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What Research Says About Leadership Styles and Their Implications for School Climate and Teacher Job Satisfaction

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to explore the various styles of leadership within education that are practiced by principals, administrators, and other educational leaders and how it impacts education, specifically the implications for school climate and teacher job satisfaction. The styles of leadership explored in this research include Affiliative, Authoritative, Autocratic, Coaching, Coercive, Democratic, Laissez-Faire, Pacesetting, Transactional, and Transformational. Each style of leadership is defined and demonstrates the effect it has on schools. The Paradigm of Educational Leadership has been crafted to visually show the relationship each style of leadership has with its counterparts. Research from the business industry will be utilized, as there are strong correlations and implications for the betterment of educational leaders and their schools. While this study focuses on leadership styles and the effects they have upon schools, the scope of educational leadership is wider than the styles put into practice by those in positions of authority. Therefore, context and parameters of use will be considered, as the literature allows, to provide a more thorough understanding of the leadership styles. Comparisons will be drawn between the various leadership styles, including age and gender of the educational leader. The importance of cultural understanding will be highlighted as leadership styles may have varying levels of effectiveness depending on the demographics of the school and surrounding community. The research concludes by pointing out the benefits of using a variety of leadership styles, using self-evaluation methods to collect information regarding one’s own leadership style(s), and exploring ways to ensure a legacy of leadership in the face of administrator turnover.

Keywords: Educational leadership, leadership styles, principal, teacher job satisfaction, school climate
Introduction to the Project

One constant in education is the concept of change. Schools face ever-changing struggles as they endeavor to increase student achievement in light of accountability through federal and state laws and sanctions (Onorato, 2013). Mitchell and Castle (2005) observed that educational leaders, specifically school principals and administrators, have the challenge of leading their schools, keeping up with the “managerial tasks and paperwork” (p. 410) that are required of them, and being “caught in the crossfire between competing demands, conflicts, and tensions” (p. 431).

In spite of the difficulties associated with their role, educational leaders are in a unique position to bring about change in their schools and ensure student achievement. Kelley, Thornton, and Daugherty (2005) postulated that educational leaders are “possibly the most important single determinant of an effective learning environment” (p. 17). This research aims to ascertain the various styles of leadership that educational leaders, specifically principals, use and the effects they have upon the school climate and the job satisfaction levels of their teachers.

Definition of Terms

Below is a list of terms used in the research and their corresponding definitions.

Educational Leader:

Within the research, the terms educational leader, principal, and head school administrator are used interchangeably. They refer to a leader within an educational organization.

Principal:

These individuals are some of the top leaders within their school, in positions of authority below the level of a superintendent or governing board or agency. They are directly responsible
for the supervision of the teaching staff and the quality of the school climate. Principals perform a myriad of responsibilities throughout the course of an academic year, including planning, curriculum oversight and development, vision casting, communication, evaluation of teachers and staff, and more (Dahri, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

School Climate:

School climate is “the collective personality of the school, the overall atmosphere of the school that one can sense almost immediately on entering the building” and is a “relatively enduring quality” that principals, teachers, and students experience (Pashiardis, 2000, p. 224).

Styles of Leadership:

The styles of leadership are the framework through which the leader sees their organization – be it through the areas of vision, goals, relationships, or a combination. These three areas are the primary influencers that a leader considers, or neglects, before deciding on a course of action when confronting a problem or conducting their day-to-day work. In other words, they are indicators that help determine why a leader does what they do in a particular situation. Each style of leadership will be defined in a later section within the research.

Teacher Job Satisfaction:

The amount of enjoyment and satisfaction that educators have in their school and work life. Teachers place the leadership styles of their principal as a leading element in evaluating their level of job satisfaction (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, and Batool, 2017; Korkmaz, 2007; Karabağ Köse & Güçlü, 2017).
Educational leadership can be summarized by how the leader interacts with three areas: vision, goals, and relationships (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017; Korkmaz, 2007).

Vision:

The educational leader is responsible to “envision [the] future needs” of the institution (Kelley, Thornton, & Daugherty, 2005, pg. 17). They need to be forward thinking and see the best path forward for a school. The educational leader must communicate the vision to their staff in order to bring about the changes that will better the school.
Goals:

The educational leader develops goals and objectives in order to bring their vision to fruition. As Goleman (2000) stated, “the leader’s singular job is to get results” (p. 78). They must determine the actions necessary to accomplish the vision, building the school from where it is now to where it needs to be. These results, however, cannot be accomplished in a vacuum.

Relationships:

The educational leader interacts with the people around him. The leader “cannot work alone” so he “leads and encourages… the people toward the accomplishment of the objectives of an organization” (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017, p. 49). The educational leader not only leads his teachers and staff, but must build strong relationships and consider their “individual needs” (Amedome, 2018, pg. 4).

These three components to educational leadership are difficult to balance, but when done right, “effective leadership is the main factor in achieving school improvement” (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017, p. 46).

The Paradigm of Educational Leadership has levels of severity within each area. Looking at Figure 1, notice the placement of leadership style example “1” – it is located near the outside/border of the “relationships” area. This denotes that the leadership style example “1” is an extreme version of the relationship area. It is far removed from the “goals” and “vision” area. This type of leader seldom concerns themselves with the other two areas. Therefore, looking at leadership style example “2,” this leader is more centralized and less extreme in the “relationship” area. They may periodically take the “goals” and “vision” into consideration when leading their school. Leadership style example “3” is the most integrative of the three examples.
This leader tends towards the “relationships” area in their leadership style, but also integrates “vision” and “goals” into their leadership. This leader is a more centrally-focused leader, taking many aspects into consideration.

Statement of the Problem

Schools have succeeded and failed under the leadership of principals (Barker, 2001). As Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) state:

The literature is replete with examples of bright, powerful, well intentioned leaders who fail in their leadership initiatives because they simply did not understand what they needed to know, how to proceed with implementation, or when they needed to use various practices and strategies (p.13).

Such is the case of Mr. Wake, the Hillside School’s prior head teacher. Over the years, he continually hurt the school, its teachers, and students with his actions. Barker (2001) observed him, along with other educational leaders, to assess their impact upon the schools that they served. Mr. Wake was an intelligent individual, but his style of leadership created deep-seated problems, as will be explored later in the scenarios of leadership style impact section. Mr. Wake could have made a positive impact had he better understood the importance of his role at Hillside and how to better apply leadership practices to his school, as was the case with his successors.

Scope of the Project and Delimitations

This research narrows its focus to explore the various styles of leadership within education that are practiced by principals, administrators, and other educational leaders. It examines how the styles of leadership impact education, specifically the implications for school climate and teacher job satisfaction. The styles of leadership explored in this research include Affiliative, Authoritative, Autocratic, Coaching, Coercive, Democratic, Laissez-Faire,
Pacesetting, Transactional, and Transformational. Each style of leadership is defined, includes the demonstrated effect it typically has on schools and is placed onto the Paradigm of Educational Leadership. This figure has been crafted to visually show the correlation each style of leadership has within the three areas of vision, goals, and relationships (Figure 1).

Research from the business industry will be utilized, as there are strong correlations and implications for the betterment of educational leaders and their schools. While this study focuses on leadership styles and the effects they have upon schools, the scope of educational leadership is wider than the styles put into practice by those in positions of authority. Therefore, context and parameters of use will be considered, as the literature allows, to provide a more thorough understanding of the leadership styles. Comparisons will be drawn between the various leadership styles. Other characteristics of the principal, such as age and gender, will be explored to determine their effects on the styles of leadership if there are any within the literature. The importance of cultural understanding will be highlighted as leadership styles may have varying levels of effectiveness depending on the demographics of the school and surrounding community.

The research is narrowed to defining and demonstrating the practice of each leadership style. It does not delve into the history or formation of each leadership style. The focus is on the correlations between the leader’s actions and the effects they have upon the school.

**Significance of the Project**

Principals, regardless of having years of experience or being a novice, need to understand how their daily approach and actions impact those around them (Kelley, Thornton, & Daugherty, 2005). Many principals have the best of intentions and are remarkable individuals. However, being in a position of leadership at a school requires further scrutiny and evaluation. Is the
principal’s leadership having the desired effect on their school? Or are they having unintended, negative effects? A principal is responsible for supervising teaching staff, as well as crafting an environment that enables learning to thrive. As the research shows, principals are in a unique position to positively impact the school for the benefit of the students.

