

Kouzes and Posner (2003b) stated that to model the way, one must "find your voice by clarifying your personal values and set the example by aligning personal actions with shared values" (p. 27). Whether or not leaders articulated their personal beliefs or philosophies, their behavior did, as noted by DePree (1993), "Their behavior expresses a personal set of values and beliefs" (p. 5). In a qualitative study conducted by Goldberg (2001) over a 20-year period with people labeled as eminent educational leaders, five qualities or beliefs were identified as being shared by all these leaders. These qualities were:

1. a bedrock belief in what they were doing;
2. the courage to swim upstream in behalf of their beliefs;
3. a social conscience, particularly in issues of racism and poverty;
4. a seriousness of purpose, holding high standards and devoting years of service to their causes; and
5. a situational mastery--the happy marriage of personal skills and accomplishment. (p. 757)

Peck (2003) added credence to these qualities with his three simple premises for strong leadership skills. One was passion, the driving force that provides energy and stamina. Next was to select people who believed in your vision and goals. For programs to be effective, team members must believe in the goals of the school. The last was not to be the lone ranger as one could not make significant and lasting changes alone. Peck noted that a good leader empowered the team, listened to others, and shared ideas. Peck observed, "It usually is not the idea that gets the ball rolling but rather the follow through that gets the job done" (p. 51).

Bennis and Nanus (1985), through their interviews with 90 leaders, (60 successful CEOs and 30 leaders from the public sector) found four major themes or areas of competency that all 90 leaders embodied. They called these four areas "strategies." Strategy I was attention through vision or creating a focus. Strategy II was getting the message or vision across to other people through communication. Strategy III was trusting through positioning or trusting the people one placed in a position of leadership. The researchers explained that positioning meant the set of actions necessary to implement the vision of the leader. Strategy IV was the deployment of self through (a) positive self-regard and (b) the Wallenda factor. Bennis and Nanus explained that positive self-regard meant to be honest with oneself by knowing one's strengths and weakness. They continued by explaining the need to build on those strengths, to take advantage of them, and to remember weaknesses but not to harp on them. Simply put, leaders must nurture their skills by working hard to develop the whole person. The Wallenda factor was named after Karl Wallenda, the great tightrope walker. According to Bennis and Nanus, each time Wallenda went to work, he put his life on the line; he never thought he would fall or fail. As noted by these researchers, the 90 leaders in their study had that same quality--they believed they would never fail. They all knew they would be wrong many times; however, they all reported they made the best decisions at the time and moved on. As leaders model the way, they must be themselves. Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated, "People don't follow your technique. They follow you--your message and your embodiment of that message" (p. 57). Leaders could borrow and learn from other leaders, but they must be themselves.

Leadership: Inspire a Shared Vision

To inspire a shared vision, according to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), one must “envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities, and enlist others in the dreams by appealing to shared aspirations” (p. 43). Yukl (2002) stated that a successful vision should be:

... simple and idealistic, a picture of a desirable future; the vision should be challenging but realistic, the vision should be focused enough to guide decisions and action, but general enough to allow initiative and creativity in planning and finally, a “successful vision should be simple enough to be communicated clearly in five minutes or less. (p. 283)

Because people live and work in the present, leaders must not only talk about the future and where they see the organization going, they also need to talk about the present with passion and with a sense of meaning and purpose. Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated, “One of the most important practices of leadership is giving life and work a sense of meaning and purpose by offering an exciting vision” (p. 112). Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) suggested vision was developed from a shared sense of creating a future of an organization based on “followers’ needs, ideas, and ideals” (p. 92).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) described what they called a “universal principal of leadership” in creating a new vision. Successful leaders followed these four steps when they took charge of the organization: (a) they paid attention to what was going on, (b) they determined what part of the events at hand would be important for the future of the organization, (c) they set a new direction, and (d) they concentrated the attention of everyone in the organization on this new direction. These four steps were universal because they held true for “orchestra conductors, army generals, football coaches, and school superintendents, as well as corporate leaders” (Bennis & Nanus, p. 89).

Leadership: Challenge the Process

In his book, *The World is Flat*, Friedman (2006) described how companies and their leaders coped with the changing world of business. Friedman heard the same phrase from many different leaders; that phrase was, “Just in the last couple of years . . .” The leaders were

talking about how fast things were changing. The world has been changing and leaders must change and adapt their way of leading or they will become outdated. According to Friedman, leaders should understand, “Whatever can be done will be done--and much faster than you think. The only question is whether it will be done by you or to you” (p. 425).

To change or to challenge the process, according to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), leaders, “search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve, and you experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes” (p. 85). Yukl (2002) suggested that “leading change” was the essence of leadership. Simply put, leading change was one of the most important and difficult leadership responsibilities. Any major change in an organization usually has been guided from the top level of leadership. This change must have been meaningful to the people in the organization, or it would fail. Cottrell and Harvey (2004) stated that whenever the status quo was challenged, resistance would follow. Resisting change was natural. Humans have been creatures of habit and the status quo has offered comfort and stability. Cottrell and Harvey suggested five common reasons why employees resisted change in the workplace:

1. The change is out of their control... it represents the unknown. They didn't create it, or ask for it, or even want it.
2. They don't understand why the change is necessary. Without understanding the “why's” behind the “what's,” emotions that are tied to the old way are hard to loosen. Even if they don't agree, people will accept change more readily if they understand the rationale behind it.
3. They succeeded the old way. There is often a group of people who excelled under the old conditions and don't feel a need to change. This group usually offers strong and loud opposition.
4. They feel incapable of changing. Many people lack confidence that they can keep up with the new technology and the new changes at the same time and therefore are threatened by them.

5. They perceive that the price to pay outweighs the benefits to be gained. If they don't see the "upsides" or they don't like what they see, they may believe the change is not worth the pain they must go through for its implementation. (p. 22)

Cottrell and Harvey offered some suggestions on how to get past these problems: First, earn followers respect before asking them to change. Second, involve the team in how the changes will be implemented. Third, talk with them, acknowledge their past successes, and let them know how important they are to the team now and in the changes to come. Fourth, work with the team through the change process; be sure to set the proper example because your total commitment and resulting actions will be what they remember the most. Finally, focus on the pluses. Communicate the benefits to be gained by each member of the organization by staying focused on the end results to be achieved and the benefits to be gained.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) suggested that some standard practices, policies, and procedures were vital to productivity and quality assurance and others were simply traditions. One group was "the way we've always done it around here" and the other was "how useful it is in helping us become the best we can be." By looking at these two groups, the organization has a good place to start their change by getting rid of some, keeping some, and changing the rest.

Leaders must be aware that change will come in stages; Kurt Lewin's force-field model (as cited in Yukl, 2002) was one of the first to explain this change process. According to Yukl, Lewin proposed that the change process occurred in three phrases: unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. In the unfreezing phrase, people realized that the old ways of doing things were no longer adequate. In the changing phrase, people looked for new ways of doing things and decided which direction this change would take. In the refreezing phrase, the new approach was implemented and it became established.

Leadership: Enable Others to Act

According to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), when you enable others to act, you "foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust, and you strengthen others by

sharing power and discretion” (p. 77). This could be achieved by the active involvement and support of many people within the organization. From the thousands of cases Kouzes and Posner (2002) studied, they did not encounter a single example where an extraordinary individual accounted for most, let alone 100%, of the success. In every case, it took the involvement and support of many people.

Staub (1996) recounted the old saying, “There are three kinds of people in the world: those who make things happen, those who watch things happen, and those who wonder what happened” (p. 15). According to Staub, leaders obviously came from the first category. What was not so obvious and was often missed in this old saying has been that members from the first category (people making things happen) made things happen by drawing members from the other two categories in with them.

From their research, Wendel, Hoke, and Joekel (1996) noted that outstanding administrators allowed people to work when they “valued excellence, family, growth and development, a sense of community, work ethic, put students first, had integrity, were trustworthy and trusted others, empowered others, were sensitive, empathetic-forgiving, were good listeners, cared about others, and maintained a sense of humor” (p. 47). Although leaders might not have had all these traits, the more they had, the better they were to work with. Herszenhorn (2006) summed it up by saying, “You have to be good to people; if people feel they don’t have a voice, they are going to strike back at some point” (p. 4).

According to Blanchard and Shula (2001), “The way leaders, coaches, managers, or parents treat people is powerfully influenced by what they expect of people” (p. 39). People generally responded well to leaders who communicated high expectations and had genuine confidence in them.

Leadership: Encourage the Heart

To encourage the heart, one must "recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence, and celebrate the values and the victories by creating a spirit of

community” (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b, p. 93). According to Blanchard (1999), the main job of a leader was to help his or her people succeed in accomplishing their goals. When someone failed, good leaders should have accepted responsibility for that failure because they did not properly prepare that person for what they asked of them.

Kouzes and Posner (2003a) stated leaders must keep hope alive, even in the most difficult times. This would be the time they must strengthen hearts. Without hope, there could be no courage and without courage, there could be no growth in the person or in the organization. According to Staub (1996), leadership had at its center the requirement of courage. Staub explained, “Courage is not the absence of fear. Rather, it is the willingness to proceed and do what is necessary and important, even when it is frightening” (p. 3).

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002) one of the best kept secret of successful leaders was love, “Staying in love with leading, with the people who do the work, with what the organizations produce, and with those who honor the organization by using its work” (p. 399). It is hard to imagine leaders or followers being successful day in and day out without having their hearts in it. Staub (1996) stated, “The real leader’s heart somehow speaks to the hearts of those around him or her, inspiring and touching them” (p. 3).

Principals as School Leaders

There was an emerging belief that good school principals were the cornerstones of good schools. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003) predicted that as the United States sought reforms in education through standards and accountability, the principal would be asked to lead the way. However, the expectations of the position of principalship have increased to the point that DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran stated, “People are reluctant to aspire to a position that sounds impossible to perform” (p. 46). There was no single accepted definition of principalship roles and responsibilities. Kouzes and Posner (1999) reported it was safe to say that principals wore many hats.

Attributes of Quality Principals

Krovetz (1995) reported that being a school leader could be lonely, stressful work and oftentimes leaders could not rely on their immediate peers for support because they might have felt they were in competition with each other for the best school. Donaldson (1991) interviewed school principals to get a complete view of the many roles and responsibilities of their jobs.

Donaldson described the vagaries of administration:

It seems impossible to tell anyone, even another principal, what one does on the job. So many of my activities as principal were determined by happenstance that my attempts to describe what I did often degenerated into lists of unconnected events. This is a persistent difficulty for almost every principal. The job is simply too fast-moving and the role too ambiguous to permit neat structuring. We, too, often thrive on the action, choosing to submerge ourselves in students; problems and activities despite the fact that we will lose control of our time and perhaps our vision of the school's purposes as we do so. Yet, to understand and improve our work, we must learn to stop this action and to analyze our roles within it. (p. 15)

Because of the changing dimensions of society, there was an increasing emphasis on leadership at the school level. Hallinger and Heck (1996) noted that the focus of principal leadership had shifted from looking at what the principal did to the actual impact of the principal on the school's organization. Hallinger and Anast (1992) stated, "The image of forceful principal leadership in curriculum and instruction became embedded in the minds of policy makers as a critical element of school reform" (p. 410). This would require a significant shift in the expectations of the principal's role. Principals have traditionally functioned as managers; now they were being viewed as change agents.

Donaldson (1991) listed three critical jobs of the principal: (a) committing time, energy, and attention to activities that advance the education of children, (b) identifying the proper people to involve in essential activities and providing for their success, and (c) understanding and developing proper relationships to maximize these people's and the school's success (p. 7). According to DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2003), today's principals were expected to be building managers, student disciplinarians, instructional leaders, staff developers, relationship

builders, communication and public relations experts, program developers, grant writers, human relations handlers, and stress managers.

Townsend (1996) reported principals indicated that current educational changes created pressure for them because of a perceived need to do more, to know more, and to be more accountable in an ever-changing environment. Principals also indicated a common theme of lack of time to accomplish all that needed to be done and difficulty in finding time to be the reflective practitioner that was expected and needed. Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1996) defined the role of the principal as: (a) designer-champion of involvement structures for decision making; (b) motivator-coach to create a supportive environment by building trust, encouraging risk-taking, communicating information, and facilitating participation; (c) facilitator-manager of change by providing both tangible and intangible resources to staff for school improvement; and (d) liaison to the outside world by bringing in new ideas, research, and donations from the community, encouraging grant writing, and filtering out unnecessary distractions for teachers. Wohlstetter and Mohrman pointed out that the role of being liaison to the outside world was the newest role for principals to become accomplished in and add to their area of knowledge.

Moore (1994), while noting that educational leadership was critical to an effective principalship, stated that managerial and political skills were also important. He said in addition to understanding classroom pedagogy to help facilitate effective teaching strategies, effective principals must also meet the needs and desires of their communities and use their communication tools to help maintain the community support for education. As explained by Moore, "Since the school system is a major influence in many communities, the high school principal may be second only to the superintendent in visibility" (p. 91).

Principals as Instructional Leaders

The principal of today, according to Hanny (1987), has been perceived as having to be an effective instructional leader. That meant being "knowledgeable about curriculum development, teacher and instructional effectiveness, clinical supervision, staff development, and teacher

evaluation” (p. 209). Cotton (2003) noted that effective principals were at the center of instructional improvements. Cotton also wrote that research showed students with principals who were involved with the instructional improvement of the school were higher achieving than students whose principal only managed the noninstructional aspects of the school. Adding credence to this outcome, Schlechty (1997) stated, “In education, the changes that count most are those that directly affect students and what they learn” (p. 100). Cooper (1989) said schools needed to create models of shared leadership where the talents of everyone including the principal, teachers, students, and parents were incorporated.

Cottrell and Harvey (2004) said it was unrealistic to believe that every team member had the skills or willingness to be the best of the best. However, team members could contribute at their own levels of improvement. It was the responsibility of the principal to know what those levels were. According to Cottrell and Harvey, most schools or teams were composed of three performance groups or “stars.” The first group was the outstanding “super stars” of the staff. This group comprised 10% to 20 % of the staff, maybe even 30% in some schools. These were consistently outstanding performers and sometimes they were also the overworked performers. Good instructional leaders know not to overlook these teachers. The second group was the “middle stars.” They accounted for about 50% of most staff members. Some days they exceeded expectations and on other days, they fell short. As the largest percentage of the staff, the middle stars were the backbone of the school, they had the ability to rise to the top group or fall to the lower group. The principal's ability to affect the performance of this group was vital to success as a coach or as a leader. This might be as easy as praising them for doing a good job or by increasing their confidence by giving them more responsibilities. The last group was the “falling stars.” This group usually comprised a small number. Although their numbers were small, their impact could be negative. Not only did they not carry their load, they often prevented others from carrying their load (Cottrell & Harvey).

Whitaker (2003a) suggested many principals have failed to make a change because they were worried about what those few negative or low-performing teachers would say or do instead

of worrying about the majority of teachers who would help make the school successful. In other words, the principal gave the negative teachers power by working around them. Whitaker (2003a) advised, when deciding whether to implement a new policy or rule, to ask three questions to determine whether the idea was likely to have a positive or negative effect:

1. What is the true purpose in implementing this rule or policy?
2. Will it actually accomplish the purpose?
3. How will my most positive and productive people feel about it? (p. 12)

By asking these three quick questions, the power has shifted toward the productive positive staff members.

Bamburg and Andrews (1990) recorded four skills a principal must have in order to be an effective instructional leader. These skills were:

1. having a vision for the organization that is clearly focused upon desired outcome (i.e., ensuring academic excellence);
2. communicating that vision to everyone connected with the organization to obtain support for it;
3. providing or obtaining the resources needed to accomplish the vision (i.e., materials, information, or opportunity); and
4. managing one's self so the above can occur. (p. 29)

Marzano et al. (2005) presented five steps to help instructional leaders use their skills to get better organized or to implement what they called an action plan. These steps were: (a) developing a strong school leadership team, (b) distributing some responsibilities throughout the leadership team, (c) selecting the right work, (d) identifying the order of magnitude implied by the selected work, and (e) matching the management style to the order of magnitude of the change initiative. Whitaker (2003b) defined the process of being an instructional leader by saying in order to improve schools significantly, there were only two ways: Get better teachers and improve the teachers you have. Whitaker (2003b) noted that programs were never the solution just as they were never the problem in themselves. Teachers made the difference and

how the principal used them and treated them could make them even more successful. Whitaker (2006) said the greatest gift principals could give to their students and staff was the gift of confidence by letting them know you believed they could do whatever was asked of them. A principal's confidence in teachers and students could ultimately instill confidence within them.

Whitaker (2003b) contended that all principals were pressed for time. The better principals had just as many demands on their time as did weaker principals. However, it was the great principal who found time to improve teachers' effectiveness. Whitaker (2003b) also noted that principals could not improve teachers' performance from the office.

Blasé and Kirby (1992) submitted that effective principals were servants of the teachers; they served as guardians of the teachers' instructional time, empowered the teachers to help in developing procedures, and then supported teachers as they enforced the procedures and policies. Great principals attended to the needs of all teachers, including the novice teacher. According to Hughes (1994), successful instructional principals made it a priority to meet two special needs of new teachers. These special needs were: (a) their personal needs as new professionals, such as assigning a supportive mentor and orientation for surviving the first days of school and (b) their situational needs as contributing members of the school such as supplying floor plans of the school for fire drills, explaining duties, and how to report discipline problems. In *Xtreme Leadership*, Toole (1997) discussed the needs of the "GenX" generation, those 70 million persons born from 1965 to 1983. According to Toole, for principals to successfully recruit new GenX teachers into their schools and then successfully work with them, leaders must remember four things:

1. this is the first generation to make less money than any previous generation and they know it;
2. they think differently about the job than other age groups;
3. they work to make money to have fun--they do not work for the job itself; and, most importantly,
4. titles do not impress them; instead, what type of person or what kind of leader they

have does make an impression. (p. 67)

Toole stated, “As each generation matures, its needs for leadership evolves” (p. 67).

