



Educational Leadership and Organisational Culture: An Interdisciplinary Perspective

القيادة التربوية وأثرها على الثقافة المؤسسية
تحليل وفق منظور علمي واجتماعي ولغوي

by

SENABIL B. AL-HUSSAINI, M.Sc.

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY in EDUCATION**

at

The British University in Dubai

**Prof. Ashly H. Pinnington
June 2017**



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ABSTRACT

This research explores the relationship between leadership and organisational culture in a sample of eleven schools based in the United Arab Emirates that are characterised by a hierarchical management structure. Following a mixed methods research methodology, the leadership styles of principals are classified as transformational, transactional or passive/avoidant. Then, through a qualitative grounded theory approach combined with symbolic interactionism the schools' organisational culture is interpreted to reveal some of the hidden perspectives on schools' leadership. The leadership images and pragmatics of language communicated by the participants are analysed in this research study for their associated complexities through the lens of speech act theory.

An enhanced form of transforming leadership style was found to be predominant, encompassing a combination of transformational and transactional leadership. Seven theoretical categories of organisational culture were developed and examined in-depth in two selected schools, revealing that the leaders prefer to use redressive strategies in communicating face threatening acts; strategies indicating politeness and rational decision making. The style of leadership, which impacted on the schools' organisational culture, was found to be strongly influenced by practices from a higher level of schools' administration and management. School leaders' polite communication style served as a partial shielding effect to some of the external influences, and the attitudes of individual principals and their styles of leadership were enacted in varied ways. In conclusion, this research proposes a three-dimensional model to interpret organisational culture and leadership influence on organisations such as schools which are embedded in multi-level hierarchical management structures.

ABSTRACT in ARABIC

يهدف هذا البحث الى استكشاف ماهية العلاقة بين القيادة التربوية والثقافة المؤسسية في عينة من إحدى عشرة مدرسة تتميز بهيكل إداري هرمي ومقرها في الإمارات العربية المتحدة. ستصنف أساليب القيادة في هذه المدارس الى قيادة تحويلية أو تبادلية أو قيادة عدم التدخل من خلال منهجيات البحث المتعددة الطرق. كما سيتم التعرف على الثقافة المؤسسية للمدارس والكشف عن بعض الجوانب الكامنة في قيادة المدارس باتباع نهج تجذير النظرية ونظرية التفاعل الرمزي. ومن خلال نظرية أفعال القول سيتم تحليل طبيعة اللغة المستخدمة بين المشاركين في هذه الدراسة والكشف عن الصور القيادية التي ينسجها هؤلاء المشاركون من خلال تعاملهم وتفاعلهم مع ادارة المدرسة.

أثبتت نتائج هذه الدراسة ان مديري المدارس يتبعون نمطاً قيادياً يجمع ما بين طابع تحويلي وتبادلي. وقد تم تطوير سبع فئات نظرية للثقافة المؤسسية ودرستها بعمق في مدرستين مختارتين. وتبين أن مديري المدرستين يفضلان استخدام الاساليب والتعبيرات المهيبة في أفعال القول بما يحفض الاحترام لمدرسيهم. وقد وجد ان الممارسات القيادية للادارة العليا للمدارس لها تأثير كبير على طبيعة قيادة مديري المدرستين وبالتالي فان الثقافة المؤسسية هي نتاج الإدارتين، الادارة العليا لمدارس وادارة مديري المدارس. لقد كان لأسلوب التواصل المهيبة الاثر الكبير في صد بعض المؤثرات الخارجية والتحسين الجزئي لاجواء العمل في المدارس. وفي الختام يقترح هذا البحث نمودجا ثلاثي الأبعاد لتفسير العلاقة بين القيادة التربوية والثقافة المؤسسية في المؤسسات التعليمية ذات هيكل إداري هرمي متعددة المستويات.

DEDICATION

*Writing two hundred pages was the hardest part,
or so I thought until this page,
feeling lost for words,
trying to thank 'the best' who I learned from,
the "shoulders of giants" that I stood upon,*

Mum & Dad

Thank you

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At The British University in Dubai, my long time ambition of completing a Ph.D. degree was achieved. The University makes a tremendous effort to accommodate and allocate the best programmes, resources, and time for students where the majority of them are fully engaged with a job. We were taught and trained by the best professors and given an opportunity to acquire international experience through conferences and visits to universities abroad. My sincere respect and appreciation to Professor Abdulla Alshamsi, Vice Chancellor of the University for leading us to success and creating a place for ambitions to be achieved at the highest level. My sincere respect and appreciation to Professor Eman Gaad, Dean of Faculty of Education, a role model of leadership, diligence, enthusiasm and professionalism. I am in debt to her constant support and guidance.

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1. Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Preamble

Leadership and organisational culture are one of the most highly researched topics in the social sciences. There are massive numbers of publications on leadership by itself, that it becomes a difficult task to read the majority of them. Grint (1997, p. 116) has best described this as “you can either be a leader or read all about them but you cannot do both”. Furthermore, there are many contrasting approaches to studying leadership and organisational culture. This makes it difficult to agree on a common supposition, epistemologically and methodologically, that can best represent leadership and organisations, their effectiveness and ineffectiveness. Fortunately, there are some important turns within the history of such studies that help postgraduate students observe a glimmer of hope and courageously undertake topics as intricate as those.