Educational leaders have dominant leadership styles that they tend to use based on their personalities and experiences. As a principal learns of the different styles of leadership, they will find familiarity with many, if not all, of them and be able to identify which styles they naturally use. When difficult and often stressful situations arise, they will typically resort back to these default leadership styles (Goleman, 2000). However, do these default styles of leadership produce the results needed to solve the problem? The research shows that the styles of leadership often have positive and negative consequences. Principals should consider whether their default leadership style is effective in every situation. Often, this is not the case. It is just a matter of whether the principal understands the consequences of their actions or are blind to them.

This research serves as a resource for principals to fight the natural instinct to fall back on their default leadership style. Principals need to pause before acting. After collecting feedback and data about the problem, they should then choose the best approach to solve it – the best style of leadership that will produce the results the school needs. Does the problem involve low morale among the teaching staff? Is there a problem teacher who is not willing to take directives? Are teachers struggling with determining their direction or prioritizing what they should focus on? Are goals and objectives being accomplished in a systematic fashion?

Each problem is unique and each school finds itself in unique circumstances. After learning the strengths and weaknesses of each style of leadership, principals can better strategize their approach. As the research shows, the best leaders are those who use multiple styles of
leadership “in a given week – seamlessly and in different measure – depending on the… situation” (Goleman, 2000, p.78).

**Methods of Procedure**

To conduct my research, I first began to search online for educational research articles and journals. I limited the scope to only include full text, scholarly peer-reviewed articles with references. I used the keywords “educational leadership,” “styles of leadership,” and “principal” in my searches. I skimmed each article to determine if they included specific styles of leadership and their impact upon the educational institution – specifically teacher job satisfaction and school climate. I included any type of educational institution, including post-secondary institutions such as colleges and universities, in order to determine if there were overarching similarities between the type of institution and the effects of educational leadership.

Next, I began reading them with scrutiny – highlighting and taking notes. I recorded any style of leadership that was specifically mentioned in a spreadsheet for the purpose of cross-referencing with the other articles and journals. This became a catalog of all of the styles of leadership and their influences upon the educational institutions. I also took note of other themes in the literature, such as the affects gender or diversity can have upon educational institutions.

After the initial reading of each article, I began to organize the major styles of leadership that appeared in the literature. I discovered that some styles of leadership had different titles but were the same in practice. I grouped these together under the same headings (i.e. the authoritative style and visionary style). This produced ten central leadership styles.

I then used my spreadsheet to narrow my research to each of the ten central leadership styles. I cross-checked each list of references for resources that were used by multiple authors, such as the works of Daniel Goleman, Bernard Bass, and others. Some of the resources used by
the researchers were non-educational and had a basis in business leadership or politics. However, the material had direct implications and correlations with educational research. I searched for these articles, books, and journals and conducted a similar process of research and collection of themes with each.

As I continued to revisit the literature, I began to find repeating themes regarding the framework of educational leadership. Ch, Ahmad, Malik, and Batool (2017), Korkmaz (2007), and others kept discussing the leader’s role in relation to three key areas: vision, goals, and relationships. I began to see that each leadership style had an emphasis in one of these three areas: the affiliative style emphasized relationship building, the authoritative style of vision casting, the autocratic style goal accomplishment, etc. Often the singular focus of the styles meant for weaknesses within the organization, especially if the educational leader only emulated the one style. Other leadership styles were a blend of two or three areas, such as the democratic and transformative leadership style. By utilizing a Venn Diagram with the three areas, I was able to visualize the relationship of the various leadership styles in correlation to one another.

Impact of Leadership on Schooling

Central Role of the Principal

In the context of a school environment, an educational leader is a key individual responsible for achieving school improvement. “Leadership focused on the development of teachers’ knowledge and skills, professional community and school climate could lead to improved student academic performance” (Shouppe & Patte, 2010, p. 94). Mitchell and Castle (2005) studied principals and found that effective ones “played a key role in the school, especially when teaching and learning were at stake. They sat at the hub of school activity, and
their offices were the centre [sic] of information, coordination, decision making, and problem solving for the school” (p. 413).

Principal of today have much in common with business professionals and leaders, since their responsibilities include many of the same tasks (Onorato, 2013). While many principals have extensive experience as classroom educators, this is not necessary for them to be successful in their role (Mitchell & Castle, 2005). Dove and Freely (2011) found that a proper understanding of “collaborative leadership” can be more effective than knowledge in “instructional improvement” (p. 26). Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) adds that principals often take additional responsibilities for the sake of the school, its teachers, and its students.

Teaching Culture

According to Ch, Ahmad, Malik, and Batool (2017), principals are responsible for ensuring that their teachers work towards accomplishing the goals of the schools. However, the role of a principal does not stop at evaluating and enforcing teacher compliance; principals also influence their teachers’ dedication to the school and the amount of energy they commit to bettering their students (Amedome, 2018). The leadership styles of principals “affect the attitude of teachers and students, their morale, interpersonal relationships, [and] achievement of school goals and objectives” (Amedome, 2018, p. 4).

Teacher burnout and job satisfaction have been popular topics as policymakers and the public try to determine why educators leave the profession. Korkmaz (2007) defines teacher job satisfaction as “a feeling of pleasure obtained by the evaluation of the job and the life in the job” (p. 24). The teacher’s perception of their job satisfaction influences their self-confidence, ability to be creative, and overall demeanor in the school. Teachers place the leadership styles of their
principal as a leading element in evaluating their level of job satisfaction (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, and Batool, 2017; Korkmaz, 2007; Karabağ Köse & Güçlü, 2017).

Learning Culture (Student Achievement)

Teacher job satisfaction is closely linked to a school’s climate (Korkmaz, 2007). Teachers in healthy organizations enjoy the school that they work in, the students under their care, their fellow educators, and their principal (Korkmaz, 2007). A principal’s leadership style not only impacts teacher job satisfaction, but also the school climate (Amedome, 2018; Karabağ Köse & Güçlü, 2017). Schools “need leaders who can create a fundamental transformation in the learning cultures of schools and of the teaching profession itself” (Fullan, 2002, p. 17).

School climate is “the collective personality of the school, the overall atmosphere of the school that one can sense almost immediately on entering the building” and is a “relatively enduring quality” that principals, teachers, and students experience (Pashiardis, 2000, p. 224). Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) described two types of school climates - the “introvert” and the “extravert” school. The introverted school is a closed environment. Teachers rarely meet in break rooms to collaborate and problem solve together. They remain in their classrooms during break times. The principal’s office is often closed and in a different part of the building than the classrooms. Communication is scarce and often tense.

On the contrary, extraverted schools have increased interactions between teachers (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). Information is freely shared and teachers are comfortable expressing their struggles with one another. The principal is approachable and leaves his door open, although he is often found throughout the school interacting with teachers, staff, and students. Teachers enjoy working in such an environment due to their ability to “express their feelings and thoughts” (Karabağ Köse and Güçlü, 2017, p. 130). Furthermore, in an extraverted
school, teachers are able to experience healthy relationships with each other and their superiors and be vocal participants in decision making (Korkmaz, 2007).

The interactions principals have with their teachers, staff, and students can encourage or discourage innovation (Dove & Freely, 2011). Strickland-Cohen, McIntosh, and Horner (2014) found in their research that principals played “a key role in creating a school culture in which staff members share common values and work together to achieve common goals” (p. 20). Kelley, Thornton, and Daugherty (2005) add that the teachers’ perceptions of their principal’s leadership style impacted their overall view of the school climate. Karabağ Köse and Güclü (2017) went further and stated that the “behaviors of administrators significantly determine the behaviors of employees” (p. 135). They emphasized the importance of principals creating a school climate where the sharing of ideas is encouraged and the environment is supportive.

Barker (2001) had similar discoveries as others when he conducted qualitative research of secondary school principals in the United Kingdom:

Motives, styles and the concept of organisational [sic] climate help us to understand how leaders influence their schools. Until [the local educational governing agency] began to train [principals] to examine and develop their leadership styles, too little attention had been paid to the paradox that while leaders need to be interested in power and influence, [certain styles of leadership] may reduce motivation and effectiveness. The idea of a climate that motivates or discourages teachers and children enables us to explain why [principals] are perceived to be important and how schools in unpromising circumstances are sometimes ‘turned round’ so quickly (p. 75).