Principals as Cognitive Coaches

Although most often associated with sports, coaching could be viewed as a basic approach to leadership and teaching. The area of cognitive coaching has been emerging in the literature; however, it was clear that many effective principals used it (Owens, 2004). Zepeda (2004) defined cognitive coaching as being “based on the idea that meta-cognition occurs when there is an awareness of one’s own thinking processes and it is this awareness that fosters learning” (p. 4). Hoy and Hoy (2006) defined meta-cognition as “cognition about cognition, or knowledge about knowledge” (p. 97). Most teachers would say they wanted their students to learn how to learn. This has been where the principal as the cognitive coach or leader came in. Hoy and Hoy noted that students differed in intelligence, emotion, learning styles, culture, and gender. Each of these differences had implications for teaching and learning. Lambert (2003) stated that it was common to tie professional development activities to student learning. In addition, the approach the principal took in staff development activities made a difference. Is it a chance for teacher training or is it a chance for professional development? Lambert defined professional development to include learning opportunities such as collegial sharing of conversations, coaching episodes, shared decision-making, reflective journal writing, and parent forums. Professional development that has been designed to grow both teachers and students was what Lambert referred to as the “reciprocal processes of constructivist learning” (p. 22). This reciprocal process was mutual and interactive wherein all participants, both teachers and students grew.

For coaching to work, Zepeda (2004) stated that context was everything, suggesting that the following workplace conditions must be considered:

1. culture, culture norms and values (collaboration, isolation) that will embrace coaching as leadership strategies;

2. support to redesign work patterns so coaching becomes a leadership function instead of an add-on program within the context of the school or the system;
3. diffused leadership (e.g., teachers, administrators, students, parents, central office personnel) so that everyone has a role in the process;
4. capacity to support change; and
5. commitment to resources. (p. 6)

Principals: Model the Way

As the role of public schools in the United States has emerged from the one-room schoolhouse to schools that try to encompass not only subject matter but physical and mental welfare, nutrition, and social skills, school principals must develop leadership skills and practices that will serve them in the changing role. Stogdill (1950) advanced the idea that an organization or school was composed of individuals. Without all the individuals in the organization working together, it would not be successful. Leadership existed only as long as the members took ownership of the goals and allowed the leader to lead giving the organization or school the ability to change. This leadership, according to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), must be effectively modeled daily by actions. Actions about one's beliefs were found to be far more important than were words.

Principals have entered the job with different backgrounds and perspectives from their earlier careers giving them a variety of ideas of how to behave as a leader. Lambert (2003) identified four behavior approaches that most principals used in their roles as leaders: (a) the directive principal, (b) the laissez-faire principal, (c) the collaborative principal, and (d) the capacity-building principal. The directive principal used command-and-control behavior, a combination of prior experience, personality style, and a reinforcing of top-down leadership. Although this behavior might get short-term results, it would ultimately undermine the growth potential of the school. The laissez-faire principal was often found in larger schools where individuals made decisions within their classroom or subject. This leadership approach might

fragment the school into individuals, not teams. This hand-off approach from the leader often created a climate where individuals did their own thing. The practices, policies, and programs were all over the place. The teachers might have been creative in their teaching, but there were no common goals or vision for the school to move toward. The collaborative principal encouraged open participation in the decision-making process, but then might decide which approach to use to accomplish the task. With this approach, the principal often was unsure about how to get the staff members who resisted the process involved in the work. This principal might have created a top-down style without realizing it. He or she decided what the agenda would be and then got people on board. Finally, the capacity-building principal created meaning and shared knowledge through broad-based skillful participation. This principal not only allowed the staff to have input in the decision-making process but also taught them how to look at the school in the larger picture of what was right for everyone not just the individual or the individual classroom. Lambert noted that the four approaches were not linear in fashion. The directive principal seldom became laissez-faire, but the collaborative principal often moved up to become a capacity-building principal.

Regardless of the approach used by the principal in leading, all teachers have had something in common. Cottrell and Harvey (2004) called it the universal need. The universal need that all employees share was the need for consistency; they all needed to work in an environment where the leader had eliminated the inconsistencies and contradictions of a mixed message. A leader's actions or walk must have matched his or her expectations or talk. Kouzes and Posner (2002) suggested, "credibility is the foundation of leadership" (p. 32). They referred to credibility as the first law of leadership: "If you don't believe in the messenger, you won't believe the message" (p. 33). Employees simply worked better in an environment where the leader had a credible and consistent message.

Principals: Inspire a Shared Vision

Kouzes and Posner (2002) found that leaders who were honest, forward-looking,

competent, and inspiring had four characteristics that have remained constant over the last 2 decades. Honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring leaders could inspire a shared vision because they were viewed as credible. According to Ubben and Hughes (1987), climate in the school setting referred to the attitudes of the staff to certain aspects of the school's program. The school vision and climate, according to Lumsden (1998), was ultimately the responsibility of the principal. Cotton (2003) explained further, "The principal's contribution to the quality of the school climate is arguably a composite of all the things he or she says or does" (p. 14).

Principals must be aware of teachers' needs and take steps to foster a positive school climate; but, what is a school's climate? According to Sergiovanni (1991), school climate was the operating style of the school. It was "interpersonal in tone and substance and was manifested in the attitudes and behaviors of teachers, supervisors, students, and principals at work" (p. 218). Ubben and Hughes suggested that schools with a good healthy instructional climate were schools where three concepts have been stressed: (a) high achievement is expected of all students, (b) students have a high self-concept relative to their academic ability, and (c) students have a low sense of academic fatality or the perception that nothing they do makes a difference (p. 27).

Parks (1983) suggested that school leaders have created the type of school they want. This could be either a pleasant work environment or simply a place to exchange time for income. Wood, Nicholson, and Findley (1985) suggested maintaining a basic frame of reference when making leadership decisions and pointed out principals should use three bases for making decisions. The principal should ask if the decision would (a) help individualize the instruction for students, (b) promote the professional quality of teaching, and (c) help refine the curriculum. If one or more of these criteria could be a consequence of the principal's decision, then the process would be a positive force for the educational environment or climate (Wood et al.).

As reported by Bulach, Price, and Boothe (1999) from their study on leadership behaviors, it was the principals' human relations skills, levels of trust, decision-making processes, methods of controlling staff, and ways of dealing with conflict that made the difference between successful and unsuccessful principals. Schools must become a place where

teachers are allowed to have a voice in the vision and direction of any reform efforts. Without this, administrators could not build a supportive climate or vision where the teachers and staff as a whole could reach their full potential (Bulach et al.).

Principals: Challenge the Process

Principals have a need to understand globalization and the impact it might have as an “influence that is causing customary cultural, social, and geographic orders to disappear as we move into an age dominated by rapid, seamless information transfer” (Papalewis, 2000, p. 12). Ferrandino (2001) predicted that by the middle of the 21st century, more than half of the population of the United States would be made up of what are now minorities. Tirozzi (2001) added that 61% of the nation’s population growth by the year 2025 would be Hispanics and Asians. To add to this racial and ethnic mix, it was estimated that 50% of Asian Americans, 35% of Hispanics, and 20% of African Americans married outside their race or ethnic group, producing more than 100,000 “multiracial” children each year (Ferrandino). These changing demographics could force school principals and school systems to become change agents working for successful, diverse, and accepting schools.

Graham (1997) conducted a survey of 500 principals in elementary, middle, and high schools; the survey focused on four major areas of the principalship. The principals were asked to describe their perceived roles as building administrators, time spent in those roles, graduate school preparation for the roles, and their levels of job satisfaction. Of those principals surveyed, 68 % said they saw themselves as general managers and 22 % saw themselves as instructional leaders. The remaining principals said they saw themselves as "a principal-teacher, curriculum leader, or professional-scientific manager" (p. 5). Graham stated:

The typical principal in this study spends between 10 and 12 hours per day and between 46 and 60 hours per week dealing with school-related activities. The majority of their time is taken by “adminsitrivia,” defined here as routine duties, paperwork, and phone calls. Another significant amount of time is spent in the supervision of students and faculty, attending meetings, and dealing with discipline situations. (p. 5)

As noted by Graham, this left very little time to be the change agent for the school. Covey

(1989) said the best thinking on time management, getting the most out of what little time you have, could be captured in a single phrase, “Organize and execute around priorities” (p. 149). Principals must be organized around the school's vision and start the change process accordingly.

Peebles (2000) also predicted that principals of today and the future would have to serve not only in the role of instructional leader but also in the role of change agent. Sosik and Dionne (1997) defined a change agency as an “organizational avocation of active productive change initiated by all employees” (p. 449). With a change agent has come a leader who has the ability to simulate change in an organization. Owings and Kaplan (2003) stated:

Principals as change agents and instructional leaders will have to keep the schools, focus on both ends of the educational continuum: the need to help all students meet world class- standards and the individualized approaches essential to help increasingly diverse learners reach them. (p. 261)

Lunenburg (1995) suggested there were at least three distinct roles that principals performed as change agents:

1. consulting--as a consultant, the principal brings in data or other outside ideas that will help the teacher find solutions through valid data;
2. training--consisting of two parts; one is to help the teacher derive implications for action from the present data and the other is to leave the teacher with a new set of skills: the ability to retrieve, translate, and use new data to solve problems in the future; and
3. research--the change agent may train the teacher how to evaluate the effectiveness of the action plan to see where it is effective and where it is not (p.172).

Lunenburg's three distinct roles of principals as change agents provided some specific leadership tasks that contributed to Lambert's (2003) building leadership capacity. Capacity-building principals aligned their actions to the belief that everyone has the right, responsibility, and capability to work as a leader. According to Lambert, “We now know that a principal who is collaborative, open, and inclusive can accomplish remarkable improvements in schools and deeply affect student learning” (p. 43). It was the role of the principal to provide the opportunity.

Principals: Enable Others to Act

According to Coulson (1988), leadership was not always about rules and regulations but also about the personality of the administration led by the principal and his or her relationship or collaboration with the teachers. Kouzes and Posner (2002) stated that at the heart of collaboration was trust; trust was the central issue in human relationships within and outside organizations. “Without trust you cannot lead. Without trust you cannot get extraordinary things done” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 244). Clough (1989) enhanced this idea and developed 10 points for good principal-staff relations:

1. treat your teachers as individuals, get to know them as people;
2. give your teachers as much opportunity for growth and change as possible;
3. refrain from getting involved in their personal lives;
4. compliment them frequently and thank them for their good work;
5. organize their work and make certain they have all the information they need to do a good job;
6. allow them to express their creativity;
7. establish a relaxing atmosphere by using a sense of humor;
8. give them work they are capable of completing, make reasonable goals;
9. allow them to work; and
10. remain available for them. (p. 6)

Sybouts and Wendel (1994) stated, “Effective instructional leaders focus on five key areas” (p. 18). Those areas were: “(a) defining the school’s mission, (b) managing curriculum and instruction, (c) promoting a positive learning environment, (d) providing supervision of instruction, and (e) assessing instructional programs” (p. 18). By using these five areas, Sybouts and Wendel suggested that the administrator could create an environment in which the staff members became self-starters and problem solvers. According to Sybouts and Wendel, an effective principal would become a “leader of leaders” instead of a “leader of followers” (p. 21). Leaders have been responsible for future leadership (DePree, 1989). They needed to identify,

develop, and nurture future leaders. Bolman and Deal (1995) suggested that principals should move past the “I” in leadership and concentrate on the collaborative “we”; they could learn and grow with teachers or even step aside to let others lead. Childs-Bowen, Moller, and Scrivner (2000) contended that principals should view teachers and others in the school as potential leaders for various functions in the success of the school. They used the term “teacher leaders” not as a track into administration but as leaders when teachers function in professional learning communities. Maxwell (1995) suggested that the role of leaders in developing leadership within was to ask a simple question, "What does this person need in order to grow?" Teacher leaders could move the majority of the staff forward in developing and implementing school improvement projects. However, in developing teacher leaders, principals must have spent time reflecting on personal beliefs and comfort level regarding the empowerment of others in the school. Maxwell said they must be comfortable with sharing power in the management in their schools. For those willing to share power, Childs-Bowen et al. suggested four strategies for transforming leadership in schools:

1. create opportunities for teachers to lead;
2. build professional learning communities;
3. provide quality, results-driven professional development; and
4. celebrate innovation and teacher expertise. (p. 30)

Principals: Encourage the Heart

As pointed out by Sergiovanni (1991), teachers found satisfaction in the intrinsic awards they got from teaching. Teachers got these intrinsic awards often with the help from the extra little things the building level principal remembered to do. In other words, good principals did not forget to take care of the human needs of their staff. Covey (1990) referred to this as “sharpening the saw.” Koerner (1990) listed eight small, simple things that successful principals should remember:

1. saying hello to teachers and using their names;

2. sending a note or word of congratulations for a job well done, achievement on an excellent job, a birthday;
3. asking others for their opinions and listening;
4. scheduling time for regular visits to the classroom;
5. letting teachers know what is going on;
6. following through on teachers' requests;
7. asking for help when they needed it; and
8. dropping by teachers' rooms for lunch. (p. 3)

Lumsden (1998) pointed out that administrators needed to be aware of teachers' needs and take steps to promote professional satisfaction. Teachers should be nurtured, supported, and valued in an environment that promotes student learning and academic achievement.

Lambert (2003) addressed three fundamental processes wherein all leadership practices flowed. These three were reflection, inquiry, and dialogue. These processes were interdependent; however, together they have formed the primary dynamic of professional practice. Reflection was thinking about what one did before, during, and after his or her actions. Reflection was one's cognitive guide for growth and development. Without reflection, a teacher could teach the same curriculum over and over for 30 years. Inquiry was acquiring the skills that would allow the principals and teachers, the teachers and students, or the students and students to find answers together. Inquiry was learned when inquisitiveness was put into practice. Finally, dialogue was the missing piece in most schools. The purpose of dialogue was to reach an understanding. When principals and teachers entered into open dialogue, truly listened, and built on each other's ideas, constructive meaning and knowledge were brought together. Covey (1990) referred to this as his fifth habit of highly effective people and "the single most important principle in the field of interpersonal relations (p. 237), "seek first to understand, then to be understood" (p. 237).

Attributes of Good Coaches

In a television commercial for Master Card, Duke's basketball coach, Mike Krzyzewski, stated, "I don't look at myself as a basketball coach. I look at myself as a leader who happens to coach basketball" (n. p.). An early leader in the study of sports and leadership was Chelladurai (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978). He studied the comparisons and contrasts in leadership in sports and leadership in general. Chelladurai and Carron concluded that the major differences were based on specific limiting factors. One was the well-defined sports season in which the sport was played and there was opportunity for preseason preparation where there were no penalties for mistakes. Another was a defined outcome and conclusion with a clear winner and loser. Tinning (1982) found that what might be appropriate behavior by the coach to one athlete could have the opposite effect on another athlete. A good leader coach knew to treat each player with fairness. However, that did not necessarily mean he or she had to treat each player the same.

Chelladurai and Doherty (1998) found that decision-making was a critical part of successful coaching and leading. Decision-making has been defined as the process of selecting one alternative from many different choices to achieve desired results. Chelladurai and Quek (1995) divided the method of making these decisions into two different processes: cognitive process and social process. They explained:

Cognitive process is concerned with the rationality of the decisions. The concern here is with defining the problem clearly, identifying relevant constraints, generating and evaluating the alternative courses of action, and selecting the best alternative to achieve a desired end. The social process of decision-making refers to the extent to which the leader or coach allows his or her members to participate in the cognitive process of making a decision. Such member participation may indeed increase the rationality of the decisions because of the higher levels of information, ingenuity, and creativity available in the group. In addition, member participation may also lead to a better comprehension of the decision and greater acceptance of the decision, and therefore to more efficient execution of the decision. (p. 92)

Sherman, Fuller, and Speed (2000) noted that coaches have had to use the method or style to which the athlete would be most receptive. According to Chelladurai and Quek (1995), the ability of a coach to know when and how to use different styles of leadership with different teams and individuals often meant the difference in success or failure. One of the strongest

assets a coach had was the ability to read an individual's personality correctly and meet his or her needs at any given time. Kenow and Williams (1999) found, "Creating positive coach-athlete relations and learning how to employ simple relaxation-confidence-building techniques should be the first steps in creating more receptive and positive coach-athlete interactions" (p. 258).

Coaches have had the power to use these different leadership styles with their team. The word "power" as explained by Yukl (2002) involved the capacity of one party, in this case a coach, to influence another party, the team. Power was found to be a flexible concept that could be used with an individual or with the entire team. Accepted by many (Bass, 1960; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Yukl, 2002) was the idea of a dichotomy between two types of power. The two powers were "position power" and "personal power." Position power was viewed as power over the group based on the position as leader or coach. Personal power was power with the group based on friendship and loyalty. Under these two broad powers fell several distinct but partially overlapping components as described by Yukl and shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Types of Power

Power	Components
<u>Position Power:</u>	
Legitimate Power	Based in part from the formal authority over someone or a group.
Reward Power	Based in part from the formal authority to allocate resources and rewards.
Coercive Power	Based in part on authority over punishment.
Information Power	Based on both the access to vital information and control over its distribution to others.
Ecological Power	Based on control over the physical environment, technology, and organization.

Table 6 (continued)

Power	Components
<u>Personal Power:</u>	
Referent Power	Derived from the desire of others to please the leader toward whom they have strong feelings of affection, admiration, and loyalty.
Expert Power	Derived from the leader's task-relevant knowledge; the more dependent the group is on the leader for the knowledge, the greater the power of the leader.

Source: Yukl (2002)

Coaches used different methods of power or styles to influence their athletes. Booth (1985) submitted the idea that the most frequently used adjective to describe coaches was “authoritarian.” Tutko and Richards (as cited in Gallon, 1989) defined six classes of a coach’s leadership style:

1. the “hard-nosed, authoritarian” coach--this is by far the largest category;
2. the “nice-guy” coach;
3. the intense or “driven” coach;
4. the “easy-going” coach;
5. the “business-like” coach; and
6. the “creative coach” (pp. 17-18).

A comparison of the different powers and the different leadership styles as shown above offered similarities and some overlapping in how coaches used their titles and positions to get the most from individuals and teams. The hard-nosed authoritarian coach, the intense or driven coach, and the business-like coach usually fell into the “position power” category. The nice-guy coach and the easy-going coach fell into the “personal power” category. Depending upon how coaches used each leadership style, they could all fall within different types of power. As stressed by Jones and Bretthaurer (1978), the role as coaches enabled them to develop and demonstrate

certain leadership characteristics. Whether these characteristics were used in a positive or a negative way depended upon the individual.

Pathways to Administration

Fahrni (2001), in her study of women in the secondary principalship, found that both males and females viewed coaching as an important step in reaching the principalship. Athletic coaching was listed by 35% of the respondents including 16.1% of the females and 43.75% of the males as being one of the important job positions to their career advancement. Males listed coaching second only to teaching as being a part of their successful career pathway to the secondary principalship. Females listed coaching consistently in their top five career pathways.

Fahrni (2001) also found that coaching at the 9th- to 12th-grade level and at a varsity competitive level was more conducive to career advancement than coaching at any other competitive or grade level. According to Fahrni, 27% of successful administrative aspirants had been coaches at the varsity high school level. At the high school level, females coached 12.7% of the time compared to 34.5% of the time for males. Females coached at the varsity level 11% of the time as compared to males at 34.5% of the time. Gallant (1980) found in his study of the steps to the principalship that visibility of a person could help in the successful climb up the administration ladder. This visibility could be achieved through a number of ways with coaching and activity advisor being two of the most prominent positions. Of the 15 women principals responding to Gallant's survey, 10 reported spending "extensive" or "much" time as coaches or advisors. The most commonly listed sports formally coached by administrators were basketball and football. Both disciplines have been large spectator activities with media coverage greater than the other sports. Gallant noted that both types of sports gave the fans a close look at the leadership styles of the coach under stressful conditions. Fahrni also noted that prior experience as a coach was important in attaining the position of athletic director. The position of athletic director was consistently reported along with coaching as being an important educational job position in the career to the secondary principalship. Fahrni explained, "Since coaching holds a

prominent place in the career pathways of successful principals, women and men who do not coach may be limited in their access to the secondary principalship" (p. 136).

Although there is no single determining factor in predicting leaders' success, persons in positions to hire principals could use this pathway as a reference point. Coaches have demonstrated that they have the "confidence and ability to determine new and effective ways of solving problems" (Jones & Bretthaurer, 1978, p. 32).

Shared Attributes of Quality Principals and Good Coaches

Liewellyn and Blucker (1982) stressed the idea that leaders in both academic and athletic areas must be able to motivate students. For both principals and coaches, the satisfaction of seeing the continued success of students in becoming good productive citizens was one factor that self-motivated them. Blanchard and Shula (2001) wrote that whether one was a teacher, a youth league coach, or a business leader, the strategy for success was similar. The authors emphasized, "The difference between winning and losing doesn't depend on trick plays or using new systems each week. It's a matter of motivating people to prepare and work hard to play as a team. In a word, it's coaching" (p. 2).

Horn (1992) noted it has been widely assumed that coaches could influence the performances and psychological well being of athletes with words and actions. The successful coach knew which words and actions to use with different people. This was a skill that all good administrators must have at their disposal. Fish (1976) reported surveys showing that 56 % of high school principals and 79 % of superintendents were once coaches. With this background, many in leadership roles have been able to appreciate the leadership tactics of coaches. Fish stated, "Like winning coaches, principals and superintendents must develop within their administrative staffs the strength and flexibility to enable them to operate successfully in changed circumstances...the principal (or superintendent) as coach, then, must *develop* his administrative team members" (p. 37). Fish offered five specific suggestions as to how an administrator could develop his or her team of assistants:

1. Surround yourself with people who are smarter than you are. The more they know, the better your operation will function and the less likely it is that you will make mistakes.
2. Listen to them. Make it easy for them to talk to you. Don't tell them what the problem is--ask them.
3. Find out what your subordinates can do best. Let them tell you what they want to accomplish; then help them to achieve their goals.
4. Load them with challenges and responsibility. Do it as soon as possible.
5. Give them credit for their accomplishments. Let them know that their work is appreciated. (p. 40)

Both the coach and principal have had high profile jobs. Both have been seen as being in charge; both have been accountable. As Fish (1976) noted, a loss of one game could be blamed on several factors; on the other hand, losses of several games or a few losing seasons meant the coach usually had to move. Similarly, because of mandates in *No Child Left Behind* (Guilfoyle, 2006), principals with low-test scores for a few years have had the same expectation: Improve or the state will move you and take over your school. For this reason, coaches or principals must never forget they are the head of the organization. In the end, they are the ones responsible for the success or failure of their teams.

Table 7 shows what Chelladurai (1999) suggested were five dimensions of leadership behavior.

Table 7

Dimensions of Leadership Behavior in Sports

Dimension	Description
Training and instruction	Coaching behavior aimed at improving the athletics' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and structuring and coordinating the members' activities
Social support	Coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individuals athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members
Positive feedback	Coaching behavior that reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance
Democratic behavior	Coaching behavior that allows greater participation by athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies
Autocratic behavior	Coaching behavior that involves independent decision making and that stresses personal authority

Source: Chelladurai, 1999, p. 163

According to Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), training, instruction, and positive feedback were related to the process of task accomplishment and the degree of task accomplishment respectively. Social support has been concerned with the social needs of members, both individually and collectively. Democratic and autocratic behaviors were concerned with the degree to which the leader allowed members to participate in decision-making processes. As stated by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), a popular belief was that there were two ways a leader could influence followers: (a) they can tell their followers what to do and how to do it or (b) they can share their leadership responsibilities with their staff by involving them in the planning and execution of the task.

Maxwell (1995), taking his cue from athletic coaching, used the sports analogy of the “team” to make the point that both principals and coaches must follow certain practices involved in coaching. Good coaches or principals chose players well, communicated the game plan, and took the time to huddle. They knew what their players preferred, placed them in positions to be successful, excelled in problem solving, provided the support needed for success, commanded the respect of the players, did not treat everyone the same, continued to win, understood the level of the players, and knew how to delegate.

Jones and Bretthaurer (1978) examined characteristics of two groups: high school coaches and male teachers. Coaches and teachers from 43 high schools in southeastern Idaho were selected randomly. Coaches were chosen mainly from the sports of basketball and football. A self-descriptive instrument was used to measure five leadership traits: intelligence, supervisory qualities, initiative, self-assurance, and supervisory qualities. Their findings revealed that the two areas of greatest strength for coaches were in self-assurance and decision-making, although the coaches scored well in all five traits.

A brief look at successful practices by both principals and coaches yielded interesting similarities; although these practices were not by any means all-inclusive, they did offer a good side-by-side look at many of the similarities identified in both quality leadership and coaching practices. These shared practices are shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Shared Practices of Quality Principals and Coaches

Practices of Principals	Practices of Coaches
Uses a variety of practices to motivate the staff and individual members of the staff (Liewellyn & Blucker, 1982; Blanchard & Shula, 2001).	Uses a variety of practices to motivate the team and individual members of the team (Horn, 1992; Liewellyn and Blucker; Sherman, Fuller, & Speed, 2000).
Decision making-selecting one alternative from many different choices for the school (Chelladurai & Doherty, 1998).	Decision making-selecting one alternative from many different choices for the team (Chelladurai & Doherty).
Places the staff in the position to be successful (Maxwell, 1995).	Places the players in the position to be successful (Maxwell).
Listens to the staff and gets input from them (Fish, 1976).	Listens to the team and gets input from them (Fish; Kenow & Williams, 1999).
Strives to be a lifelong learner and a lifelong teacher (Cottrell & Harvey, 2004).	Strives to be a lifelong learner and a lifelong teacher (Cottrell & Harvey).
Gives credit for accomplishments to the staff or teacher (Fish; Northouse, 2001).	Gives credit for accomplishments to the team or individual player (Fish).
Provides ways to keep the staff and themselves motivated day in and day out (Covey, 1990; Cottrell & Harvey).	Provides ways to keep the team and themselves motivated day in and day out (Cottrell & Harvey).

Table 8 shows similarities between the role of principal and the role of coach. Jones and Bretthaurer (1978) stated:

Movement by coaches from active coaching into administration positions has been assumed a reasonable change over the years. However, recent demand for greater leadership by principals has raised a concern about the administrative leadership capabilities of coaches. Criticism that too many coaches become administrators is not necessarily warranted. Coaches do demonstrate a greater degree of basic leadership characteristics when compared to the male teacher. The leadership characteristics are

apparently evident in coaching personnel and the assumption of an administrative position by a coach need not be considered as a negative position but neither should it be assumed that greater leadership will automatically exist. (p. 32)

Simply put, movement of coaches into administration might be reasonable and many leadership characteristics might have been used in coaching; however, leadership could not be guaranteed, it must have been examined on an individual basis.

Coaches: Model the Way

In *The Little Book of Coaching*, Blanchard and Shula (2001) used the word coach (C.O.A.C.H) to stand for a simple acronym:

Conviction-driven: never compromise your beliefs

Overlearn: practice until it's perfect

Audible-Ready: know when to change

Consistency: respond predictably to performance

Honest-Based: walk your talk. (p. 7)

By following these five ideas, Shula became the coach with the most wins in the National Football League (Blanchard & Shula). Simply put, this meant: stand for your beliefs, expect perfection, know when to change tactics, be the same person everyday, and do what you say. As stated by Liewellyn and Blucker (1982), motivation was essential in the learning process.

Liewellyn and Blucker pointed out that a good way to understand this was the old adage, "You can lead a horse to water but you can't make it drink" (p. 49). Students and athletes might be placed in learning situations, but neither will learn if they have not been properly motivated.

Jones, Wells, Peters, and Johnson (1982) stated that coaches were constantly in the public eye and were therefore expected to provide good examples for their players. They were always "on duty" as far as being role models for young people, even when they were not coaching. Jones et al. maintained, "One of the great influences coaches have as models for acceptable behavior is in the way they behave before, during, and after a contest" (p. 18). According to a former player of Coach Dean Smith, (as cited in Chadwick, 1999), one only has to look at one of

basketball's most successful coaches, for an example of modeling the way. Chadwick pointed out that Coach Smith's number one priority was "developing his players as people--teaching us how to play the game rightly on and off the court, showing us how to be persons of integrity" (p. xi).

Coaches: Inspire a Shared Vision

According to Chadwick (1999), Dean Smith's goal, which he never stated, was always the same, "win every game." His vision, as communicated in every practice, team meeting, and press conference, was always the same, "No individual person is greater than the team" (p. 53). Warren (1983) acknowledged that even though the idea of the team over individuals was out of vogue in many circles, it was "potentially one of the greatest pluses to be derived from participating in team sports" (p. 35).

Warren (1983) asserted that coaches must think positively because the single act of thinking positively could help the coach and the team solve many problems. Warren pointed out that when everything was going well, it was easy to think positively; however, if you had not reached that level with your program or team or if you were losing more than winning, it became harder to remain positive. Coaches must be able to instill in their teams and individuals a vision of their own dream. As Warren explained, "That dream, an indomitable spirit and an unswerving dedication to making that dream a reality will provide the incentive to carry you through whatever hard times lie ahead" (p. 56).

Coaches: Challenge the Process

Kouzes and Posner (2003b) stated that leaders were pioneers in that they ventured out into the unknown. Coaches must venture into the unknown every year as they prepare a new team for the season. According to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), "Even the most prepared and skilled people never succeed at 100% of what they do" (p. 13).

According to Jones et al. (1982) and Warren (1983), successful coaches were not afraid to make changes from year to year or even in the middle of the season. When teams get in slumps or things go badly for them, it is time to make changes in the routine or in the program. Coaches should maintain flexibility and not be hesitant in making well-thought-out changes. Jones et al. offered that such simple and quick changes could be: (a) give them an unexpected day off, (b) use new and different drills in practice, (c) rearrange the week's practice schedule, or (d) develop a new pregame routine. However, as Kouzes and Posner (2002) suggested, routines were very important to people; they made them feel safe and comfortable. Change for the sake of change might be just as demoralizing as could complacency. Warren maintained that change could force good teams to become even better; conversely, that same change could make losing teams even worse. Successful coaches must have the ability to know when and how to move people out of their comfort zone and into a better zone.

Coaches: Enable Others to Act

Kouzes and Posner (2003b) stated:

When you make someone feel strong and capable--as if he or she can do more than he or she ever thought possible--that person will give all and exceed your expectations. When leadership is a relationship, founded on trust and confidence, people take risks, make changes, and keep organizations and movements alive. (p. 13)

Warren (1983) stated that coaches must set high but realistic expectations for themselves and their team, "Every athlete should be regularly exposed to the thought that you can do more than you think you can" (p. 69). Players should never want to let the coach down. That is why clear realistic goals must be set; the coach must challenge the individual and the team. Players must know what they are working toward, and feel it is something they can reach.

According to Jones et al. (1982), coaches have had many techniques they could use to enable players to improve their performance, such as watching films of games and practices, statistics, personal observations, and reward and punishment. Reward could come in the form of

praise or playing time. Punishment could be in the form of extra running or harder practices. As stated by Warren (1983):

The threat of punishment can serve to motivate athletes to hustle and work harder; it cannot improve their ability to execute skills properly. In fact, it may adversely affect skills by increasing the pressure under which the skill is performed. (p. 102)

Gallon (1989) suggested punishment only worked when the team was winning and things were going smoothly. When a team is losing in spite of effort, the impact of penalization was less because the players have already failed to achieve their goals. According to Jones et al.:

Whatever has been decided as an appropriate reward or punishment needs to be awarded as soon as is practical and with an even hand. There should be no difference in expectations, insofar as regulations are concerned, between the best player and the last one on the bench. (p. 138)

Coaches: Encourage the Heart

Bolman and Deal (1995) stated, "Your heart is more than a pump. It's your spiritual center. Heart is courage and compassion. Without it, life is empty, lonely. You're always busy but never fulfilled" (p. 25). According to Chadwick (1999), no one could completely understand the power of encouraging words, "We know discouraging words spread negativism and a defeatist attitude among sports teams, families, and companies like a spark to wood after a 60-day drought" (p. 104). Coaches must be careful with the words they use because words have power. Chadwick recalled the illustration about a man seeking revenge against another man who had hurt him. The man went to the devil to buy a tool of revenge. He pointed to one weapon and asked, "What is that?" The devil responded, "That's slander, and it's very effective. It's worth a million dollars." The man pointed to another weapon, and the devil replied, "That is a furious temper, I use it often to break relationships apart and hurt people; it's also worth one million dollars." The man pointed to one more weapon in the far end of the room. The devil said, "Oh, no, that's not for sale; it's called discouragement, and it is my most valuable weapon" (p. 104). Chadwick pointed out that words were powerful; they could encourage the heart or they could destroy the heart.

Both coaches and principals spent much of their time working to improve their organization, their members, and their goals. Cottrell and Harvey (2004) stressed the importance of taking care of the individual. They explained this was accomplished by "doing things for yourself that will keep you in the game . . . and win" (p. 93). Cottrell and Harvey encouraged leaders to take time to teach others what they have learned, both the good and bad lessons and pointed out, "School is never out for the successful leader" (p. 96). In short, leaders should strive to be lifelong learners as well as lifelong teachers.

Summary

As Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982) summarized, no single style of management was appropriate for all schools. A review of literature on successful schools indicated that principals must find the leadership practices and structures best suited to their own local situations. This held true for athletic coaches of all levels. No single leadership style was successful to all coaches in all situations.

For the purpose of this study, the Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) definition of leadership was used, "The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 83). The 30-item Kouzes and Posner (2002) Leadership Practices Inventory Self-Form was chosen as the instrument to collect data. The Leadership Practices Inventory uses five practices of exemplary leadership. These five practices of exemplary leadership and the two commitments associated with each are:

1. Model the Way: (a) find your voice by clarifying your personal values and (b) set the example by aligning actions with shared values;
2. Inspire a Shared Vision: (a) envision the future by imaging exciting and ennobling possibilities and (b) enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations;
3. Challenge the Process: (a) search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve and (b) experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes;
4. Enable Others to Act: (a) foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust and (b) strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.

5. Encourage the Heart: (a) recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and (b) celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community. (p. 22)

The review of literature indicated some similarities and some differences in both successful educational leaders and successful athletic coaches. Parallels between the leadership practices of principals and coaches have been drawn. Following are a few such parallels:

1. uses a variety of practices to motivate;
2. selects one alternative from many different choices (decision making);
3. places people in positions to be successful;
4. listens to the staff or team and gets input from them;
5. strives to be a lifelong learner and a lifelong teacher;
6. gives credit for accomplishments to others; and
7. provides ways to keep the staff or team and themselves motivated day in and day out.

Both coaches and principals as leaders must remember to take care of their organizations and their team members. Kouzes and Posner (2002) noted that nothing in their research even hinted that leaders should be perfect. Leaders have made mistakes; they are humans, full of flaws and failings like everyone else. Kouzes and Posner (2002) pointed out, “Perhaps the very best advice we can give all aspiring leaders is to remain humble and unassuming--to always remain open and full of wonder. The best leaders are the best learners” (p. 398).