In agreement, Shouppe and Patte (2010) found that “principal leadership may be the most important factor in sustainable education reform” (p. 94).
The Leadership Styles

The research described and supported ten major leadership styles practiced by principals, albeit many more leadership styles and variations exist. The styles of leadership are the primary methodologies that principals use to bring about change and address problems in their schools. The ten leadership styles are presented in alphabetical order. While this study focuses on leadership styles and the effects they have upon schools, the scope of leadership is wider than the styles put into practice by those in positions of authority, including followers and context (Avolio, 2007). Due to this, context and parameters of use will be considered as the literature allows providing a more thorough understanding of the leadership styles.

The Affiliative Leader

Goleman (2000) is the foremost expert behind many of the leadership styles, including the affiliative style (Bashir & Khalil, 2017; Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). His work has been foundational in informing business and educational leadership practices. Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) concluded that “although Goleman’s leadership style[s] emerged from research in private business companies, the conceptual tools provided” can be used “to define a school principal’s attitude towards the staff members, and his/her way of managing the school” (p. 316).

As such, Goleman defines the affiliative leader as “revolv[ing] around people - its proponents value individuals and their emotions more than tasks and goals” (Goleman, 2000, p. 84). This type of leader believes in people and spends much of their time developing relationships and building others up. Summarized succinctly, the affiliative leader believes that people come first (Goleman, 2000; Bashir & Khalil, 2017; Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). They are concerned with the harmony of the school building. Hadjithoma-Garstka’s (2011) observed a principal who embodied this leadership-style:
The open-door approach that the principal had established had an obvious impact on the behaviour of the people surrounding him. By being cheerful, for example joking with the teachers, or addressing them informally, as well as allowing for often interactions between him and the teachers, the principal kept the distance between authority-principal and staff-employees short, thus enabling communication and collaboration amongst the staff. An example that indicates the principal’s approach ‘people come first’ was when the principal allowed support staff members to leave the school during working hours in order to complete some bureaucratic paperwork. (p. 320)

This principal had built trust with his teachers and a sense of belonging. They could approach him about personal problems and he was quick to listen to them.

This leadership style is effective at improving morale. If a school is going through difficult times, a principal that emulates this style can show empathy and care to those who may be hurting or experiencing low levels of job satisfaction. Goleman (2000) found that the affiliative style makes it “a good all-weather approach, but leaders should employ it particularly when trying to build team harmony, … improve communication, or repair broken trust” (p. 84). By demonstrating such personal care, the affiliative leader can reap the benefits, “namely fierce loyalty” (Goleman, 2000, p. 84). As well, flexibility and creativity can flourish. This style can be particularly effective in urban communities (Henderson, 2015). Principals can have a significant impact on not only the school environment, but also the community. They can develop relationships over a “shared commitment by everyone invested in student success, whether they are immediate or extended family members, church leaders, or other community stakeholders” (Henderson, 2015, p. 47).
The affiliative leader is predominantly concerned with building relationships. While this can be effective to boost morale, the lack of goal orientation and futuristic vision can have negative longterm effects on the organization. The person icon is chosen to represent this “people first” approach.

However, the affiliative style can have negative effects on schools. “Its exclusive focus on praise can allow poor performance to go uncorrected, employees may perceive that mediocrity is tolerated” (Goleman, 2000, pg. 85). The principal can focus so much on the development of relationships that they neglect constructive feedback and avoid problems. Teachers may feel uncertain about how to improve due to a lack of feedback (Goleman, 2000).

**The Authoritative Leader**

The authoritative (sometimes termed visionary) leader, based on Bashir and Khalil’s (2017) research, “mobilizes [their] followers towards a joint vision” (p. 179). This type of leader demonstrates genuine enthusiasm about their vision that is contagious (Goleman, 2000). The
vision they present is clear to their followers and they allow flexibility in achieving and fulfilling it (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011; Goleman, 2000). Principals that exhibit this leadership style provide the framework that teachers are to work within but encourage creativity and buy-in to fulfill their main objectives. They can take “calculated risks” and experiment in order to find more effective ways to accomplish the goal (Goleman, 2000, p. 84). Teachers understand how their role and work fits into the school-wide vision (Goleman, 2000). Due to this, teachers know that their work is valuable and important. Principals use their vision as the source for their teachers’ performance evaluations. If the teachers are accomplishing and furthering the vision, then they are succeeding. Otherwise, the leader provides feedback for ways that the teachers need to improve.

Goleman (2000) found this leadership style to be one of the most effective at improving climate within organizations, especially when they are “adrift” and lacking identity and purpose (p. 84). Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) agreed that having a succinct vision can help in schools where the socio-economic level of the students, or other factors, can hinder student achievement. A clear vision can keep teachers “‘doing their best,’ and the school progressing” (p. 323). However, Goleman (2000) discovered that the authoritative style falls short when the principal is working with individuals who have more expertise. These teachers may view the principal as “pompous or out-of-touch” (Goleman, 2000, p. 84) when the vision is coming from someone with less experience. Another limitation can occur if the principal becomes overbearing. He can unknowingly restrict creativity and make it difficult to accomplish the vision.
The authoritative leader’s focus is on fulfilling their vision for the school. In this manner, they are found within the “vision” section of the Paradigm of Educational Leadership with leanings towards the “goals” area. While they are not antagonistic towards their staff, they base their evaluation of their staff on how effective the staff members are at accomplishing the vision, allowing for flexibility in their approach. The telescope icon represents this vision-focused style of leadership.

**The Autocratic Leader**

Autocratic (also known as authoritarian) leaders have “centralized power” and make decisions by themselves (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017, p. 47). They can be micro-managers who “believe it is essential to be involved with every aspect of the daily running of an educational institution” (Simplicio, 2011, p. 111). While autocratic principals may delegate responsibilities, they are prone to make sure that the tasks are being accomplished in the fashion
they prescribed (Simplicio, 2011). This leadership style can develop from a lack of trust (Dahri, 2015).

The autocratic principal has a negative impact on school climate (Amedome, 2018). Creativity is discouraged as teachers are required to take a little risk. Teachers can only accomplish tasks with the principal’s support. “Those under such a leader are often tired and frustrated at their inability to accomplish anything” (Simplicio, 2011, p. 112). When it comes to evaluating staff, the principal “depends on reward and punishment” rather than developing relationships with teachers (Dahri, 2015, p. 4). Teachers become unhappy working in such an environment and job satisfaction suffer (Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017). The only positive
quality of this leadership style is that “quality and efficiency” may increase but it also “results in frustration and suffocation among senior and committed employees” (Dahri, 2015, p. 4).

**The Coaching Leader**

The coaching leadership style focuses on developing people. “A leader with [the] coaching style identifies workers’ personal strengths and weaknesses, focusing on personal development” (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011, p. 316). Rather than focusing on tasks to be completed, this leader views people as the most valuable resource and worthy of their utmost focus (Goleman, 2000). Goleman (2000) views leaders that emulate this style “more like a counselor than a traditional boss” (p. 86). Their unique people-first focus to better their workers sets them apart from other supervisors. Agreeing with Goleman, Bashir and Khalil (2017) found that the coaching leader “creates a link between the wants of the followers and the organizational goals” (p. 179). They spend time outside of the workday to walk alongside their staff and mentor them.