Chapter 3 includes a description of the study, research design, population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and analysis of the data.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices, using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory, between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with principals who were not coaches. This chapter describes in detail the research design, population, and instrumentation that will be used to conduct the study. The data collection and data analysis methods are identified in this chapter.

Research Design

This quantitative study was conducted using a survey-design method. For this study, a survey design (Creswell, 2003) was chosen for its economy of design and the rapid turnaround in data collection. Those being surveyed were asked specific questions about their leadership practices. The survey was cross-sectional with the data collected during a 4-week period. The survey was designed to be self-administered and was mailed via the United States Postal Service. The instrument used was the 2003 edition of Kouzes and Posner's *Leadership Practices Inventory–Self Form* (see Appendix A). This instrument uses a 10-point scale to measure the frequency with which the respondents practice a leadership skill. The Institutional Review Board of East Tennessee State University approved this study (see Appendix B).

Population

The population of this study consisted of the head principals of all 368 public high schools in North Carolina. Of the population, 239 principals responded giving a response rate of 64.9%.

Instrumentation

Posner and Kouzes (1993) noted that the ability to reliably measure leadership is important to researchers concerned with the relationship between leadership and three social-psychological phenomenon: (a) how does leadership affect levels of organizational commitment or productivity, (b) how successful is one person versus another person in motivating others, and (c) how does identification of those factors serve to improve leadership capabilities. The survey instrument used for gathering the data on leadership practices was the Self-Form of the 2003 *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) (see Appendix A). The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) has been field tested and proven reliable in identifying the behaviors that make a difference in leaders' effectiveness (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Kouzes and Posner (2003b) have conducted leadership research since 1983. Thousands have been interviewed about their "personal-best leadership experience." The LPI is a 30-item instrument designed to measure five leadership practices. The five leadership practices are: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Leaders, according to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), model the way by finding their voice and by setting an example (they do what they say they will do); they inspire a shared vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in a common vision; they challenge the process by searching for opportunities and by experimenting, taking risks, and learning from mistakes; they enable others to act by fostering collaboration and strengthening others; and they encourage the heart by recognizing contributions and celebrating values and victories.

The 30 behavioral statements in the LPI are scored on a 10-point scale based on the following responses: (1) Almost never do what is described in the statement; (2) Rarely; (3) Seldom; (4) Once in a while; (5) Occasionally; (6) Sometimes; (7) Fairly often; (8) Usually; (9) Very frequently; and (10) Almost always do what is described in the statement (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a). The scale score for each of the five leadership practices is the sum of the responses to the six statements included in each scale. The potential range of each leadership

practice scale is 6 to 60. Table 9 shows the statements included in each of the five leadership practices scales:

Table 9

Leadership Practices Inventory--Self-Form

Leadership Practice	Item #	Statement
Model the Way:	1	I set a personal example of what I expect of others.
	6	I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.
	11	I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.
	16	I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.
	21	I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
Inspire a Shared Vision:	26	I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
	2	I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
	7	I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
	12	I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
	17	I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting a common vision.
	22	I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.
	27	I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

Table 9 (continued)

Leadership Practice	Item #	Statement
Challenge the Process:	3	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.
	8	I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.
	13	I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
	18	I ask, "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
	23	I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
	28	I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
Enable Others to Act:	4	I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.
	9	I actively listen to diverse points of view.
	14	I treat others with dignity and respect.
	19	I support the decisions that people make on their own.
	24	I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
	29	I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
Encourage the Heart:	5	I praise people for a job well done.
	10	I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.
	15	I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.

Table 9 (continued)

Leadership Practice	Item #	Statement
Encourage the Heart (continued)	20	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
	25	I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
	30	I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

Source: Kouzes and Posner (1995)

The Self-Form of the LPI was used in this study. Permission to use the Kouzes and Posner *Leadership Practices Inventory* was granted by Dr. Barry Posner (see Appendix C).

Data Collection

The success of this study depended on getting a good reliable return rate of responses from the high school principals in North Carolina. After examining several options, the decision was made to use the standard method of postal mail in surveying the principals. Each high school principal in North Carolina was contacted by postal mail and provided a cover sheet, a principal demographic sheet (see Appendices D & E), and the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self form, along with a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. After 10 to 12 days, a follow up mailing of the same information was sent to all nonresponders. Then 10-12 days later a third and final follow-up was mailed to all remaining nonresponders. All statistical analyses will be presented in summary form in later chapters. The identity of each individual and school was protected. The answers were completely confidential and anonymous and in no way reflected on the individual or the school.

Data Analysis

After the data collection was completed, the responses from the principal demographic sheet and the Kouzes and Posner *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) using the five dimensions of leadership practices: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart, were analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS for Windows. The Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices norms (see Appendix F) were used to analyze certain research questions. The six research questions and the specific null hypothesis and statistics used to answer each research question are presented below.

Research Question #1: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not?

Five *t* tests for independent samples (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question.

Ho₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho₃: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

This research question was answered using single-sample *t* tests, one for each of five Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) dimensions: model the way, inspire a shared vision,

challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. Each single-sample t test compared the principals' mean to the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Ho2₁: There is no difference between the mean score of model the way leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Ho2₂: There is no difference between the mean score of inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Ho2₃: There is no difference between the mean score of challenge the process leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Ho2₄: There is no difference between the mean score of enable others to act leadership practices dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Ho2₅: There is no difference between the mean score of encourage the heart leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Research Question #3: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status?

Five 2-way ANOVAs (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question.

Model the Way:

Ho3₁: There is no difference between male and female principals' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₃: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for model the way leadership practice dimension.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho3₄: There is no difference between male and female principals' inspiring a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₆: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Challenge the Process:

Ho3₇: There is no difference between male and female principals' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₈: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₉: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for the challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho3₁₀: There is no difference between male and female principals' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₂: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for the enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho3₁₃: There is no difference between male and female principals' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₅: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Research Question #4: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ among principals with masters, specialist, or doctoral degrees as a function of previous coaching status?

Five 2-way ANOVAs were used. Each two-way ANOVA tested three null hypotheses.

Model the Way:

Ho4₁: There is no difference among the degree types and the model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₃: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for model the way leadership practice dimension.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho4₄: There is no difference among the degree types and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₆: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Challenge the Process:

Ho4₇: There is no difference among the degree types and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₈: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₉: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho4₁₀: There is no difference among the degree types and enable others to act with leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₂: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho4₁₃: There is no difference among the degree types and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₅: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Research Question #5: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal?

Five Pearson *r*s (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question. The null hypotheses for each of the five Pearson *r*s are:

Model the Way:

Ho5₁: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and model the way leadership practice dimension.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho5₂: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Challenge the Process:

Ho5₃: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho5₄: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho5₅: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Research Question #6: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

Five Pearson *r*s (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question. The null hypotheses for each of the five Pearson *r*s are:

Model the Way:

Ho6₁: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and modeling the way leadership practice dimension.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho6₂: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Challenge the Process:

Ho6₃: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho6₄: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho6₅: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Summary

This chapter included a description of the study, research design, population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and analysis of the data. This was a quantitative study designed to focus on the leadership skills of high school principals in North Carolina who were athletic coaches and those who were not. Chapter 4 presents in detail the results of the data, analysis of the data, and relevant findings.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices, using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory, between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches to those principals who were not coaches. The 5 exemplary leadership practices and 10 commitments of behavior that this study focused on formed what has been called “the most reliable leadership development instrument available today” (Kouzes and Posner, 2003a, p. 9). Kouzes and Posner translated the actions that make up the five exemplary practices into behavioral statements whereby managers and nonmanagers, across both public and private organizations could assess their skills and use the feedback to improve their leadership abilities. This translation became the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI).

The six research questions underlying and providing a research framework for the study are as follows:

1. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not?
2. Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes-Posner Norms for these leadership practices?
3. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status?
4. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ among principals with masters, specialist, or doctoral degrees as a function of previous coaching status?

5. Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal?
6. Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

Demographic Data

The population of this study, all 368 high school principals in North Carolina, was contacted via traditional mail. Each principal received a cover letter (see Appendix D), a principal demographic sheet (see Appendix E), a Leadership Practices Inventory (see Appendix A), and a stamped self-addressed envelope. A follow-up mailing followed to nonresponders in 10 to 12 days. A third and final mailing was sent to nonresponders in 10 to 12 days. The overall response rate for the population of principals was 64.9%.

Research Question #1

Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not?

This research question was answered using five *t* tests for independent samples, one for each of the five Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) dimensions: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart.

Model the Way:

Ho₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

The *t* test for independent samples was not significant, $t(234) = .43, p = .67$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 53.39, SD = 4.08$) was almost identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.64,$

$SD = 4.22$). The effect size, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($<.01$). The boxplot for model the way by coach status is shown in Figure 1.

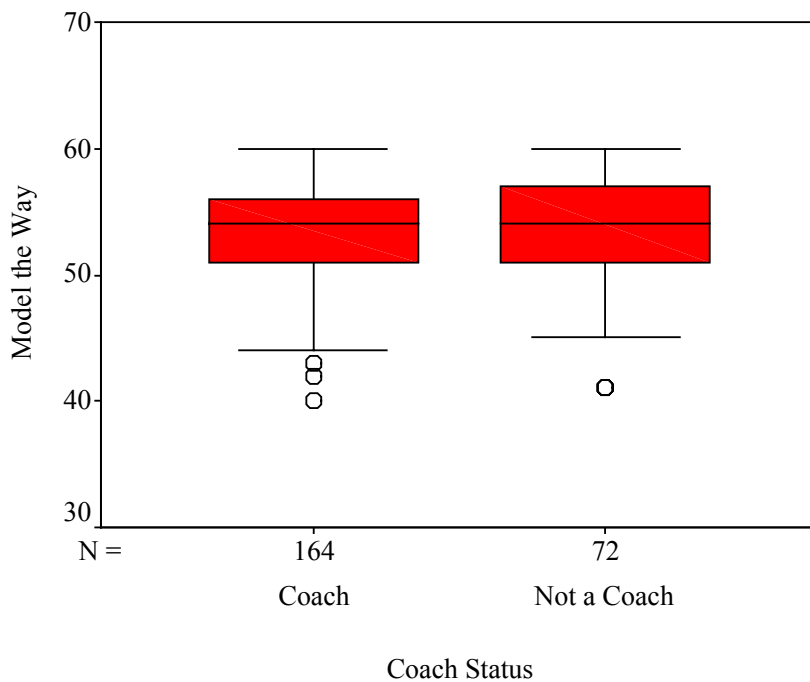


Figure 1. Boxplot for Model the Way by Coach Status

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho₁₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

The t test for independent samples was not significant, $t(234) = .03, p = .98$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.22, SD = 4.83$) was almost identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.24, SD = 4.86$). The effect size, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($<.01$). The boxplot for inspire a shared vision by coach status is shown in Figure 2.

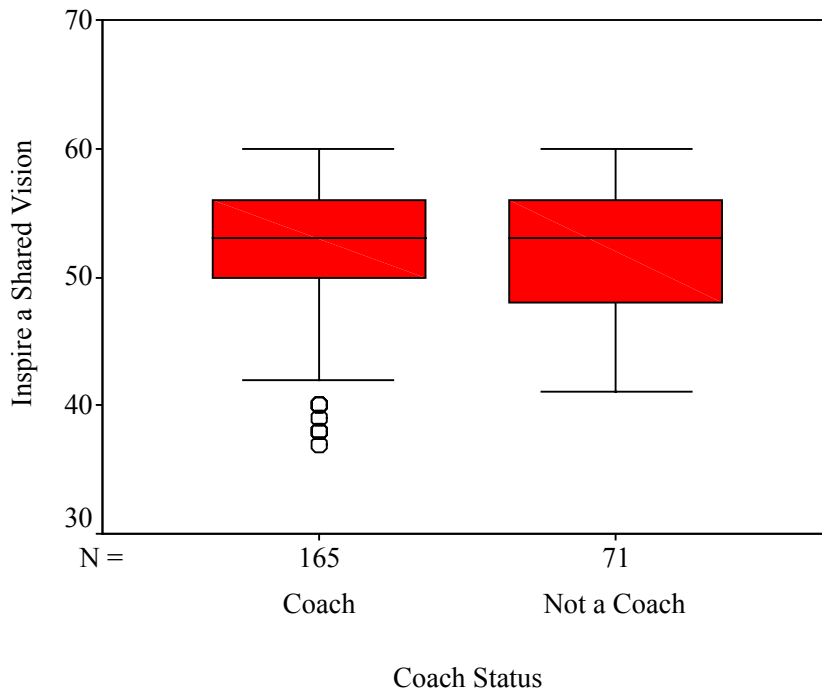


Figure 2. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Coach Status

Challenge the Process:

Ho₁₃: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

The *t* test for independent samples was not significant, $t(234) = .32, p = .75$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 51.88, SD = 4.76$) was almost identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 51.66, SD = 5.19$). The effect size, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($<.01$). The boxplot for challenge the process by coach status is shown in Figure 3.

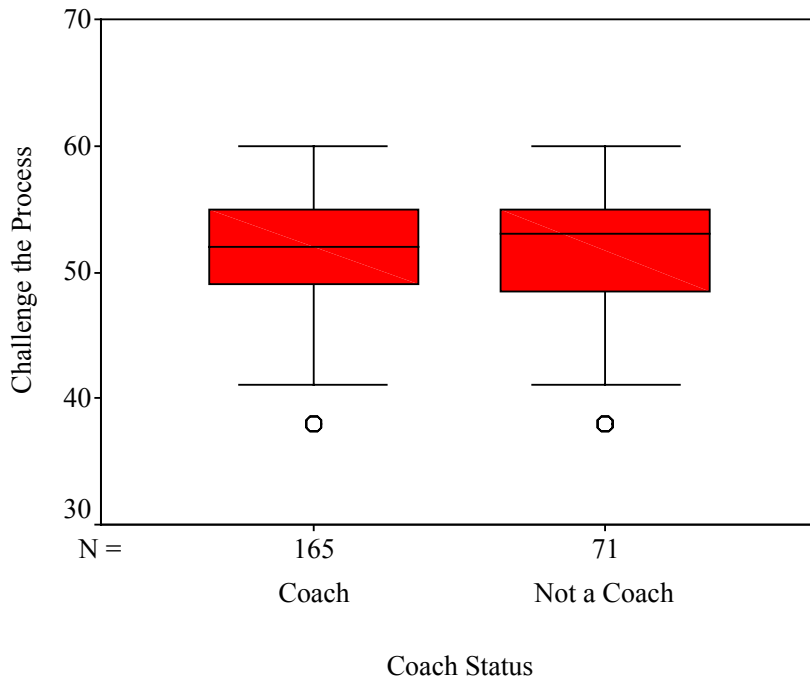


Figure 3. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Coach Status

Enable Others to Act:

Ho₁₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

The *t* test for independent samples was not significant, $t(235) = .61, p = .54$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 54.00, SD = 3.66$) was almost identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.67, SD = 4.35$). The effect size, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($<.01$). The boxplot for enable others to act by coach status is shown in Figure 4.

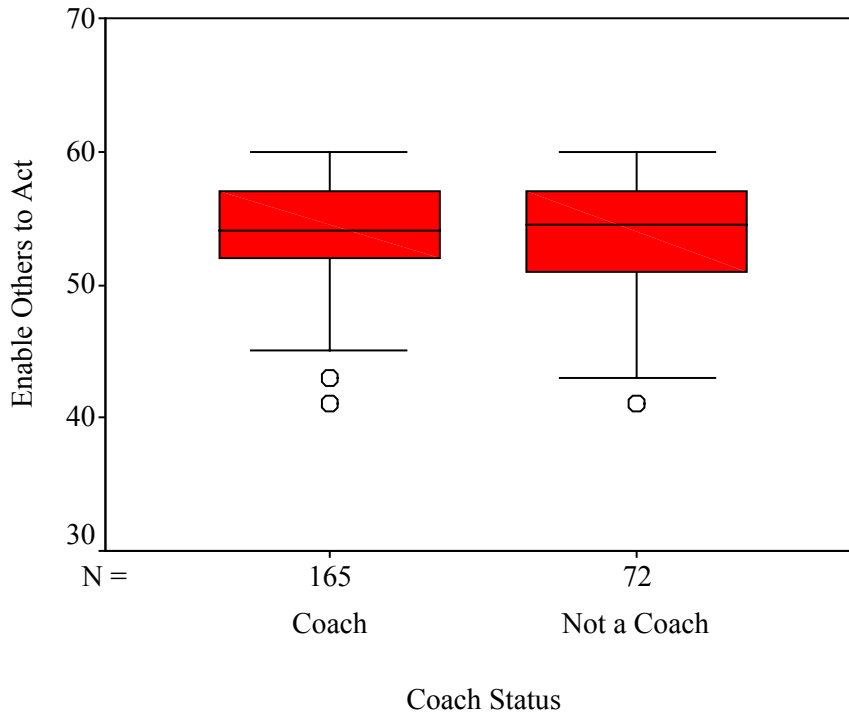


Figure 4. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Coach Status

Encourage the Heart:

Ho₁₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

The *t* test for independent samples was not significant, $t(232) = .78, p = .44$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.95, SD = 5.69$) was almost identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.33, SD = 5.29$). The effect size, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($<.01$). The boxplot for encourage the heart by coach status is shown in Figure 5.