Principals who embody this style of leadership “give plentiful instruction and feedback,... excel at delegating,... [and] give employees challenging assignments, even if it means the tasks won’t be accomplished quickly” (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). They allow their teachers to experience difficulty and failure if it means they will improve and grow through it. They have their eye on the horizon and can see the promise and potential within their teachers. They mold and create circumstances and opportunities to ensure their teachers are always growing. Dove and Freely (2011) observed a group of administrators that embodied this style while adopting a new learning technique. “The middle school’s administrators afforded their faculty the time to find their own personal meaning for the Model and the autonomy to make decisions in relation to the parts of the Model they implemented” (Dove & Freely, 2011, p. 29).
Goleman (2000) found this to be one of the least used leadership styles in the business world even though it is one of the most effective. It has a positive influence on an organization’s climate because it involves constant communication between the leader and his staff. In the case of a school, the teachers “know what is expected of them and how their work fits into a larger

**Figure 5. Coaching Leadership Style**

The coaching leader is one who focuses on the development of those under their care. They see the potential within their staff. While morale is lifted, this leader can overlook the importance of developing an overarching vision for the school and accomplishing goals. The whistle icon represents this style of leadership.

vision or strategy” which has a positive effect on “responsibility and clarity” (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). Commitment and loyalty also increase because the coaching leader spends time investing in his employees and providing feedback. Goleman did find a few situations where the coaching style is not effective. If, for whatever reason, the teachers are “resistant to learning or changing their ways” then the coaching style falls short (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). Additionally, if the leader
does not have a higher level of experience or expertise than the teacher they are mentoring, then this style will also fail. The coaching leadership style “works well when employees are already aware of their weaknesses and want to improve, but not when they are resistant to changing their ways” (Goleman, 2000, p. 87).

The Coercive Leader

Goleman (2000) viewed the coercive (also known as commanding) leader as one who “follows a top-down decision making” style and does not involve employees in the process (p. 82). They demand immediate and full compliance from their staff after giving a directive (Goleman, 2000; Bashir & Khalil, 2017; Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). This type of leader emphasizes their authority. Those who question their decisions may be reprimanded (Bashir & Khalil, 2017).

According to Goleman (2000), the coercive style “can be very effective in a turn-around situation, a natural disaster, or when working with problem employees” (p. 83). However, he conceded that this style has a more negative effect than positive in the long run, especially if used after the emergency has passed. Simplicio (2011) agreed, finding the coercive style to be “ineffective by any standard” (p. 113). His research on leadership in universities showed that staff would not confront poor decisions made by the leader due to their fear of being fired. They would rather remain quiet than face consequences for speaking up. In schools, teachers are hesitant to make decisions due to their fear of making a mistake (Simplicio, 2011). Creativity and problem solving come to a standstill since only the leader’s opinion matters.
The coercive leader is concerned with accomplishing goals, often at the expense of building relationships with his staff or developing a vision for the school. This leader is not always concerned with accomplishing goals in the best way possible, though. At times they desire compliance from their staff and get in the way of best practice or innovation. This places them on the border of the “goals” area of the Paradigm of Educational Leadership. A crown icon represents this style of leadership due to the “do what I tell you” mindset of the leader (Goleman, 2000, p. 82).

There are similarities between the autocratic leadership style and the coercive leadership style. Both involve centralized power and decision making. However, there are differences between the styles, such as the severity of leadership. Goleman (2000) observed one coercive leader who was known for “bullying and demeaning” his staff (p. 82). Another difference is their primary focus as a leader. Coercive leaders want a task accomplished their way, even if that is not the most successful technique. This is demonstrated by coercive leaders promoting staff
members due to their loyalty versus their job performance. This action undermines effective workmanship since the only qualities encouraged are compliance (Simplicio, 2011). Principals must understand that using this style of leadership will have a damaging impact on their school’s climate if used for a sustained period of time. Communication will dwindle and the school climate will suffer.

**The Democratic Leader**

Possibly one of the most well-known leadership styles, the democratic leader “forges consensus through participation” (Goleman, 2000, p. 83). The leader encourages participation in decision making - either formally through requests for feedback or informally whenever their followers want to engage (Bashir & Khalil, 2017; Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017). Amedome (2018) observed that principals who emulate this leadership style “call a meeting to get teachers’ ideas or advice when things go wrong [and create] an environment that allows teachers to participate in decision-making as well as allow teachers to set priorities with his or her guidance” (p. 12). Additionally, the democratic leader takes the advice or criticism from others objectively (Dahri, 2015). Not only do principals take feedback from their teachers and staff, but Dove and Freely (2011) reported that they seek involvement from other groups - such as students, parents, and community members. By encouraging all to participate, the democratic leader “allows for new grass root ideas to filter to the top and encourages change for the betterment” of the educational institution (Simplicio, 2011, p. 111).

There are a number of reasons why a principal should consider using a democratic leadership style. Dove and Freely (2011) observed that schools were more successful at initiating change when the movement began within the organization and not from an outside source. This collaboration between the principals and teachers led to incremental growth towards best
practices. Goleman (2000) found that principals could “build organizational flexibility and responsibility and help generate fresh ideas” when they allowed teachers to have a say in the decision making progress (p. 77). He adds that this style is especially helpful when the principal is uncertain of the best course of action.

*Figure 7. Democratic Leadership Style*

The democratic leader is located centrally on the Paradigm of Educational Leadership. They build relationships with their staff and involve them in the decision making process for creating and accomplishing goals, along with developing the school’s vision. The speech bubble icon represents this leadership style.

Typically, this leadership style has positive effects on school climate and teacher job satisfaction (Amedome, 2018; Ch, Ahmad, Malik, & Batool, 2017). In Dove and Freely’s (2011) research, “middle-school administrators and some teachers reported an improvement in staff morale that was due to teachers having a stronger voice in school decision-making. Administrators, in particular, alluded to the school becoming more collaborative in its overall
practice” (p. 30). Similarly, Simplicio (2011) shared that teachers who work for democratic principals were excited and willing to take on additional tasks and responsibilities. This was due to their increased trust and respect for their principal. They appreciated how they were involved in creating the vision of the school and had a “sense of ownership and pride as a result” (p. 111).

The democratic leadership style is not a one-size-fits-all approach. Goleman (2000) pointed out that the democratic leadership style falls short if the teachers are either inexperienced or lack enough knowledge to make an informed decision. Additionally, if a democratic leader leans too heavily upon this style, the consequence can be an endless discussion with no course of action. Teachers can become confused and the work unaccomplished. Simplicio (2011) agreed and found that principals could lose their position of authority and sacrifice their ability to make decisions.

The Laissez-faire Leader

The Laissez-faire leader prefers to not interfere with the day to day tasks of their employees but rather focus on the big picture of the organization (Simplicio, 2011). They believe that the “teachers can lead themselves” and therefore they “allow teachers to determine their own organizational objectives” and their ability to carry out decisions to accomplish their job (Amedome, 2018, p. 13). Teachers have the autonomy, which “can be effective with most mature committed and interested staff” (Dahri, 2015, p. 4). This hands-off approach can be linked to a principal lacking confidence in their ability to lead (Dahri, 2015).

The laissez-faire principal can be effective since they allow their teachers to “show personal involvement” (Dahri, 2015, p. 4). Simplicio (2011) found it especially effective if the teachers have experience in their fields since it frees them to make decisions that impact their
The laissez-faire leader is removed from the day to day life of a school. They focus predominantly on the big picture – the school’s vision. They do not seek to develop relationships with their staff and leave them alone to accomplish the goals of the organization. The hands-off icon represents this style of leadership.

classrooms without the interference of others. However, the negatives outweigh the benefits in the long run. Principals can lose touch with the teachers and how they are conducting their classrooms. They are unable to provide useful feedback to help the teachers improve. As well, a leadership vacuum is created since the principal has forfeited their authority. Teacher leaders may rise in this void, damaging the school culture by creating conflicting visions. Dahri (2015) found that the greatest detractors to this style are that the productivity lessens and the teachers become inefficient. Without leadership and input from principals, the school becomes unorganized.
The Pacesetting Leader

The pacesetting leader sets high expectations for the organization that they embody (Goleman, 2000; Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). They only ask of others what they are willing to do themselves. These leaders are great “exemplifiers of the tasks they are dealing with” (Bashir & Khalil, 2017, p. 179). These leaders are insatiable - always searching for better and faster ways to accomplish their objectives (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011). They ask the same of their workers. If the constant pursuit of excellence is not found within their employees, then they may replace them with individuals who can meet the challenges of the position.