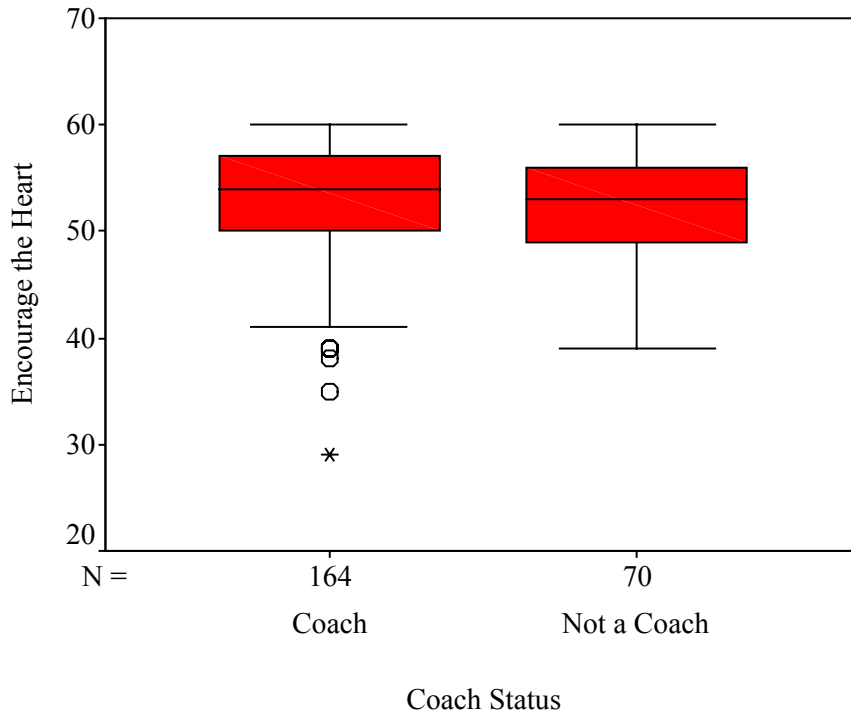


Figure 5. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Coach Status

Research Question #2

Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norms for these leadership practices?

This research question was answered using single-sample *t* tests, one for each of the five Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) dimensions: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. Each single-sample *t* test compared the principals' mean to the Kouzes and Posner norm.

Model the Way:

Ho2₁: There is no difference between the mean score of model the way leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

A single-sample t test was conducted to compare the principals' mean score for the model the way dimension to the Kouzes and Posner norm. The t test was significant, $t(236) = 24.11$, $p < .001$. The mean for principals ($M = 53.66$, $SD = 4.11$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 47.02$, $SD = 7.10$), a mean difference of 6.44. The 95% confidence interval for the dimension of model the way mean ranged from 52.93 to 53.99. The effect size, as measured by Cohen's d , was medium (.6). Principals in this study were significantly different from the mean score in the Kouzes and Posner norm for the dimension of model the way leadership practice.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho₂: There is no difference between the mean score of the inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

A single-sample t test was conducted to compare the principals' mean score for the inspire a shared vision dimension to the Kouzes and Posner norm. The t test was significant, $t(236) = 24.46$, $p < .001$. The mean for principals ($M = 52.16$, $SD = 4.92$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 44.34$, $SD = 8.79$), a mean difference of 7.82. The 95% confidence interval for the dimension of inspire a shared vision mean ranged from 51.53 to 52.80. The effect size, as measured by Cohen's d , was medium (.6). Principals in this study were significantly different from the mean score in the Kouzes and Posner norm for the dimension of inspire a shared vision leadership practice.

Challenge the Process:

Ho₃: There is no difference between the mean score of the challenge the process leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

A single-sample t test was conducted to compare the principals' mean score for challenge the process dimension to the Kouzes and Posner norm. The t test was significant, $t(236) = 17.89$, $p < .001$. The mean for principals ($M = 51.79$, $SD = 4.89$) was higher than the Kouzes and

Posner norm ($M = 46.11$, $SD = 7.21$), a mean difference of 5.68. The 95% confidence interval for the dimension of challenge the process mean ranged from 41.16 to 52.41. The effect size, as measured by Cohen's d , was large (.9). Principals in this study were significantly different from the mean score in the Kouzes and Posner norm for the dimension of challenge the process leadership practice.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho2₄: There is no difference between the mean score of the enable others to act leadership practices dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

A single-sample t test was conducted to compare the principals' mean score for enable others to act dimension to the Kouzes and Posner norm. The t test was significant, $t(237) = 17.97$, $p < .001$. The mean for principals ($M = 53.91$, $SD = 3.87$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 49.40$, $SD = 6.42$), a mean difference of 4.51. The 95% confidence interval for the dimension of enable others to act mean ranged from 53.42 to 54.40. The effect size, as measured by Cohen's d , was large (.9). Principals in this study were significantly different from the mean score in the Kouzes and Posner norm for the dimension of enable others to act leadership practice.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho2₅: There is no difference between the mean score of the encourage the heart leadership practice dimension of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner norm.

A single-sample t test was conducted to compare the principals' mean score for encourage the heart dimension to the Kouzes and Posner norm. The t test was significant, $t(234) = 15.59$, $p < .001$. The mean for principals ($M = 53.91$, $SD = 3.87$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 47.05$, $SD = 8.20$), a mean difference of 5.68. The 95% confidence interval for the dimension of encourage the heart mean ranged from 52.01 to 53.44. The effect size, as measured by Cohen's d , was large (.10). Principals in this study were significantly

different from the mean score in the Kouzes and Posner norm for the dimension of encourage the heart leadership practice.

Research Question #3

Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status?

Five 2-way ANOVAs (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question.

Model the Way:

Ho3₁: There is no difference between male and female principals' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₃: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for model the way leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in model the way dimension mean score based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for gender by coach status, $F(1, 219) = .34, p = .56$. The null hypothesis for the gender by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the model the way dimension mean score between male and female principals, $F(1, 219) = .88, p = .35$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for gender was retained. The mean for male principals ($M = 53.62, SD = 4.06$) was only slightly higher than the mean for female principals ($M = 53.16, SD = 4.26$). The effect size for gender, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the model the way dimension mean score between principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 219) = .03, p = .86$; therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size, as measured by η^2 , for coach status was small ($< .01$). The model

the way dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 53.46$, $SD = 4.09$) was virtually identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.51$, $SD = 4.21$). The means and standard deviations for model the way dimension by gender and coach status are shown in Table 10. The boxplot for model the way dimension by gender and coach status is shown in Figure 6.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations for Model the Way by Gender and Coach Status

Gender	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	Yes	119	53.51	4.06
	No	34	54.00	4.10
	Male Total	153	53.62	4.06
Female	Yes	35	53.29	4.25
	No	35	53.03	4.32
	Female Total	70	53.16	4.26
Total	Yes	154	53.46	4.09
	No	69	53.51	4.21
	Population Total	223	53.48	4.12

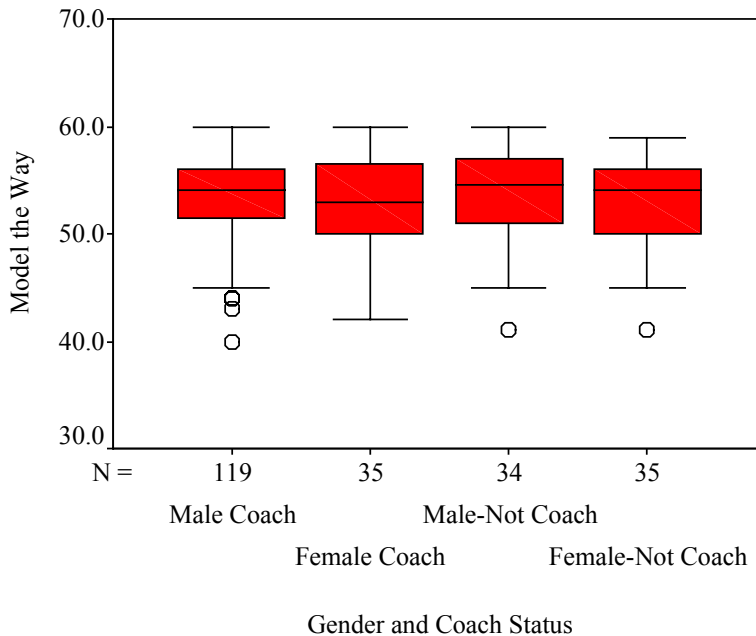


Figure 6. Boxplot for Model the Way by Gender and Coach Status

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho3₄: There is no difference between male and female principals' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₆: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in inspire a shared vision dimension mean score based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for gender by coach status, $F(1, 219) = .02, p = .88$. The null hypothesis for the gender by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the inspire a shared vision dimension mean score between male and female principals, $F(1, 219) =$

3.65, $p = .06$; therefore, the null hypothesis for gender was retained. The mean for male principals ($M = 52.75$, $SD = 4.38$) was only slightly higher than the mean for female principals ($M = 51.34$, $SD = 5.55$). The effect size for gender, as measured by η^2 , was small (.02). There was no difference in the inspire a shared vision dimension mean score between principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 219) = .05$, $p = .82$; therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size, as measured by η^2 , for coach status was very small ($< .01$). The dimension of inspire a shared vision mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.39$, $SD = 4.80$) was only slightly higher than the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.12$, $SD = 4.87$). The means and standard deviations for inspire a shared vision dimension by gender and coach status are shown in Table 11. The boxplot for inspire a shared vision dimension by gender and coach status is shown in Figure 7.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for Inspire a Shared Vision by Gender and Coach Status

Gender	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	Yes	120	52.73	4.51
	No	33	52.79	3.94
	Male Total	153	52.75	4.38
Female	Yes	35	51.20	5.59
	No	35	51.49	5.60
	Female Total	70	51.34	5.55
Total	Yes	155	52.39	4.80
	No	68	52.12	4.87
	Population Total	223	52.30	4.81

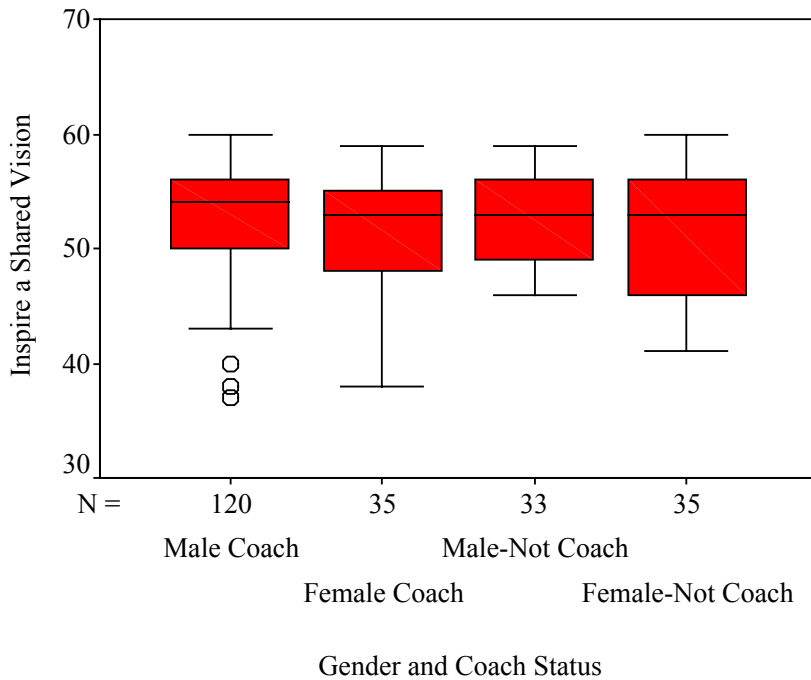


Figure 7. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Gender and Coach Status

Challenge the Process:

- Ho3₇: There is no difference between male and female principals' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.
- Ho3₈: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.
- Ho3₉: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for the challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in challenge the process dimension mean score based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way showed there was no significant two-way interaction for gender by coach status, $F(1, 219) = .37, p = .54$. The null hypothesis for the gender by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the challenge the

process dimension mean score between male and female principals, $F(1, 219) = .00, p = .98$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for gender was retained. The mean for male principals ($M = 51.95, SD = 4.58$) was virtually the same as the mean score for female principals ($M = 51.97, SD = 4.48$). The effect size for gender, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the challenge the process dimension mean score between principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 219) = .38, p = .54$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size, as measured by η^2 , for coach status was very small ($< .01$). The challenge the process dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 51.95, SD = 4.58$) was virtually identical to the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 51.97, SD = 5.48$). The means and standard deviations for challenge the process dimension by gender and coach status are shown in Table 12. The boxplot for challenge the process dimension by gender and coach status is shown in Figure 8.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for Challenge the Process by Gender and Coach Status

Gender	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	Yes	120	51.95	4.64
	No	34	51.94	4.44
	Male Total	154	51.95	4.58
Female	Yes	35	52.43	5.08
	No	34	51.50	5.89
	Female Total	69	51.97	5.48
Total	Yes	155	52.06	4.73
	No	68	51.72	5.18
	Population Total	223	51.96	4.87

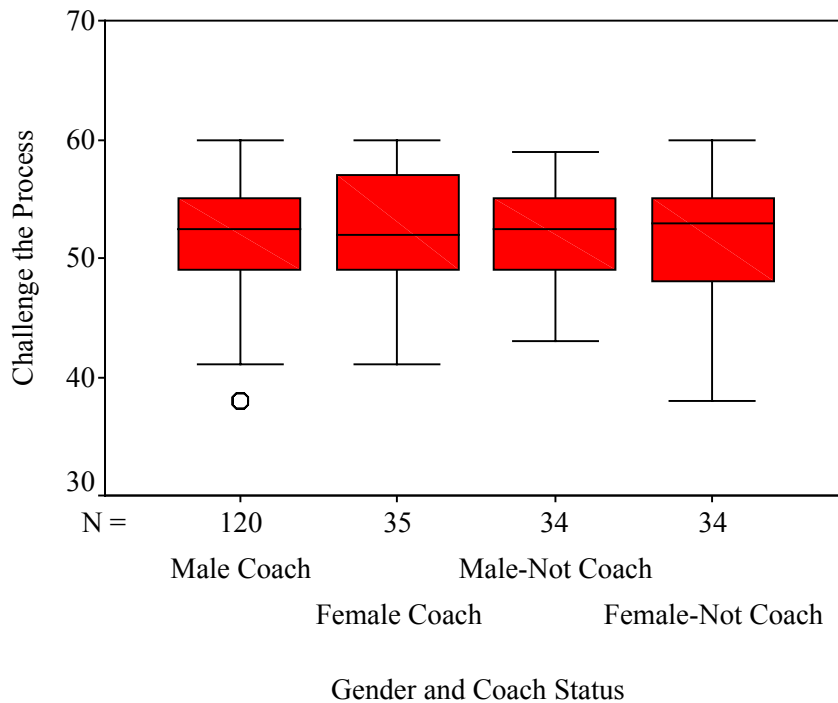


Figure 8. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Gender and Coach Status

Enable Others to Act:

Ho3₁₀: There is no difference between male and female principals' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₂: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for the enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in enable others to act dimension mean score based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for gender by coach status, $F(1, 220) = .55, p = .46$. The null hypothesis for the gender by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the

enable others to act dimension mean score between male and female principals, $F(1, 220) = .02$, $p = .91$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for gender was retained. The mean for male principals ($M = 54.01$, $SD = 3.83$) was only slightly higher than the mean for female principals ($M = 53.90$, $SD = 4.03$). The effect size for gender, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the enable others to act dimension mean score between principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 220) = 1.04$, $p = .31$; therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size, as measured by η^2 , for coach status was small ($.01$). The enable others to act dimension mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 54.14$, $SD = 3.63$) was only slightly higher than the mean score for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.62$, $SD = 4.42$). The means and standard deviations for enable others to act dimension by gender and coach status are shown in Table 13. The boxplot for enable others to act dimension by gender and coach status is shown in Figure 9.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations for Enable Others to Act by Gender and Coach Status

Gender	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	Yes	120	54.05	3.69
	No	34	53.88	4.35
	Male Total	154	54.01	3.83
Female	Yes	35	54.43	3.42
	No	35	53.37	4.54
	Female Total	70	53.90	4.03
Total	Yes	155	54.14	3.63
	No	69	53.62	4.42
	Population Total	224	53.98	3.89

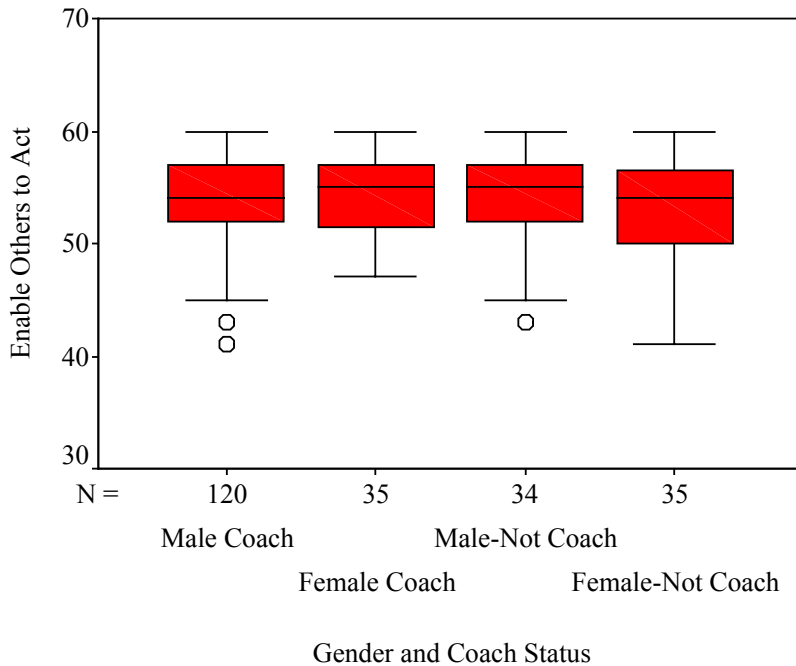


Figure 9. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Gender and Coach Status