*Figure 9. Pacesetting Leadership Style*

The pacesetting leader is a living example of what they wish for their staff – to be hard workers who are always looking for the best and fastest way to accomplish goals. They disregard vision casting. While they lean towards the “relationships” area of the Paradigm of Educational Leadership by embodying the traits they desire in their staff, they are not truly focused with building relationships. The jogger icon represents this style.
Goleman (2000) believed that this style of leadership should be used “sparingly” (p. 86). While the approach works well when all teachers are “self-motivated, highly competent, and need little direction or coordination,” there are consequences when these parameters are not met (p. 86). As Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) found, some teachers appeared to follow the detailed directives of their pacesetting principal, but in the process grew frustrated. These teachers felt “overwhelmed by such a leader’s demands for excellence - and to resent his tendency to take over a situation” (Goleman, 2000, p. 77). This causes the school climate to suffer. The teachers’ work ethic becomes less about doing their best for the students and more about figuring out what the principal wants since that is the only way they receive praise. They quickly come to understand that their ability to take initiative and creatively solve problems is not appreciated or wanted.

**The Transactional Leader**

Bass (1985) viewed transactional leaders as those who use a system of checks and balances in order to determine what their employees want in exchange for their services rendered. Hameiri, Nir, and Inbar (2014) saw this as a system of constant “cost and benefit” (p. 52). They “concentrate on the continuity of effective performance or achieving it” (Korkmaz, 2007, p. 30). The transactional leader believes they can garner obedience through their system of rewards and punishment (Karabağ Köse & Güçlü, 2017). “Followers are motivated by the leaders’ promises, praise, and rewards, or they are corrected by negative feedback, reproof, threats, or disciplinary actions” (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, p. 184).
The transactional leader builds relationships with their staff but only for the purpose of accomplishing their goals. This constant weighing of cost and benefits can undermine their ability to build up others genuinely. Negatively, their followers become focused on completing goals to the point of neglecting any vision the leader may have. The scale icon represents this style.

The transactional leadership style creates a negative school climate that is introverted (Amedome, 2018; Karabağ Köse and Güçlü, 2017; Korkmaz, 2007). Teachers that work for transactional principals are prone to focus on avoiding mistakes in order to prevent consequences (Korkmaz, 2007). This “survivor” mentality hurts communication and relationships between staff members. As well, the teachers abandon the vision of the school due to their preoccupation with the here and now.
The Transformational Leader

Transformational leaders “have a clear vision of where their organization should be going and can express that vision to others and motivate them to embrace it as well. Their zeal for the vision inspires others within and without the organization” (Williams & Johnson, 2013, p. 350). Unlike transactional leaders, “transformational leaders focus on the future and concentrate on visions of energy-stimulating nature” (Korkmaz, 2007, p. 30). Often the vision is not easy and goes against conventional wisdom (Bass, 1985). Due to their persuasiveness, charisma, authenticity, confidence, and strength of character, their employees adopt the vision as their own.

Beyond the ability to express their vision, the transformational leader is able to spur their employees on to accomplish more than the employees thought possible (Onorato, 2013; Simplicio, 2011). These leaders don’t “order or direct; they inspire” (Goleman, 1998, p. 196). They understand people and they know how valuable inspiration is in the workplace (Simplicio, 2011).

In addition, the transformational leader is empathetic and considerate towards their employees (Bass, 1985). They treat the members of their team with the same amount of care and respect. As well, their care is individualized. They know each of their workers’ strengths and weaknesses, “needs and capabilities” (p. 82). They provide a personalized approach to praising and providing feedback knowing that a one-size-fits-all approach is ineffective.

The transformational principal has a positive impact on school climate (Amedome, 2018; Karabağ Köse & Güçlü, 2017; Twigg, 2008). The teachers are loyal to their transformational principal. As Simplicio (2011) shared, “people just genuinely enjoy working for such an individual and are willing to work harder for them” (p. 114). Student learning improves because the teachers understand the problems the school is facing. The transformational principal
The transformational leader’s focus is more central than most of the other leadership styles. While the “vision” area of the Paradigm of Educational Leadership is their focus, they also show individualized care to their staff and build genuine relationships. Even if their vision is daunting, their staff believe in it and begin to accomplish goals they would have thought impossible before. The flag icon represents this style due to their team’s winning spirit.

“inspires their followers to transcend their own interests for superordinate goals, for goals higher in level than those previously recognized by the followers” (Bass, 1985, p. 30). This style of leadership is especially effective in times of uncertainty and turbulence (Hameiri, Nir, & Inbar, 2014). Teachers may have come to the point of wanting to leave their jobs due to frustration and lack of purpose. Under this type of leader, however, they experience a “high level of job satisfaction” and “will work more enthusiastically and be more helpful to their students” (Korkmaz, 2007, p. 46).
Scenarios of Leadership Style Impact

The following are specific accounts of each style in practice, sometimes referencing examples from the business world or politics. Researchers have observed them and recorded the effects they had upon teacher job satisfaction and school culture. Barker’s (2001) research focused on a number of principals and show the unique impact they had upon their schools. As he stated, “these examples confirm that a [principal’s] prime role is to lead and motivate others and demonstrate that leadership styles adopted during the processes of decision making and change are pervasive and have a marked influence on organisational [sic] climate” (p. 75).

Note that the alphabetical order of the leadership styles will not be used in this section. The specific account of Hillside School’s leadership is best told in the sequence of leaders that were observed at the school to show the grander story of how a school on the brink of disaster was turned around by key leaders (Barker, 2001).

The Affiliative Leader

Barker (2001) observed Mr. Southern, a principal in the United Kingdom, who embodied the affiliative leadership style. Mr. Southern was described as having a “personal charm” and his “good nature permeated the school” (p. 71). He would often be found in the common areas of the school talking and joking with the teachers and students. He “paid careful attention to individual needs, relaxing rules to make life easier for his hard pressed colleagues” (p. 71). Mr. Southern worked hard to create a positive climate, one in which “warm, friendly relationships and teamwork” were emphasized (p. 71).

However, the school was not performing well. The local educational governing agency had provided criticism to Mr. Southern and required improvement. In spite of this, his staff reported that he felt that the school was “doing a good job in difficult circumstances” (p. 71).
Regretfully, his sentiments were without corroborating evidence. He kept the same course and did not change his leadership style. As is typical with affiliative leaders, he failed to “challenge poor performance and often failed to follow through on agreed strategies for improvement” (p. 71). Instead of addressing weaknesses in his staff by providing feedback, he chose to continue supporting them without helping them grow professionally. This applied even in severe cases where disciplinary procedures should have been followed. Similarly, Mr. Southern chose to not address behavioral problems in the student body but instead “expressed sympathy with their disturbed family lives” (p. 71). His continued focus on “social rather than academic values and goals” was met with frustration from his teaching staff (p. 71).

Mr. Southern’s leadership style did not change for years. His resistance to grow resulted in his teachers and students lacking the motivation and ability to improve (Barker, 2001). His focus on developing “close interpersonal relationships” at the expense of academic priorities led to his teaching staff being directionless. As Barker pointed out:

A strong people orientation may cause a leader to attend to individuals and their needs when the priority should be to apply rules without exception. A leader who wants to be liked can be easily swayed. Unless a manager is primarily concerned to use power to influence events, the [school] climate is likely to be low in terms of direction, objectives and quality. (p. 73)

The Authoritative Leader

One school in the United Kingdom began to implement a new type of computer technology. The school served a community where the “majority of the student population came from low socio-economic class, many from refugee… parents, and many parents worked as
farmers and craft technicians” (Hadjithoma-Garstka, 2011, p. 321-322). In light of the diverse needs of the student body, it was difficult for the staff to implement the new technology.

While the principal reported that he had “limited computer skills,” he desired for the school to become a “centre [sic] for teaching computers” (p. 322). The principal had the vision to integrate the technology throughout the school, so he allocated resources and renovated space to create a new computer lab. He organized conferences that helped the teachers learn the new software. He sought help from others around him that were more knowledgeable with the technology. He organized a team of staff members that helped realize his vision.

He assigned tasks to his staff, but did so “in a friendly way, without imposing and although he acknowledged the difficulties that the school faced he did not stop inspiring the teachers towards the vision” (p. 322). When they experienced success, he was observed praising them. Even in the face of difficult circumstances, his teachers were inspired to share his vision for their school. “Having a visionary within the school gave [the] teachers an example and set expectations and goals for the future, even though other factors were prohibitive” (p. 322).