Encourage the Heart:

Ho3₁₃: There is no difference between male and female principals' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho3₁₅: There is no significant interaction between gender and coach status for encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in encourage the heart dimension mean score based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for gender by coach status, $F(1, 217) = .09, p = .77$. The null hypothesis for the gender by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the encourage the heart dimension mean score between male and female principals, $F(1, 217) = .08,$

$p = .78$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for gender was retained. The mean for male principals ($M = 52.78, SD = 5.53$) was only slightly higher than the mean score for female principals ($M = 52.38, SD = 5.90$). The effect size for gender, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the encourage the heart dimension mean score between principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 217) = .89, p = .35$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). The encourage the heart dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.91, SD = 5.80$) was only slightly higher than the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.07, SD = 5.24$). The means and standard deviations for encourage the heart dimension by gender and coach status are shown in Table 14. The boxplot for encourage the heart dimension by gender and coach status is shown in Figure 10.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Encourage the Heart by Gender and Coach Status

Gender	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	Yes	119	52.91	5.69
	No	33	52.33	4.97
	Male Total	152	52.78	5.53
Female	Yes	35	52.91	6.24
	No	34	51.82	5.56
	Female Total	69	52.38	5.90
Total	Yes	154	52.91	5.80
	No	67	52.07	5.24
	Population Total	221	52.66	5.64

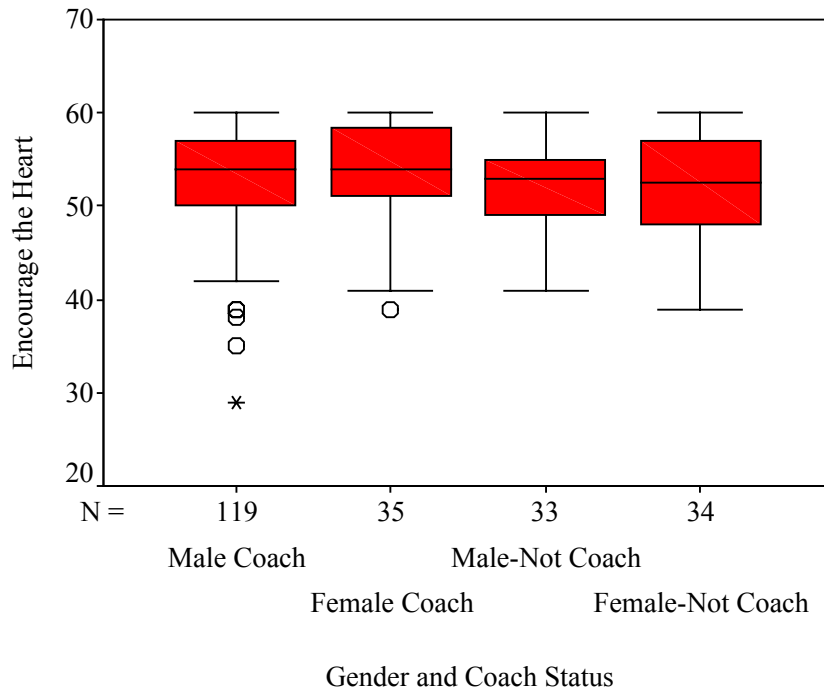


Figure 10. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Gender and Coach Status

Research Question #4

Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ among principals with masters, specialist, or doctoral degrees as a function of previous coaching status?

Five two-way ANOVAs were used. Each two-way ANOVA tested three null hypotheses.

Model the Way:

Ho4₁: There is no difference among the degree types and the model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₂: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' model the way leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₃: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for model the way leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in model the way dimension mean score based on degree and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for degree by coach status, $F(2, 229) = .03, p = .97$. The null hypothesis for the degree by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the model the way dimension mean score between advanced degrees: masters, specialist, and doctorate for principals, $F(2, 229) = .37, p = .69$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for degrees was retained. The mean for masters ($M = 53.62, SD = 4.09$) was only slightly higher than the mean for specialist ($M = 53.48, SD = 3.76$) and both masters and specialist degrees were higher than the mean for doctorate ($M = 52.82, SD = 4.93$). The effect size for advanced degrees, as measured by η^2 , was small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the model the way dimension mean score between advanced degrees and principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 229) = .28, p = .63$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was small ($< .01$). The model the way dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 53.39, SD = 4.08$) was slightly smaller than the mean score for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.65, SD = 4.25$). The means and standard deviations for model the way dimension by degree and coach status are shown in Table 15. The boxplot for model the way dimension by degree and coach status is shown in Figure 11.

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations for Model the Way by Degree and Coach Status

Highest Degree	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masters	Yes	104	53.59	3.89
	No	34	53.74	4.69
	Masters Total	138	53.62	4.09
Specialist	Yes	36	53.28	4.06
	No	27	53.74	3.37
	Specialist Total	63	53.48	3.76
Doctorate	Yes	24	52.71	4.93
	No	10	53.10	5.17
	Doctorate Total	34	52.82	4.93
Total	Yes	164	53.39	4.08
	No	71	53.65	4.25
	Population Total	235	53.47	4.13

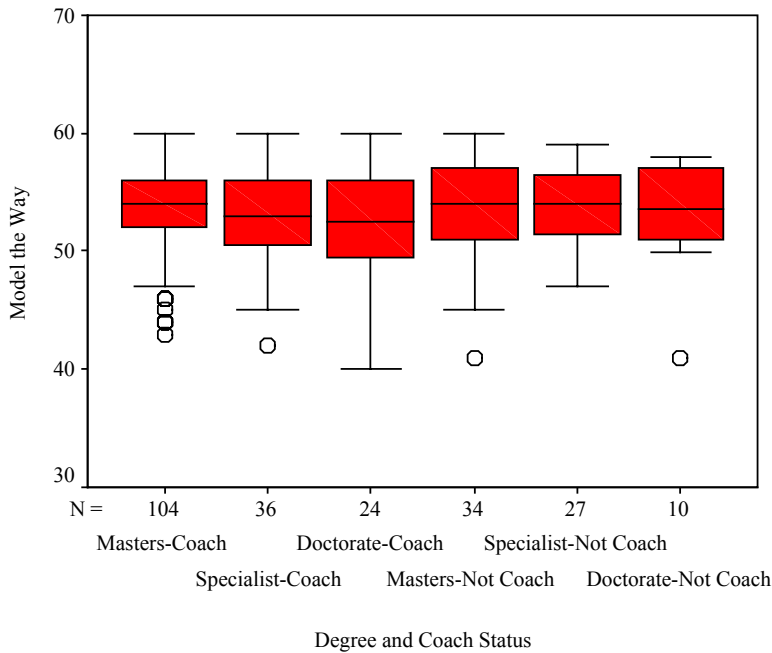


Figure 11. Boxplot for Model the Way by Degree and Coach Status

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho4₄: There is no difference among the degree types and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₅: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₆: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in inspire a shared vision dimension mean score based on degree and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for degree by coach status, $F(2, 229) = .18, p = .83$. The null hypothesis for the degree by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the inspire a shared vision dimension mean score between advanced degrees: masters, specialist, and doctorate for principals, $F(2, 229) = 1.24, p = .29$; therefore, the null hypothesis for degrees was retained. The mean for masters ($M = 52.23, SD = 4.84$) was only slightly higher than the mean score for specialist ($M = 51.76, SD = 4.57$). However, the mean for doctorate degree ($M = 53.82, SD = 5.06$) was higher than both the masters and specialist degrees. The effect size for advanced degrees, as measured by η^2 , was small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the inspire a shared vision dimension mean score between advanced degrees and principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 229) = .32, p = .58$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was small ($< .01$). The inspire a shared vision dimension mean for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.22, SD = 4.83$) was virtually identical to the mean score for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.36, SD = 4.79$). The means and standard deviations for inspire a shared vision dimension by degree and coach status are shown in Table 16. The boxplot for inspire a shared vision dimension by degree and coach status is shown in Figure 12.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations for Inspire a Shared Vision by Degree and Coach Status

Highest degree	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masters	Yes	104	52.26	4.77
	No	33	52.12	5.16
	Masters Total	137	52.23	4.84
Specialist	Yes	36	51.56	4.75
	No	27	52.04	4.40
	Specialist Total	63	51.76	4.57
Doctorate	Yes	25	53.00	5.27
	No	10	54.00	4.69
	Doctorate Total	35	53.29	5.06
Total	Yes	165	52.22	4.83
	No	70	52.36	4.79
	Population Total	235	52.26	4.81

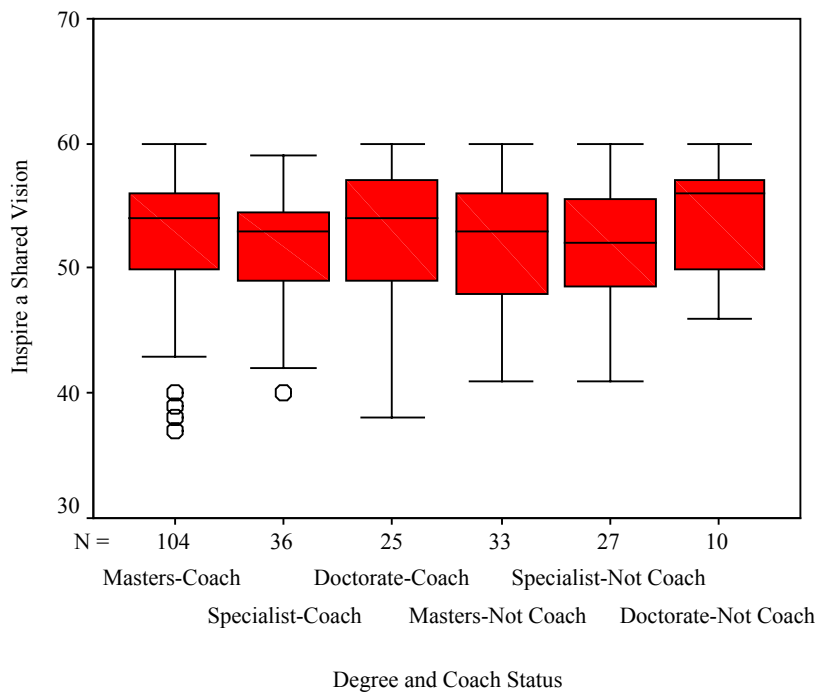


Figure 12. Boxplot for Inspire a Shared Vision by Degree and Coach Status

Challenge the Process:

Ho4₇: There is no difference among the degree types and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₈: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₉: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in challenge the process dimension mean score based on degree and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for degree by coach status, $F(2, 230) = .07, p = .94$. The null hypothesis for the degree by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the challenge the process mean score between advanced degrees: masters, specialist, and doctorate for principals, $F(2, 230) = 1.77, p = .17$; therefore, the null hypothesis for degrees was retained. The mean for masters ($M = 51.46, SD = 5.03$) was only slightly smaller than the mean for specialist ($M = 51.76, SD = 4.75$). However, the mean for doctorate degree ($M = 53.34, SD = 4.32$) was higher than both masters and specialist degrees. The effect size for advanced degrees, as measured by η^2 , was small (.02). There was no difference in the challenge the process dimension mean score between advanced degrees and principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 230) = .08, p = .80$; therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). The challenge the process dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 51.88, SD = 4.76$) was slightly smaller than the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 51.66, SD = 5.19$). The means and standard deviations for challenge the process dimension by degree and coach status are shown in Table 17. The boxplot for challenge the process dimension by degree and coach status is shown in Figure 13.

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Challenge the Process by Degree and Coach Status

Highest Degree	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masters	Yes	104	51.49	4.74
	No	34	51.35	5.92
	Masters Total	138	51.46	5.03
Specialist	Yes	36	52.03	4.92
	No	27	51.41	4.58
	Specialist Total	63	51.76	4.75
Doctorate	Yes	25	53.32	4.51
	No	10	53.40	4.03
	Doctorate Total	35	53.34	4.32
Total	Yes	165	51.88	4.76
	No	71	51.66	5.19
	Population Total	236	51.82	4.88

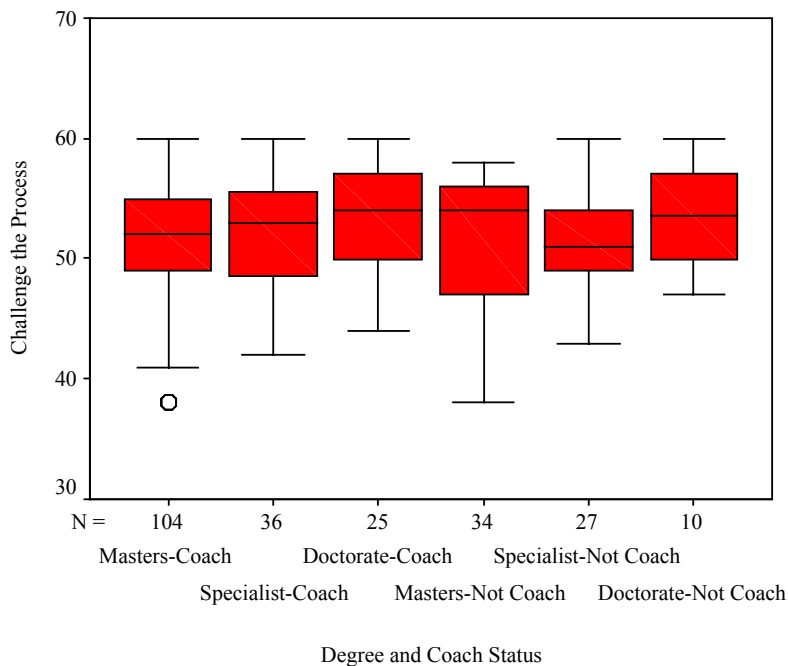


Figure 13. Boxplot for Challenge the Process by Degree and Coach Status

Enable Others to Act:

Ho4₁₀: There is no difference among the degree types and enable others to act with leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₁: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₂: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in enable others to act dimension mean score based on degree and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way ANOVA showed there was no significant two-way interaction for degree by coach status, $F(2, 230) = 1.31, p = .27$. The null hypothesis for the degree by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the enable others to act dimension mean score between advanced degrees: masters, specialist, and doctorate for principals, $F(2, 230) = .10, p = .91$; therefore, the null hypothesis for degrees was retained. The mean for masters ($M = 53.82, SD = 3.89$) was only slightly smaller than the mean score for specialist ($M = 53.94, SD = 3.89$). However, the mean for doctorate degree ($M = 53.89, SD = 3.88$) was higher than both masters and specialist degrees. The effect size for advanced degrees, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the enable others to act dimension mean score between advanced degrees and principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 220) = 1.65, p = .20$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was (.01). The enable others to act dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 54.00, SD = 3.66$) was slightly higher than the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 53.65, SD = 4.38$). The means and standard deviations for enable others to act dimension by degree and coach status are shown in Table 18. The boxplot for enable others to act dimension by degree and coach status is shown in Figure 14.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for Enable Others to Act by Degree and Coach Status

Highest Degree	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masters	Yes	104	53.85	3.62
	No	34	53.74	4.69
	Masters Total	138	53.82	3.89
Specialist	Yes	36	53.86	3.62
	No	27	54.04	4.29
	Specialist Total	63	53.94	3.89
Doctorate	Yes	25	54.84	3.94
	No	10	52.30	3.53
	Doctorate Total	35	54.11	3.95
Total	Yes	165	54.00	3.66
	No	71	53.65	4.38
	Population Total	236	53.89	3.88

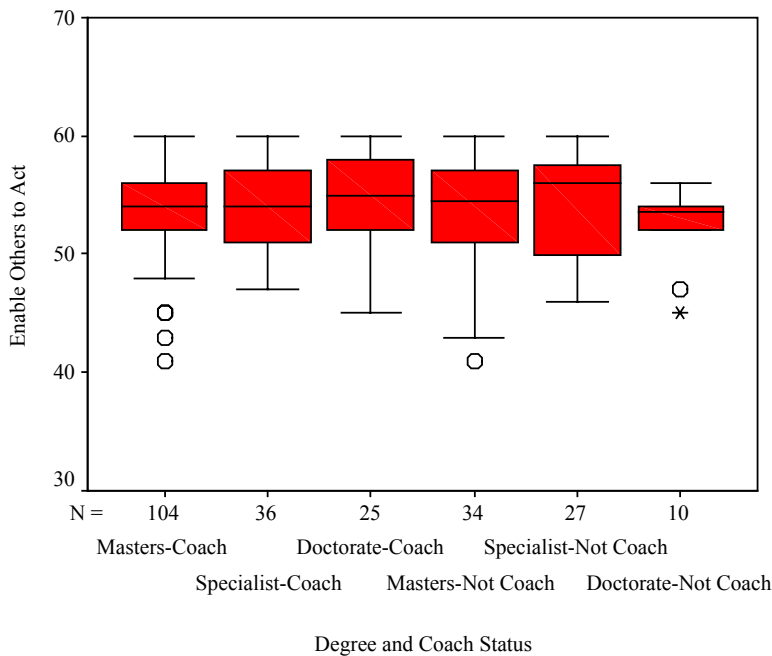


Figure 14. Boxplot for Enable Others to Act by Degree and Coach Status

Encourage the Heart:

Ho4₁₃: There is no difference among the degree types and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₄: There is no difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches' encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Ho4₁₅: There is no significant interaction between degree type and coach status for encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences in encourage the heart dimension mean score based on degree and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach). The two-way showed there was no significant two-way interaction for degree by coach status, $F(2, 228) = .09, p = .91$. The null hypothesis for the degree by coach status interaction term was retained. There was no significant difference in the encourage the heart dimension mean score between advanced degrees: masters, specialist, and doctorate for principals, $F(2, 228) = .05, p = .95$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for degrees was retained. The mean for masters ($M = 52.79, SD = 5.79$) was only slightly smaller than the mean for specialist ($M = 52.84, SD = 4.46$) and both masters and specialist degrees were higher than the mean for doctorate ($M = 52.53, SD = 6.61$). The effect size for advanced degrees, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). There was no difference in the encourage the heart dimension mean score between advanced degrees and principals who had been coaches and those who had not, $F(1, 228) = .27, p = .61$. Therefore, the null hypothesis for coach status was retained. The effect size for coach status, as measured by η^2 , was very small ($< .01$). The encourage the heart dimension mean score for principals who had been coaches ($M = 52.95, SD = 5.69$) was slightly higher than the mean for principals who had not been coaches ($M = 52.33, SD = 5.29$). The means and standard deviations for encourage the heart dimension by degree and coach status are shown in Table 19. The boxplot for encourage the heart dimension by degree and coach status is shown in Figure 15.

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations for Encourage the Heart by Degree and Coach Status

Highest Degree	Coach	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masters	Yes	104	53.02	5.75
	No	33	52.06	5.92
	Masters Total	137	52.79	5.79
Specialist	Yes	36	53.03	4.38
	No	27	52.59	4.63
	Specialist Total	63	52.84	4.46
Doctorate	Yes	24	52.54	7.22
	No	10	52.50	5.21
	Doctorate Total	34	52.53	6.61
Total	Yes	164	52.95	5.69
	No	70	52.33	5.29
	Population Total	234	52.76	5.57

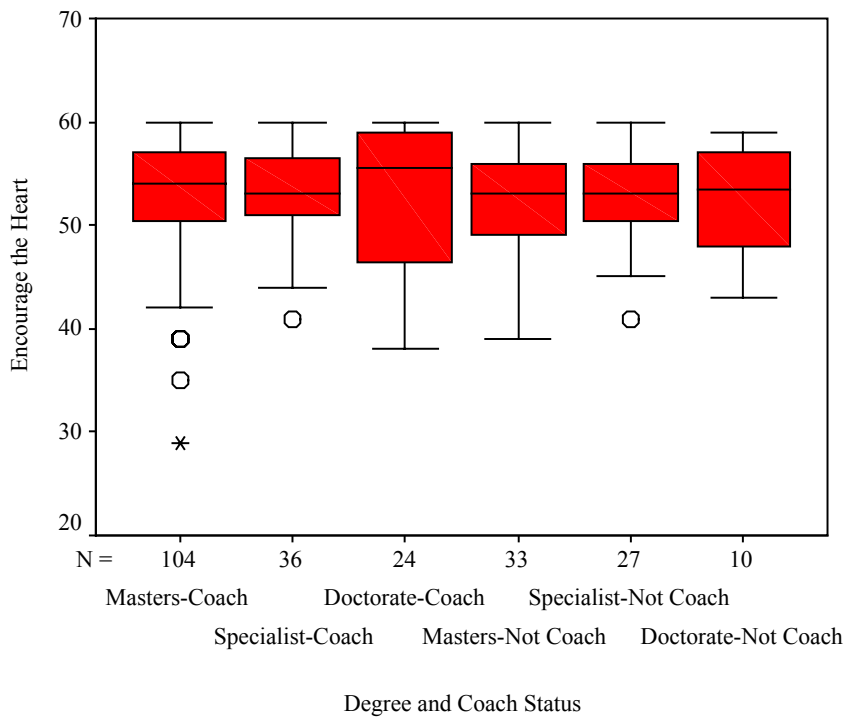


Figure 15. Boxplot for Encourage the Heart by Degree and Coach Status

Research Question #5

Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal?

Five Pearson *rs* (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question. The null hypotheses for each of the five Pearson *rs* are:

Model the Way:

Ho5₁: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and model the way leadership practice dimension.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho5₂: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

Challenge the Process:

Ho5₃: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho5₄: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho5₅: There is no relationship between years experience as a principal and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

Table 20 shows the correlations between total years as principal and the five leadership practices.

Table 20

Correlations Between Total Years as Principal and the Five Leadership Practices

Leadership Practice	<i>N</i>	Years as Principal <i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Model the Way	235	.09	.169
Inspire a Shared Vision	235	.08	.198
Challenge the Process	235	.07	.268
Enable Others to Act	236	.11	.093
Encourage the Heart	233	.05	.424

As shown in Table 20, there were no statistically significant correlations between the total number of years as a principal and the five leadership practices. Therefore, all five null hypotheses were retained.

Research Question #6

Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

Five Pearson *rs* (one for each leadership practice) were used to analyze this research question. The null hypotheses for each of the five Pearson *rs* are:

Model the Way:

Ho₆₁: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and model the way leadership practice dimension.

As shown in Table 21, the correlation coefficients show there was a definite but weak positive relation $r(162) = .17, p = .030$ between the number of years coached and model the way leadership practices dimension. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Inspire a Shared Vision:

Ho6₂: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and inspire a shared vision leadership practice dimension.

As shown in Table 21, the correlation coefficients show there was a definite but weak positive relation $r(163) = .17, p = .033$ between the number of years coached and inspire a shared vision leadership practices dimension. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Challenge the Process:

Ho6₃: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and challenge the process leadership practice dimension.

As shown in Table 21, the correlation coefficients show there was no significant relationships $r(163) = .06, p = .418$ between number of years as a coach and challenge the process leadership practices dimension. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Enable Others to Act:

Ho6₄: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and enable others to act leadership practice dimension.

As shown in Table 21, the correlation coefficients show there were no significant relationships $r(163) = .12, p = .121$ between number of years as a coach and enable others to act leadership practices dimension. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained.

Encourage the Heart:

Ho6₅: There is no relationship between years experience as a coach and encourage the heart leadership practice dimension.

As shown in Table 21, the correlation coefficients show there was a definite but weak positive relation $r(162) = .22, p = .005$ between the number of years coached and encourage the heart leadership practices dimension. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 21

Correlations Between Years Spent as Coach and the Five Leadership Practices

Leadership Practice	<i>N</i>	Years as Coach <i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Model the Way	164	.17*	.030
Inspire a Shared Vision	165	.17*	.033
Challenge the Process	165	.06	.418
Enable Others to Act	165	.12	.121
Encourage the Heart	164	.22**	.005

** Correlation significant at the .01 level.

* Correlation significant at the .05 level.

The findings of the research data analyses are summarized in Chapter 5. In addition, conclusions drawn from the study, recommendations to improve current practice, and recommendations for further research are presented.

CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides an overview of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations based on the findings of this study. The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices, using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory, between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals in North Carolina who were not coaches. The six research questions were:

1. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not?
2. Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?
3. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status?
4. Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ among principals with masters, specialist, or doctoral degrees as a function of previous coaching status?
5. Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal?
6. Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

This quantitative study's population consisted of all 368 public high school principals in North Carolina who were contacted by traditional postal mail. Three mailings, from 10 to 12 days apart, were sent to all nonresponders. Of that number, 239 principals responded for a

response rate of 64.9%. Of those responding, 152 were males, with 119 reporting they had coached and 33 who had not coached; 69 were females, with 35 reporting they had coached and 32 reporting they had not coached; and 18 respondents who did not report gender. The results from the surveys were analyzed using SPSS.

The instrument used was the 2003 edition of Kouzes and Posner's 30 question *Leadership Practices Inventory–Self Form* (see Appendix A). Kouzes and Posner (2002) developed the Leadership Practices Inventory using both quantitative and qualitative research. From this research, they developed the 5 practices and 10 commitments of exemplary leadership. These five practices of exemplary leadership and the two commitments associated with each are:

1. Model the Way: (a) find your voice by clarifying your personal values and (b) set the example by aligning actions with shared values;
2. Inspire a Shared Vision: (a) envision the future by imaging exciting and ennobling possibilities and (b) enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations;
3. Challenge the Process: (a) search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve and (b) experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes;
4. Enable Others to Act: (a) foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust and (b) strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.
5. Encourage the Heart: (a) recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and (b) celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community. (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 22)

An eight-question principal demographic sheet (see Appendix E) was also used. This demographic sheet gathered data on the respondents' age, gender, school size, the post-graduate degree they presently held, number of years as a principal, whether they were ever a middle- or high-school coach, and if so, how many years they coached.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

This section provides a discussion of findings in reference to each of the five leadership practices. The primary purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported

leadership practices, using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory, between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals who were not coaches. The focus was on the question: Does prior experience as a coach improve a principal's leadership skills? Data were gathered from questionnaires completed by 239 (64.9%) principals in North Carolina. The questionnaires were from a principal demographic data and were based on the 30 question from the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Inventory. A discussion of the survey results in each of the five dimensions of leadership practices as identified by Kouzes and Posner follows.

Model the Way

In comparing data for the leadership dimension of model the way and the six research questions, statistically significant differences were found in two of the six research questions. The two statistically significant research questions were:

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

Research Question #6: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

In comparing the leadership practices reported by high school principals in North Carolina with the norm of those in the Kouzes and Posner study (see Appendix F), the analysis indicates that for the dimension of model the way, the mean score for principals ($M = 53.66$) was higher than was the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 47.02$), a mean difference of 6.97. This was the second highest of the five leadership dimensions. This finding suggests that North Carolina's principals view the dimension of model the way as one of their most competent practices, more so than do leaders in other professions as reported by Kouzes and Posner norms. One reason for this may be what Cottrell and Harvey (2004) called the universal need. The universal need that all employees share is the need for consistency; they all need to work in an environment where

the leader has eliminated the inconsistencies and contradictions of a mixed message. Kouzes and Posner (2002) suggested that “credibility is the foundation of leadership” (p. 32). They referred to credibility as the first law of leadership: “If you don’t believe in the messenger, you won’t believe the message” (p. 33). Employees simply work better in an environment where the leader has a credible and consistent message. Whether or not leaders articulate their personal beliefs or philosophies, their behavior does. As noted by DePree (1993), “Their behavior expresses a personal set of values and beliefs” (p. 5). In education, principals can rise from the ranks of media specialists, central office personnel, or other support staff; however, most started their careers in the classroom as teachers. Often, in the business world, leaders learn their skills in one industry and typically go into an entirely different industry. Perhaps, because principals were teachers before they became principals, they knew firsthand the importance of being consistent in the dimension of model the way.

For research question #6, concerning a correlation between years experience as a coach and the dimension of model the way, there was a definite but weak positive relationship ($r = .17$). It is important to note that in the correlation between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal, there were no statically significant differences. However, research question #5 revealed the second strongest correlation regarding total years as principal was model the way ($r = .09$). This seems to suggest that principals with prior coaching experience, and to a lesser extent all principals as related to the dimension of model the way, improve with experience at their respective positions. The importance of the dimension of model the way is supported by researchers such as Jones et al. (1982) when they stated that coaches were constantly in the public eye and were therefore expected to provide good examples for their players. They are always “on duty” as far as being role models for young people, even when they are not coaching. According to a former player of Coach Dean Smith (as cited in Chadwick, 1999), one only has to look at one of basketball’s most winning coaches for an example of modeling the way. “One of the great influences coaches have as models for acceptable behavior is in the way they behave before, during, and after a contest” (p. 18). Coach

Smith's number one priority was "developing his players as people--teaching us how to play the game rightly on and off the court, showing us how to be persons of integrity" (p. xi).

Inspire a Shared Vision

In comparing data for the leadership dimension of inspire a shared vision and the six research questions, statistically significant differences were found in two of the six research questions. The two statistically significant research questions were:

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

Research Question #6: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

North Carolina principals view their ability to inspire a shared vision significantly higher than do other leaders. In comparing the leadership practices reported by high school principals in North Carolina with the norm of those in the Kouzes and Posner study (see Appendix F), the analysis indicates that for the dimension of inspire a shared vision, the mean score for North Carolina principals ($M = 52.16$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 44.34$), a mean difference of 7.82, which was the highest of the five leadership dimensions. According to Lumsden (1998), the school vision is ultimately the responsibility of the principal. This was supported by Bulach et al. (1999) when they suggested it is the principals' human relations skills, levels of trust, decision-making processes, methods of controlling staff, and ways of dealing with conflict that make the difference between successful and unsuccessful principals. Schools must become a place where teachers are allowed to have a voice in the vision and direction of any reform efforts. Without this, administrators cannot build a supportive climate or vision where the teachers and staff as a whole can reach their full potential (Bulach et al.).

For research question #6, a correlation between years experience as a coach and the dimension of inspire a shared vision, there was a definite but weak positive relationship ($r = .17$).

While not statistically significant, this was tied as the second strongest relation. It is important to note that for research question #5, in the correlation between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal, there were no statistically significant differences. This suggests that North Carolina principals with prior coaching experience might improve their ability as related to the dimension of inspire a shared vision with experience more than North Carolina principals without prior coaching experience.

Challenge the Process

In comparing data for the leadership dimension of model the way and the six research questions, statistically significant differences were found in one of the six research questions. The statistically significant research question was:

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

In comparing the leadership practices reported by high school principals in North Carolina with the norm of those in the Kouzes and Posner study (see Appendix F), the analysis indicates that for the dimension of challenge the process, the mean score for principals ($M = 51.79$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 46.11$), a mean difference of 5.68, which was tied as the second smallest mean difference of the five leadership dimensions. This indicates that North Carolina principals view the dimension of challenge the process as one in which they feel successful. Their perceptions of success are not quite as high for the dimension of challenge the process as the dimensions of model the way and inspire a shared vision.

In the analysis of research question #3 and the data between the mean scores for the five dimensions of leadership based on gender and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach), no statistically significant difference between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status was found. The dimension of challenge the process held the lowest mean score ($M = 51.79$) for both males and females regardless of

previous coaching status. This is supported by the analysis of research question #1 and the dimension of challenge the process and the difference between principal-coaches ($M = 51.88$) and principal-noncoaches' ($M = 51.66$). The smallest mean difference .22 of the five dimensions was reported for challenge the process. The data reveal principals who coached value the dimension of challenge the process slightly higher than did principals who did not coach. This suggests that males and females and principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches view the dimension of challenge the process as the dimension they were the least competent in of the five leadership practices measured. This is in contradiction with some of the literature reviewed. Several researchers (Graham, 1997; Ferrandino, 2001; Yukl, 2002) suggested that “leading change” or being a change agent is the essence of leadership. Simply put, leading change is one of the most important and difficult leadership responsibilities. Any major change in an organization is usually guided from the top level of leadership. Fullan (2001) suggested that if leaders do not treat people well and fairly while being a change agent, they will be leaders without followers. The low mean scores for the dimension of challenge the process indicates it is a dimension that principals view they are not as competent in as the other four leadership practices. According to Fullan, one of life’s great ironies is that schools are in the business of teaching and learning, yet they are terrible at learning from each other. The data indicate that North Carolina's principals, male and female and principal-coach and principal-noncoach, report they are learning from each other ways to challenge the process with greater confidence than leaders generally, but overall feel less confident in this dimension than the other four dimensions. It may be that principals are strong leaders but the culture or organization of today’s schools is not conducive to change. Fullan referred to this as a need for transforming the culture or “reculturing” (p. 44).

Enable Others to Act

In comparing data for the leadership dimension of enable others to act and the six research questions, statistically significant differences were found in one of the six research

questions. The statistically significant research question was:

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

In comparing the leadership practices reported by high school principals in North Carolina with the norm of those in the Kouzes and Posner study (see Appendix F), the analysis indicates that for the dimension of enable others to act the mean score for principals ($M = 53.91$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 49.40$) a mean difference of 4.51, which was the smallest mean difference of the five leadership dimensions. This suggests that North Carolina principals view the dimension of enable others to act as one of the dimensions with which they were least comfortable. This is the dimension where some North Carolina principals may experience discomfort in giving up some control or power in their schools. In this dimension, the principal must (a) foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust and (b) strengthen others by sharing power and discretion (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 22). This is a dimension that for some principals requires greater attention. Perhaps they should remember that they were teachers before they were principals. Good principals and good coaches are teachers and they are not always working on short-term goals, they are also working on long-term goals. As Coach Poggi said when asked how successful his team was going to be, he replied, "I have no idea--won't know for 20 years. I'll be able to see what kind of fathers they are. I'll see what they are doing in the community" (as cited in Amtmann, 2005, p. 38).

When looking at research question #5 and research question #6 in regard to the dimension of enable others to act, the correlation of the data between the Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal, and the correlation between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach revealed an interesting concept. The dimension of enable others to act and years as a principal, while not statistically significant had the strongest correlation ($r = .11$). The dimension of enable others to act and years experience as

a coach, while not statistically significant revealed the second weakest correlation ($r = .12$). This may suggest that while not statistically significant, North Carolina principals report the dimension of enable others to act as being one they are more confident in than North Carolina principals with coaching experience.

In the analysis of research question #4 and the data between the mean scores for the five dimensions of leadership based on educational degree level (masters, specialist, doctorate) and coach status (previously a coach versus not previously a coach), there was no statistically significant difference found between degree levels. A practical significance was found across all educational degree levels regarding the dimension of enable others to act. This dimension held the highest mean total score (without regards to previous coaching status) for masters ($M = 53.82$), specialist ($M = 53.94$), and doctorate ($M = 54.11$) degrees. However, when the previous coaching status was factored, there was a change of greater than one point in the mean only at the doctoral level whereas the mean for enable others to act remained the highest for coaches ($M = 54.84$) while inspire a shared vision became the highest mean for doctoral noncoaches ($M = 54.00$).

In the analysis of research question #3 and the data between the mean scores for the dimension of enable others to act and leadership based on gender and coach status, no statistically significant difference between male principals and female principals as a function of previous coaching status was found. However, a noticeable trend was that both males and females were consistent in the area for which they held the highest means. The dimension of enable others to act held the highest mean score ($M = 53.98$) for both males and females regardless of previous coaching status.