**The Autocratic Leader**

A questionnaire was completed by twenty staff members at Longhurst Community College regarding their principal, Mr. Anderson, and the school culture under his leadership. This compiled feedback “strongly suggests a hierarchical, autocratic, non-consultative style which creates a significant degree of teacher dissatisfaction” (Barker, 2001, p. 71). Several staff members shared that he blocked staff-lead endeavors and initiatives. Mr. Anderson also discouraged staff involvement in the decision-making process and kept them from being a part of the conversation.
Mrs. Wyatt, a principal at Westfield School, had a similar style as Mr. Anderson. An administrator at the school shared with Barker (2001) that “she encouraged a ‘culture of blame’ without tackling the people or issues that undermined the school’s effectiveness” (p. 71). Barker conducted more research and interviews and found more examples of Mrs. Wyatt’s autocratic leadership:

When a new deputy head appeared to lack the administrative expertise to complete official Department for Education and Employment returns, Mrs[.] Wyatt relieved him of the responsibility and did the job herself. Mistakes were made in presenting budget figures for the governors’ annual report, so she typed a revised version herself. Staff felt the head was not interested in teachers or children. ‘She’s locked in that office and never comes out to see what’s happening’ they reported. Even members of senior management were fearful about taking initiatives. Mrs[.] Wyatt talked endlessly at meetings without achieving agreement about necessary decisions. The senior management team was divided into rival camps and individual members expressed their lack of confidence in one another (p. 71).

The Coaching Leader

Educational leaders can learn from their business counterparts, as is the case with this scenario of the coaching leader (Onorato, 2013). Goleman (2000) wrote about Lawrence, the president of the manufacturing division of a global computer company. One product unit of the company was experiencing plummeting sales, so he decided to close it and “reassign its people and products” (p. 86). The head of this unit, James, took the closing personally and decided to “go over [Lawrence’s] head and plead his case to the CEO” (p. 86). Lawrence had every right to
be upset with James’ actions. James was disregarding the chain of command and bringing his concerns straight to the head of the company.

However, Lawrence was a coaching leader and decided that the best approach was to treat James less like a “traditional boss” would and more like a counselor (p. 86):

Instead of blowing up at James, he sat down with his rebellious direct report and talked over not just the decision to close the division but also James’s future. He explained to James how moving to another division would help him develop new skills. It would make him a better leader and teach him more about the company’s business (p. 86).

Lawrence took the time to listen to James and hear his “concerns and hopes” (p. 86). This allowed him the opportunity to show that he cared for James. He provided James with his perspective – “James had grown stale in his current job; it was, after all, the only place he’d worked in the company” (p. 86). He felt that by reassigning James to lead another unit, he would grow professionally and thrive in his new role.

Regarding James’ meeting with the CEO, Lawrence made sure he was prepared. He gave him suggestions to make the most of his time since “you don’t get an audience with the CEO very often” (p. 86). He advised James to put his thoughts onto paper, take out his personal case and focus on the data behind why his unit should not be closed.

When Goleman (2000) asked Lawrence why he acted the way he did, he responded that: James is a good guy, very talented and promising… and I don’t want this to derail his career. I want him to stay with the company, I want him to work out, I want him to learn, I want him to benefit and grow. Just because he screwed up doesn’t mean he’s terrible (p. 87).
The Pacesetting Leader

Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) observed a principal that used the pacesetting leadership style in a school located in an urban area in the United Kingdom. The principal was preparing for a schoolwide evaluation by their governing agency. The principal “appear[ed] to be giving directions to teachers and students, in an attempt to maintain a good image of the school for the evaluation” (p. 320). The principal was focusing on particular aspects of the student body, such as discipline, school uniforms, and tardiness to school.

In order to address these issues, the principal held schoolwide assemblies where she addressed the student body. She publicly acknowledged and awarded the classroom that was the cleanest. Negatively, the principal admonished a student in front of the school body for arriving late to the assembly and required him to sit in the front.

Outside of the assemblies, she “ensured that [the] teachers distributed a ‘behavior handbook’ to their students” (p. 320). She assigned tasks to the teachers, although some of them became frustrated when “specific instructions… were repeated” (p. 321). While this sense of frustration could have grown among the teachers, the principal also exemplified characteristics of the affiliative style. She was observed spending time in the staff room and developing relationships with her teachers. She had professional and social conversations with her staff.

The Transactional Leader

Bass (1985) wrote of a well-known political leader who was “extremely transactional” – Lyndon Johnson (p. 27). While many of Lyndon’s efforts, such as the “Great Society,” resulted in transformational effects upon the nation, he often resorted to transactional measures to accomplish his goals.
In his own quest for power, Lyndon Johnson was always engaged in exchange relationships. He toadied up to the older men and women of power and wealth to extract whatever favors he could eventually seek from them. He could convincingly appear as reactionary with reactionaries and radical with radicals since he had no principles of his own other than his own need “to be a somebody.” His subordinates were expected to trade the dedication of their lives in his services (with complete obedience) in exchange for his “taking care of them” by giving them modest patronage positions. He couldn’t have cared less about the substance of political processes; only the processes themselves, and the impact on his fame and power mattered to him” (p. 27).

**The Coercive Leader**

For the remainder of the leadership styles, only one school will be explored to show the long-term effect its leaders had upon it. Mr. Wake, the Hillside School’s headteacher, emulated the coercive leadership style to the detriment of his school. A teacher that had worked with Mr. Wake for a number of years recalled a time, in the 1980s, when there was a union dispute at the school. Mr. Wake “took everything personally, the industrial action he saw as against him” (Barker, 2001, p. 70). The subsequent hurt and insecurity resulted in him being dismissive and cruel to those he worked with. While he could be kind to those going through difficult circumstances, he was typically “terse and abrupt in his daily conduct” and tended to ignore individuals, even when greeted (p. 71). Due to this, the students and parents of Hillside did not like him and “found him very rude” (p. 70).

If a teacher made the mistake of asking a question or causing a problem during a staff meeting, Mr. Wake would humiliate the teacher in front of the others. Innovation and creativity were seen as “worthless” and often dismissed (p. 70). He “expressed contempt for other head
teachers and refused to attend their meetings” (p. 70). He discouraged the teachers from attending in-services and meetings at other schools to grow professionally. In addition to professional trainings, he squashed “clubs, visits and trips because they disrupted the daily organisation [sic], especially at lunchtime” (p. 70). It is unfortunate that Mr. Wake allowed past circumstances to taint his ability to lead the school, promote professional growth, and encourage academic success.

The Laissez-faire Leader

Mr. Wake, the head teacher described in the coercive leadership scenario, also used the laissez-faire leadership style. Unlike wholly coercive leaders, Barker (2001) described Mr. Wake as an individual that “believed in delegation” (p. 70). He did not interfere much in the day-to-day operations of the school but instead had other administrators and department heads worry about that. He would only get involved if a problem arose. A secretary at the school remarked that one of the administrators “almost ran the school” (p. 70). Mr. Wake gave little to no direction to his teachers and expected them to do their jobs.

The Transformational Leader

After the resignation of Mr. Wake, the leader who used the coercive and laissez-faire leadership styles, Hillside School welcomed an interim principal from a nearby town named Mr. Hogg. Mr. Hogg was able to “transform the organisational [sic] climate” of the school in a very short period of time (Barker, 2001, p. 73). He had a positive outlook on life, a welcome change from Mr. Wake, and had a “self-confident approach” (p. 73).

His first “aim was to convince [the] students, staff and parents that the school had changed and had a future” (p. 73). He saw the potential within the school and needed others to share his vision. Along with the help of core staff members, he used funds that the school had
saved to renovate the building, including constructing a new entrance, purchasing new computers, and ensuring all students had new lockers. He also promoted 20 teachers and made them in charge of various areas of the school’s action plan for improvement. He began holding meetings on a regular basis to meet with the teachers and involve them in the decision-making process.

The teachers took notice of these changes. One of the administrators of the school commented that “staff morale rose because he made people feel valued” (p. 73). As well, the students noticed the stark contrast in leadership. They appreciated Mr. Hogg’s enthusiasm and began to take pride in their school.

Communication was essential throughout the process. “Mr[.] Hogg communicated intensively with staff and students through morning briefings and assemblies” (p. 73). It took intentionality and care to bring about this radical change – all within a period of ten weeks.

While Mr. Hogg was widely known for his enthusiasm, he was also tough on areas where the school was lacking. A secretary at the school shared that “people who he felt were not capable of doing the job were pushed aside” (p. 73). Even with this, school moral did not lessen. It was Mr. Hogg’s contagious focus on his vision that brought hope to a school that had been missing it for a long time.