Encourage the Heart

In comparing data for the leadership dimension of encourage the heart and the six research questions, statistically significant differences were found in two of the six research questions. The two statistically significant research questions were:

Research Question #2: Is there a difference between the self-reported leadership practices scores of principals in the current study and the Kouzes and Posner Norms for these leadership practices?

Research Question #6: Is there a relationship between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a coach?

In comparing the leadership practices reported by high school principals in North Carolina with the norm of those in the Kouzes and Posner study (see Appendix F), the analysis indicates that for the dimension of encourage the heart the mean score for North Carolina principals ($M = 53.91$) was higher than the Kouzes and Posner norm ($M = 47.05$) a mean difference of 5.68, which was tied as the second smallest mean difference of the five leadership dimensions. This suggests that principals may view the dimension of encourage the heart as one they are least comfortable with when compared to the other practices reported by Kouzes and Posner norms. This is where the principal (a) recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence and (b) celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community (Kouzes and Posner, 2002, p. 22). As pointed out by Sergiovanni (1991), teachers find satisfaction in the intrinsic awards they get from teaching. These intrinsic rewards can be complemented by the extra little things the building level principal remembers to do. In other words, good principals do not forget to take care of the human needs of their staff.

For research question #6, a correlation between years experience as a coach and the dimension of encourage the heart, there was a definite but weak positive relationship ($r = .22$). This was the strongest correlation of the five leadership practices about the dimension of encourage the heart. It is important to note that in the correlation between Leadership Practices Inventory scores and years experience as a principal, there were no statistically significant differences. However, the weakest correlation regarding total years as principal was encourage the heart ($r = .05$). In the analysis of research question #1 and the difference between principal-coaches and principal-noncoaches, the data reveal principal-coaches reported a slightly higher mean score ($M = 52.95$) than did principal-noncoaches ($M = 52.33$). The mean difference of .62

while not statistically significant was the highest for encourage the heart. This suggests that North Carolina principals with prior coaching experience value and practice the dimension of encourage the heart much more than North Carolina principals without prior coaching experience. The reason for this may be that it is more a tradition in athletics to celebrate the wins and award the best players. Likewise, it is no less important to celebrate the wins and reward the good teachers. Covey (1990) referred to this as “sharpening the saw.”

Early Alternative Hypotheses

From the start, this researcher had four early hypotheses of what the research would reveal. These were:

1. I believed the research would show that principal-coaches would have different leadership practices than principal-noncoaches, at least for the first few years. Coaches, while not leading a school, lead individuals and teams. Coaches work on strategies, plan for the season, and organize materials and events. They also deal with the press, parents, and the community in ways a classroom teacher seldom does. The role of coach has given them the opportunity to practice leadership skills. This, I believed, would give them an edge over someone fresh out of the classroom.
2. I believed there would be differences in leadership practices as the level of education (masters, specialist, or doctoral degree) advanced. As the level of education advanced and principals were exposed to new concepts, new techniques, and new skills, I believed their mean scores would naturally go higher reflecting improved leadership practices.
3. I believed there would be very little difference, if any, in the leadership practices of men and women in this study. If there were any differences, I believed it would be in the dimension of encourage the heart. I believed females would be more nurturing than males would be. More importantly, I believed the mean scores would be similar

for the genders simply because both males and females have had the same leadership training and similar professional experiences.

4. I believed principals would score as well or higher than the Kouzes and Posner norms on the five leadership practices. I believed the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) captured the essence of school leadership as well as good teaching.

The research data did not confirm my first early hypothesis. There was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of principals who have been coaches and those who have not. Also, there was no statistically significant correlation between the number of years as a principal and the five leadership practices. However, in three of the five leadership practices, a definite but weak positive relationship was found. The strongest was found in the definition of encourage the heart ($r = .22$), followed by the dimension of model the way ($r = .17$) and the dimension of inspire a shared vision ($r = .17$). Therefore, it is reasonable to make the conjecture that coaching experience had a positive impact on leadership as measured by the Kouzes and Posner five leadership practices.

The research did not confirm my second early hypothesis. There was no statistically significant difference found between degree levels for any of the five dimensions. Therefore, it is reasonable that education past the level of master's degree as measured by the five leadership practices had no impact or did not measure changes in leadership resulting from education above a masters degree. It is possible that education beyond the masters level is not helpful for a school principal. This could be significant in that it is at the master's level where the foundation of knowledge for school leadership is established. Other levels such as specialist or doctoral levels may put the final changes in place. This is where ideas and practices of the "little things" can be polished and refined. While this is important and makes for a better leader, it might not be reflected in the mean scores.

The research did confirm my third early hypothesis. When analyzing the mean scores for the five dimensions of leadership based on gender, no statistically significant difference between

male and female principals were found. However, both males and females were consistent in the area for which they held the highest and lowest means. The dimension of enable others to act held the highest mean score ($M = 53.98$) for both males and females while challenge the process held the lowest mean score ($M = 51.96$) for both males and females regardless of previous coaching status. The data did not confirm that women would have a higher mean score on the dimension of encourage the heart. Both males and females who had coached reported the same mean score ($M = 52.91$). This mean score was higher for those who had coached than the mean score ($M = 52.07$) for those who had not coached. For the dimension of encourages the heart, males had a slightly higher mean score ($M = 52.78$) than did females who had a mean score ($M = 52.38$). This study did not detect any significant difference in male and female principals.

The research did confirm my fourth early hypothesis. Across all five leadership practices, the self-reported mean scores were higher for the responders than the Kouzes and Posner norms. Not only were the mean scores higher, they ranged from the lowest being the dimension of enable others to act with a mean difference of 4.51 to the largest being the dimension of inspire a shared vision with a mean difference of 7.82. All responders to this study were North Carolina high school principals whereas Kouzes and Posner's (2002) responders were both "business and government executives" (p. 24). Most public school principals in North Carolina were teachers before they were principals. Perhaps they scored higher than the norms on the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) because of their prior experience as teachers. It might be that an appropriate metaphor for leader is that of a teacher. The five leadership practices measured by Kouzes and Posner inventory are the common practices of teachers and principals. Perhaps teaching contributes to leadership ability and coaching contributes additional skills and knowledge.

Conclusions

Based on the analysis of findings from this study, the following conclusions emerged.

Conclusion #1

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices using the Kouzes and Posner Leadership Practices Inventory between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals who were not coaches. The research question that addressed this was: Do the Kouzes and Posner mean scores (for the five dimensions) differ between principals who have been coaches and those who have not. There appears to be little, if any, differences between the leadership practices of high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches with those principals who were not coaches. The mean differences ranged from a low of .22 for the dimension of challenge the process to a high of .62 for the dimension of encourage the heart. None the five leadership practices indicated any statically significant differences.

Conclusion #2

North Carolina principals seem to have a very positive self-concept in regard to their leadership practices; in fact, these principals scored themselves significantly higher than the Kouzes and Posner norms for each of the five leadership practices.

Conclusion #3

There appears to be little, if any, differences between the leadership practices of males and females who are North Carolina principals. The dimension of enable others to act held the highest mean score ($M = 53.98$) for both males and females regardless of previous coaching status. Whereas, the dimension of challenge the process held the lowest mean score ($M = 51.96$) for both males and females. This was consistent throughout the study.

Conclusion #4

The data reflected that the level of education (masters, specialist, or doctorate) showed no significance in the mean scores of self-ratings for principals in North Carolina high schools.

This could suggest that education past the level of a master's degree does not contribute to the quality of principals as measured by the five leadership dimensions.

Conclusion #5

In contradiction to the findings regarding educational level and leadership ability, the number of years coaching was found to have a statically significant impact on three of the five dimensions of leadership ability whereas the number of years as a high school principal did not. This might suggest that coaching experience can contribute to the quality of principals' leadership skills as measured in this study. Perhaps the quality of state-wide staff development workshops in North Carolina, with emphasis on leadership skills, has enhanced leadership abilities of all principals regardless of educational level.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendation #1

Because of the strong self-perceived leadership skills of North Carolina principals (higher than Kouzes and Posner norms), the researcher would suggest that additional studies be conducted to include teachers who serve under these principals. This will assess the accuracy of the self-perceptions of principals reported in this study.

Recommendation #2

In a future study, Question # 2 in the principals' demographic survey should be revised. The question should read "What is your gender" instead of "gender" (see Appendix E). This would eliminate any confusion about the question. In this study, 12 participants reported the student gender percentages at their schools instead of their own gender.

Recommendation #3

While the results of this study might not be generalized to other populations, it would be interesting to conduct this same study in a different state or in different states to see if the results of this study would hold up. Because all states operate under *No Child Left Behind*, principals have common expectations and similar goals to meet. It could also be important to see if the different state requirements and practices would yield similar results.

Recommendations for Practice

As several researchers in the review of literature have pointed out (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Marzano et al., 2005), it is vital for today's schools to have strong, effective leadership. For the purposes of this study, leadership was defined as "The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (Hersey & Blanchard, p. 83). The following recommendations are made in the sincere hope of advancing school leadership as well as the professional practice of school leaders.

Recommendation #1

Educational administrators with programs that prepare people for the principalship should examine the following findings from this study: The dimension of enable others to act held the highest mean score ($M = 53.98$) for both males and females regardless of previous coaching status; whereas, the dimension of challenge the process showed the lowest mean score ($M = 51.96$) for both males and female. Therefore, I would suggest that educational administration programs focus on what Kouzes and Posner (2003) termed challenge the process, which they described as the leaders' ability to search for opportunities by seeking innovative ways to change, grow, innovate, and improve. This would help ensure that future administrators enter the principalship feeling confident in this area.

Recommendation #2

Kouzes and Posner (2003a) have concluded, based on over 20 years of validated research, that “The most reliable leadership development instrument available today” is their Leadership Practices Inventory (p. 9). This researcher would propose that individuals in a position to hire or recommend for hire understand the five dimensions of leadership and recognize the impact of these dimensions. In addition, this researcher would propose professional and staff development to incorporate training of the five dimensions of leadership for all principals and teachers. This would ensure both the faculty and the administration are working from the same basic framework. This would further ensure that all involved stay on target and reach their predetermined unified goals.

Recommendation #3

This study was limited to high school principals. The inclusion of middle schools or even elementary schools could be useful in gaining additional data but would also be useful in making comparisons between the leadership practices at the different school levels.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Leadership Practices Inventory (James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner)

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? For each of the following statements, please circle the response that best describes how often you as a principal engage in the practice.

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

1.	I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2.	I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3.	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4.	I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5.	I praise people for a job well done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6.	I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7.	I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8.	I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9.	I actively listen to diverse points of view.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10.	I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11.	I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12.	I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13.	I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14.	I treat others with dignity and respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15.	I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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

16.	I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17.	I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting a common vision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18.	I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19.	I support the decisions that people make on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20.	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21.	I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22.	I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23.	I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24.	I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25.	I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26.	I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27.	I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28.	I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29.	I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30.	I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX B
IRB Approval Letter



East Tennessee State University
Office for the Protection of Human Research Subjects • Box 70565 • Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-1707 • (423) 439-6053
Fax: (423) 439-6060

APPROVAL
Initial Exempt Review

March 2, 2007

Tony Tipton
80 Piney View Lane
Burnsville, NC 28714

Re: Perceived Leadership Practices of Principals/Coaches and Principals/NonCoaches
IRB#: c06-136e
ORSPA #: None

The following items were reviewed:

- Form 103
- Narrative (2/28/2007)
- CV
- Conflict of Interest Form (no potential conflict of interest identified)
- Survey
- Permission letter from Barry Posner
- Cover Letter for Participants

On February 28, 2007, a final approval was granted in accordance with 45 CFR 46. 101(b)(2). It is understood this project will be conducted in full accordance with all applicable sections of the IRB Policies. No continuing review is required. The exempt approval will be reported to the convened board on April 5, 2007.

Unanticipated Problems Involving Risks to Subjects or Others must be reported to the IRB (and VA R&D if applicable) within 10 working days.

Proposed changes in approved research can not be initiated without IRB review and approval. The only exception to this rule is that a change can be made prior to IRB approval when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the research subjects [21 CFR 56.108 (a)(4)]. In such a case, the IRB must be promptly informed of the change following it's implementation (within 10 working days) on Form 109 (www.etsu.edu/irb). The IRB will review the change to determine that it is consistent with ensuring the subject's continued welfare.



Accredited Since December 2005

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Andrea Clements".

Andrea Clements, Ph.D., Chairperson
ETSU Campus Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX C

Permission Letter From Barry Posner

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL

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

May 26, 2006

Mr. Tony Tipton
80 Piney View Lane
Burnsville, North Carolina 28714

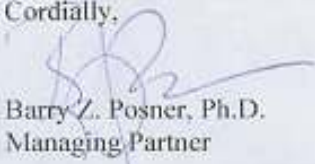
Dear Tony:

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

- (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
- (2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2005 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
- (3) That one (1) **bound** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
- (4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

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

Cordially,


Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed)



Date: 6-5-06

APPENDIX D

Cover Letter (for Traditional Postal Mailing)

Cover Letter (for Traditional Postal Mailing)

DATE:

Dear Fellow Administrator,

My name is Tony Tipton. I am an assistant principal at Mountain Heritage High School in Western North Carolina and a doctoral student at East Tennessee State University in the Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis Program. As part of my degree requirements I must complete a dissertation research project. The title of my dissertation is Perceived Leadership Practices of Principals/Coaches and Principals/NonCoaches. The purpose of this study is to compare the perceptions of self-reported leadership practices, using the Kouzes and Posner *Leadership Practices Inventory*, between high school principals in North Carolina who were coaches to those who were not coaches.

I am requesting your help in carrying out my study. As an assistant principal I know how precious your time is. **This survey will only take about 11 minutes to complete and mail.** Therefore, I am requesting your participation in completing the attached survey, which contains two short sections.

Within the next week please complete both parts of the survey and place them in the enclosed postage paid envelope. If you have any questions please feel free to contact me. Be assured that your anonymity will be respected and your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

The number on the enclosed postage paid envelope is for maintaining accurate recordkeeping only. Upon return, the numbered envelope will be kept separate from the survey. Remember, your answers will be completely confidential / anonymous and in no way reflect on you or your school.

An executive summary of this study will be available upon request. If you have any questions regarding your participation please feel free to contact me. I thank you for your consideration and participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Tony Tipton
Doctoral Candidate / East Tennessee State University
Assistant Principal
Mountain Heritage High School
PO Drawer 70
Burnsville, NC 28714
Phone: 828-682-6103
Fax: 828-682-4287
E-mail: tetiption@yancevnc.net

APPROVED
By THE ETSU / VAIRB
FEB 28 2007
BY 
CHAIR/IRB COORDINATOR

APPENDIX E

Principal Demographic Sheet

Please be assured that all responses will be confidential and will be totally anonymous. After the data has been collected, all questionnaires will be destroyed and only group summary data will be reported. Confidentiality is guaranteed to all study participants. **Your completion of the survey instruments will mean that you have given your informed consent.**

1. Number of students at your school _____
2. Gender:
 ___ 1. Male ___ 2. Female
3. What is your age? _____
4. What is the highest degree you currently hold (check one):
 ___ 1. Bachelor's ___ 3. Specialist
 ___ 2. Master's ___ 4. Doctorate
5. Number of years in current position as principal, including this year _____.
6. Total years you have been a principal, including this year _____ (total years).
7. Did you coach a sport at the middle or high school level?
 ___ 1. Yes (If yes, please answer question 8)
 ___ 2. No (If no, please skip question 8 and move to the next part of the survey)
8. How many years did you coach, middle or high school, athletic sports? _____

Please move to the next part of the survey

APPENDIX F

Kouzes and Posner Norms

**Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI),
3rd Edition Version 3.0, New Norms May 2003**

	MTW	ISV	CTP	EOA	ETH
Valid	1256	1252	1257	1256	1255
Missing	3	7	2	3	4
Mean	47.016	44.3442	46.1146	49.3973	47.0553
Median	48.0000	45.0000	47.0000	50.0000	48.0000
Std.Deviation	7.09851	8.79206	7.21505	6.41827	8.19911

VITA

TONY EDWARD TIPTON

Personal Data: Date of Birth: January 26, 1959
 Place of Birth: Asheville, North Carolina
 Marital Status: Married, with three sons

Education: Mars Hill College, Mars Hill, North Carolina;
 B.A., Intermediate Education – Grades 4 - 9
 Certification in Math, PE, and Social Studies,
 1984

 Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, North Carolina;
 M.A., Education
 Certification in School Administration
 Certification in Central Office Supervision,
 1989

 Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, North Carolina;
 Ed. S., School Administration
 1994

 East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee;
 Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis, Ed.D.;
 2007

Professional
Experience: Teacher, Bowman Middle School, Mitchell County;
 Bakersville, NC;
 1985-1987

 Teacher, East Yancey Middle School, Yancey County;
 Burnsville, NC;
 1987-1991

 Teacher, Mountain Heritage High School, Yancey County;
 Burnsville, NC;
 1991-1999

 Assistant Principal, Cane River Middle School, Yancey County;
 Burnsville, NC;
 1999-2002

 Assistant Principal, Mountain Heritage High School;
 Burnsville, NC;
 2002- Present

Professional
Membership:

Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development
North Carolina Association of School Administrators
North Carolina Principals' & Assistant Principals' Association
Phi Delta Kappa, Western Carolina Chapter
Phi Gamma Mu, Western Carolina Chapter
Manchester Who's Who Member 2006-2007

Additional
Certifications:

Stephen Covey's *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*: Signature
Program; 2006
FEMA Certified NIMS (National Incident Management System) Training;
2007