The Democratic Leader

After Mr. Hogg’s temporary placement, Mr. Moore was hired at Hillside School. His plan was to “consolidate Mr[.] Hogg’s changes and to focus on methodology and making sure what is agreed happens. I need to work a lot with the staff” (Barker, 2001, p. 73). He began working on changing the culture from one of blaming the teachers for the school’s performance
to being a place where the teachers collaborate and support one another. This was accomplished in the following manner:

Teachers were involved in an intensive series of meetings to develop guidelines for schemes of work, lesson planning and teaching. Working groups were given authority to redesign many of the school’s basic procedures, including the curriculum, the behaviour [sic] code and the policy for spiritual, moral, social and cultural education. Mr[.] Moore delegated tasks to senior and middle managers and regularly checked progress (p. 73).

Whenever a task was completed by a staff member, Mr. Moore was quick to write a “note of appreciation” and thank the individual(s) in person, too (p. 73).

He worked hard to ensure collaboration was an integral part of the school’s culture. He had an open-door policy and encouraged teachers, along with students, to stop by and talk with him. He assigned administrators and head teachers to be in charge of groups of staff. Mr. Moore met with his two main administrators each morning and evening to plan. They were “encouraged to take initiatives of their own without checking back with” him (p. 74).

While Mr. Moore was not as lively as Mr. Hoggs, he soon became respected by the student body. The students saw him “as a firm [principal] who is consistent. He is seen to be fair” (p. 73). As well, the teachers appreciated him and his approach to leadership. While they worked hard and met often, he had a balanced approach to ensure the seemingly overwhelming task of reviving Hillside was not too daunting. With the help of his team, he altered the calendar to allow “sufficient time for the necessary meetings” (p. 74). Any workshops or in-services were “followed by social events, calculated to enhance group identity and feelings of price and self-esteem” (p. 74). His teachers grew to love the spirit of celebration that he encouraged as they accomplished each milestone.
The Pacesetting Leader Revisited

Mr. Moore used the pacesetting leadership style in tandem with the democratic style. As Goleman (2000) found, this style, by itself, can be damaging to the staff since the leader’s singular focus on excellence can lead him to take over situations and not involve the staff’s feedback in the decision-making process. However, this was not true of Mr. Moore. He encouraged creativity and ownership from his staff to solve problems, but always with excellence on his mind. His staff was always “aware of an urgent, driving agenda and close scrutiny of outcomes” (Barker, 2001, p. 74). One person commented that “he creates so much work and expects so much of people” (p. 74). Additionally, when the governing agency evaluated Mr. Moore, they found that he “has been resolute in his endeavour [sic] to improve teaching. Support in order to address weaknesses in teaching, and staff changes, have proved beneficial for continual overall improvement” (p. 74).

When Mr. Moore used the democratic leadership style, he demonstrated how much he appreciated his staff and their involvement in the school. This aspect of his leadership ensured that his focus on excellence did not alienate the staff, but instead built trust. An office staff member shared, “I think all the other teachers realise [sic] that the ones who are being squeezed out are weak anyway and we do need some new young blood” (p. 74). They trusted him to know that when he had a difficult decision to make, such as letting a teacher go, it was for the betterment of the school.

Discussion and Implications

Interpretation of the Literature

Principals may inquire as to which style of leadership is the best to promote a healthy school climate and increase teacher job satisfaction. Dahri (2015) and Goleman (2000) found
that the best approach was not a single style, but a combination. “Instead of choosing the one style that suits their temperament, [the leader] should ask which style best addresses the demands of a particular situation” (Goleman, 2000, p. 77). “A specific style of leadership that is effective in one school may not be equally effective in a different school. Leaders must adapt to the needs and demands of a given situation at the present time and must possess the ability to understand group dynamics” (Shouppe & Patte, 2010, p. 89).

**Relation of the Literature to School Culture**

While some of the leadership styles are not beneficial on their own towards building a healthy school climate, many of them, when practiced together, offset their counterparts’ downfalls for the benefit of the organization (Figure 11). Goleman (2000) uses the analogy of a golfer - they choose the club that is most appropriate to help them make the shot. According to him, “the more styles a leader exhibits, the better” (p. 77). Often, principals pick the style of leadership that is most natural to their personality. Rather, they should “switch flexibly among the leadership styles as needed” (p. 87). “The role of school leaders is largely dictated by circumstances and the specific situations facing a school at a given time” (Shouppe & Patte, 2010, p. 89). By discerning the situation, they can evaluate the proper response to ensure success.

In his research, Barker (2001) came to the same conclusion as Goleman and others. He found that:

Despite the complications of social context, internal politics and external pressure, strong heads seem to adopt similar, well-balanced leadership styles and strategies that correlate with well-motivated students and staff. In contrast, poor performers operate a limited range of styles and strategies and elicit a negative response from their colleagues (p. 65).
This compiled view shows the overlay of figures 2 through 11. It is easy to see why the styles of leadership are best used together, dependent on the school’s circumstances. Various situations warrant certain emphases of the three areas of the Paradigm of Educational Leadership, whether they be a compilation of the three, such as the transformational style, or a singular approach, such as the affiliative style.
If the thought is too daunting to master all of the leadership styles, another technique is to build a team that compliments the principal (Goleman, 2000). By finding individuals to partner with them and embody qualities the principal lacks, the school as a whole will be strengthened. For example, if a principal tends to lean towards the autocratic leadership style, it would be beneficial for him to have another colleague, such as another administrator or a teacher leader, that embodies the democratic leadership style. This creates a balance – instead of discouraging teachers’ involvement in decision making, the democratic leader can help foster an environment where they feel appreciated and encouraged to participate.

**Biblical Integrative Component and Implications**

While there are many examples of great leaders in the Bible, Christ is the central figure of Scripture and best example of a leader, albeit He is much more than that (Eph. 5:23; Col. 1:15-20). The central question then, in light of the research presented, is how does the Paradigm of Educational Leadership relate to His leadership? Does Christ lead within the three areas of vision, goals, and relationships?

First, consider Christ as a vision caster. Throughout the Gospels, He reveals to His followers what the Kingdom of Heaven is like. Even though they cannot currently see this Kingdom, He uses parables and examples to show them, also providing a further explanation when they do not understand. In Matthew 13:11 (English Standard Version), He says to His disciples: “To you it has been given to know the secrets of the Kingdom of Heaven.” He then goes on to explain that the Kingdom is like the good seed sowed in a field (Matt. 13:24-30), a mustard seed (Matt. 13:31-32), leaven in bread (Matt. 13:33), a treasure hidden in a field (Matt. 13:44), one pearl of great value (Matt. 13:45), and a net full of fish that is sorted into good and bad piles (Matt. 13:47-50). Each of these parables showed more dimensions of what the
Kingdom is like – such as that only the righteous enter into it and that the Kingdom of Heaven is worth more than the disciples could imagine.

During the Sermon on the Mount, Christ further casts vision by toppling common religious understanding and practices with true Biblical wisdom and understanding. Over the ages, many religious leaders, such as the Pharisees, had added to the Law, emphasized certain areas and demoted others, or misinterpreted it. In Matthew 5, Christ teaches with the well-known phrase “you have heard that it was said… But I say to you…” He points the people to a deeper understanding of what it means to be God’s people. Instead of focusing on the outward appearance, He directs them to examine their hearts. Adultery is more than a physical act – it begins in the heart when lust occurs. Murder is more than a physical act – it begins with a heart of anger towards another. Both the outward actions and the inward thoughts and desires of the heart are important to God. They are both indicators of righteousness or wickedness.

In Christ’s calling for the disciples to follow Him, He shares a vision of what their lives could be. In Matthew 4:19, He says to Peter and Andrew, “Follow me, and I will make you fishers of men.” In this one sentence, He reveals three items to the disciples. He offers an invitation to follow Him. Peter and Andrew, both fishermen, would not have been considered for the position of a disciple of a religious teacher in their day, so this was a special invitation to be seriously considered. He promised them that He would work in their lives to change them by saying “I will make you…” Finally, He gave them their new life purpose. No longer would they be fishing in a boat and casting their nets. They would be “fishers of men.”

Second, Christ demonstrates that He is committed to accomplishing His goals. In John 2:1-11, we read the account of Christ’s first miracle. During a wedding feast that Christ and His disciples are attending, the hosts run out of wine. Christ’s mother asks Him to intervene. He
responds to her by saying, “Woman, what does this have to do with me? My hour is not yet come” (John 2:4). Apparently, Christ had not conducted any miraculous acts to date as His time had not yet come to reveal who He was and why He came. He then performed His miracle in secret – only His disciples and the servants witnessed the water being turned to wine. Christ did not want to rush His Father’s plans for His life.

In Matthew 16:21, it states that “Jesus began to show His disciples that He must go to Jerusalem and suffer many things from the elders and chief priests and scribes, to be killed, and on the third day be raised.” This is a turning point in the narrative of Matthew. From this point forward, Christ’s teaching and direction are pointed towards His ultimate purpose – to suffer and die for the sake of mankind (1 John 4:10, Gal. 3:13, Rom. 5:10, 1 Peter 3:18, John 3:16). Other passages, such as Matthew 20:17 and 21:1, show His singular focus on accomplishing His purpose by repeating that He was heading towards Jerusalem. Even as Christ contemplated the pain and wrath He was about to go through, He prayed to His Father, “if this cannot pass unless I drink it, your will be done” (Matt. 26:42).

Third, Jesus demonstrated throughout His ministry that He was focused on developing relationships with those around Him – specifically His disciples. As is the case in the prior example, as Christ is working His way to Jerusalem and the cross, He taught and prepared His disciples for what was to come (Matt. 20:18-19). He was not so focused on His vision and goal that He forgot to build up His disciples and help them understand what was going to happen.

Before the commissioning of His disciples in Matthew 10, Christ encouraged them and provided insight into what they would encounter. Following Him would not be easy and they would face hardships (10:5-25). However, He told them to “not fear those who kill the body but
cannot kill the soul” (10:28). The disciples were to have confidence in Christ and God, because God would righteously judge anyone who harmed them.

As was previously mentioned, Christ often taught in parables in front of the crowds. When He finished His teaching, He then took the time to answer His disciples’ questions and unveiled the hidden truths within what He shared (Matt. 13). He did not belittle His disciples for not understanding. Instead, He was patient with them.

These examples are only a few that point to Christ as a leader within the Paradigm of Educational Leadership. He was a visionary, He had goals that He accomplished, and He built up His disciples and demonstrated His commitment to their relationship of leader and followers. More situations in Scripture can point to Christ as embodying the specific styles of leadership. Christ exemplified the coercive leadership style when He interacted with the hypocritical Jewish leaders and demonstrated His authority regarding the Word of God and His position as the Christ (Matt. 22:15-23:36). He was a transformative leader when He shared the great commission with His disciples in Matthew 28:16-20. While the vision and mission were seemingly beyond their capability, He promised to be with them “to the end of the age” (28:20). He was also a coaching leader, taking the time He developed His disciples and prepared them for their future ministry, such as the time they were unable to cast the demon from the son without fasting and praying (Mark 9:29). Christ used the style of leadership that was appropriate for the specific situation and circumstances.

**Determining a Principal’s Leadership Style**

It is important for principals to consider how they ascertain what their leadership styles are. Barker (2001) observed several ineffective principals that “seemed unable to [analyze] their impact or to change their natural instincts in dealing with people. They were unable to respond
positively to criticism or adopt new strategies” (p. 72). Kelley, Thornton, and Daugherty (2005) equally discovered through their research that the principal’s perceptions of their leadership styles did not align with the teachers’ perceptions. This discrepancy between the two perceptions is important. “It could be argued that some of the principals do not ‘walk the talk’ - they behave differently than they self-reported” (Kelly, Thornton & Daughtery, 2005, p. 23). A principal may very well believe that she embodies the democratic leadership style, but in practice, she does not seek the involvement of others in decision making. It is vital for principals to use neutral parties or anonymous survey tools to collect information on their leadership style(s), otherwise, the effort taken to collect the feedback is moot.

**Planning for Succession**

As principals evaluate their leadership, they should be concerned about leaving a legacy at their schools. Whether for retirement or other reasons, they should desire for their leadership and efforts to last beyond their years of service. As Fullan (2002, March) shared, “ultimately your leadership in a culture of sustained change will be judged as effective not by who you are as a leader but by what leadership you leave behind” (p. 12). One effective strategy to ensure this is to build up a “critical mass of school personnel [who have] the skills to continue or even advance the practices after the administrator leaves” (Strickland-Cohen, McIntosh, & Horner, 2014, p. 21). Dove and Freely (2011) echoed this when they found that teachers became frustrated with priorities and programs changing with each new principal. “Organizations at all levels must set their sights on continuous improvement, and for that they must nurture, cultivate, and appoint successive leaders who are moving in a sustained direction” (Fullan, 2002, March, p. 12). If a core team of teacher leaders can be created, then the vision and long-term plans have a better
chance of out-living the principal’s tenure. This core team can be a part of the interview process and partner with incoming principals to align existing programs and ensure a seamless transition.

**Closing Thoughts**

When considering educational leadership and its implications for principals influencing school climate and teacher job satisfaction, Simplicio (2011) summarized the research as follows: “when all is said and done, it comes down to the reality that leaders who respect and value those who work under them help create a nurturing environment and a culture for success” (p. 114). By effectively using a variety of the styles of leadership found within the Paradigm of Educational Leadership, a principal will not only triumph over challenging times but will build up other leaders, in and outside the school, to join them in ensuring the success of their students. The school climate will remain healthy, teachers will experience an enjoyable work environment, and student success will endure.

**Limitations of the Project**

While the research on the styles of leadership typically held that anyone could exemplify the style and have the same desired effects as the studies, there were some qualifying characteristics that should be mentioned. A leader’s age could influence the types of leadership styles they were most likely to embody. For example, Kajs and McCollum (2010) found that younger principals were more open to new ideas and unchartered areas, whereas older and more experienced principals have the opposite tendencies. Older administrators need to be aware of this tendency in order to avoid some of the harsher leadership styles that have negative implications for school health and teacher job satisfaction, such as the coercive leadership style. While the older principal may have more experience than their teachers in certain situations, it is not enough to embody this type of leadership and inform the teachers what they must do. It is
better to cast a strong vision and involve teachers in the decision-making process, such as the transformational leader.

Eddy and VanDerLinden (2006) found that gender could have implications for influencing a leader’s style and how they defined it. Male leaders stereotypically viewed their style of leadership as more “directive and autocratic” whereas female leaders identified their style as more “participatory and valuing meritocracy as measured by value of knowledge” (p. 22). However, this gender-based defining of leadership styles had weak correlations in their research. While it is important to “think differently about gender and leadership,” they concluded that “gender is not always the defining variable of difference in how one chooses to lead” (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006, p. 22). Regardless, it is important for principals to evaluate their leadership perspectives in light of any bias or assumptions they may have due to their gender.

Societal and cultural context can have considerable and critical implications for understanding leadership styles and their effectiveness (Avolio, 2007; Dahri, 2015; Henderson, 2015). As Dahri (2015) explained, “Most of the understanding and insights about leadership theory and practice have been developed in the context of more developed countries, especially American and European contexts, on the basis of the ground realities of those cultures” (p. 2). It is unwise for a principal to assume that a leadership style will have the exact outcomes in educational settings in other cultures as they do in American and European cultures. Avolio (2007) shared that researchers have begun studying whether each leadership style is equally effective in varying cultures. It is important for principals to conduct their own research and evaluate how effective each leadership style is in their school setting. Furthermore, Hadjithoma-Garstka (2011) found that the “socio-economic level of the student population… may hinder
implementation” of certain learning objectives and initiatives. Leaders need to know their community and student body to anticipate these needs and address them accordingly.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

To continue the pursuit of this topic, it would be beneficial to conduct research of principals to ascertain their leadership style(s) and whether they change their style dependent on the situation or problem before them. In conjunction with this, data should be collected from the teachers to determine if they agree with the principals’ self-evaluation of their leadership style(s). Further, the surveying of the teachers could result in ascertaining whether the principals’ leadership style(s) is(are) effective at building a healthy school climate and increasing teacher job satisfaction.
References