A major turn was the call for ending ‘paradigm wars’, which reached its peak during the eighties, and today, they have become ‘paradigm soup’ (Buchanan and Bryman 2009, p. 4). Mixed methodologies were one of the justifiable answers to such calls. They provided diversity and flexibility in combining two or more epistemological views and/or selecting methods that are most appropriate for answering research questions, instead of having them custom-made within a confined framework and then selecting methods from within. Yet still, mixed methods practitioners have their share of differences and agreements. The other important turn was within methodologies themselves, specifically the rise of grounded theory in the late sixties. It opened doors to even more diversity, especially in leadership studies. When certain theories did not serve the purpose of research, building them as they are grounded in data was a reasonable riposte. A third turn was the ‘linguist turn’ in social sciences and the influence it had on leadership and organisation theories. This turn represents a merge between disciplines, opening yet another door for researchers to adopt a more comprehensive interdisciplinary approach in their research design.

Interestingly, whether speaking about the paradigm wars or the new turns in research, these differences stem from the legitimate diversity among human beings and their ways of thinking. Some have a more bias view towards

qualitative or quantitative approaches and may not consider research questions that could imply the use of either, respectively. Others resort to certain theorists and specific theoretical perspectives, and have an intense critical eye when exploring other possibilities. This might completely discourage the reader from looking into new fields, new paradigms of thinking, being innovative and progressive. It can easily 'indoctrinate' one's mind, especially if the reader is a postgraduate student who is being introduced to a new world of intellectual contentions. Fortunately again, scholars have diagnosed such issues and advised on being open-minded and accommodating, thereby directing the focus on solving research problems and what it takes to achieve that.

A final important turn was that the researcher herself was able to understand these paradoxes and has carefully listened to advice and created her own views (sigh). This was an inevitable fate, when the research topic was chosen to be in schools, which as organisations, have their share of specific complexities. Technical and vocational schools bring the complexity up by at least three levels.

1.2 Background

The selection of the research topic is based on three major issues for research and practice. The first is the current challenges facing the educational system in the UAE. In 2000, the UAE Ministry of Education released the 2020 vision on education. However, five years later, eleven problems in the UAE school education system were announced in the popular UAE newspaper 'Al Ittihad', and 46 billion dirhams were allocated for a ten years long reform project. These problems included issues in curriculum, teaching, assessment, school culture and school leadership (Macpherson, Kachelhoffer & El Nemr 2007). Educational policies and how they are regulated and implemented in schools, represent another challenge within the education system (Godwin 2006; Hokal & Schaw 1999).

Looking at the history of educational policies in the UAE since the federal unification of the seven Emirates in 1971, it is evident that these policies went through major changes and have been influenced by various internal and external factors. Policy making during the seventies and eighties of the twentieth century was mainly driven by the government and the internal affairs of the country

(Lotah 2011). Globalisation and technological advancements changed this and became the major external drives that influenced educational policies in the UAE (Al Amiri 2011; Macpherson, Kachelhoffer & El Nemr 2007). The educational policy document released in 1995 and the Education Vision 2020 released by the Ministry of Education in 2000 are examples of such changes. These policies emphasised many aspects such as developing the educational system in schools, empowering UAE nationals, promoting the National identity and Arabic and Islamic culture, improving the school culture and developing a high quality curriculum aligned to international standards (see: UAE MoE website). Technical and vocational education has always been a small part of what has been mentioned in these policies and strategies. For example, the Abu Dhabi policy Agenda in 2009 and the Abu Dhabi 2030 economic vision refer to the importance of TVET.

The concept of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) worldwide is witnessing major changes that are a result of advancements in technology, which have changed the nature of jobs and industries. The shift from the industrial age to the information age, and increasing globalisation has induced various social, political and economic reforms, which in turn has had its effect on education and educational leadership. TVET is now in a transitional state between the old concept of less knowledge and more hands on, to the new approach of 80% knowledge and 20% hands on (Maclean & Lai 2011). The UAE is no exception to these changes (Macpherson, Kachelhofer & El Nemr 2007), and the changes that UAE TVET is witnessing today. This calls for learning from current educational leadership practices and understanding the organisational culture in which teachers and school leaders are working in.

The second issue for research and practice is based on previous experience of working as an administrator in similar schools. Despite the fact that these schools were centrally managed, frequent visits indicated that each school had its own specificity that somehow linked to the principal of the school. However, these findings were mere insights and were not based on systematic research investigation. Research on school culture and leadership has not previously been

conducted in the selected schools, and therefore there is no background information to build on for this research.

This led the researcher to the identification of a third issue, which is based on the results of a pilot study conducted on a sample of two principals, two vice principals, and thirty teachers that mainly focused on the first research question this thesis addresses. Additionally, several artifacts (available in the public domain) were examined; the schools' mission and vision, organisation charts and policy documents on academic governance. Results of the pilot study showed that according to teachers' perceptions, both transactional and transformational leadership are almost equally practiced. However, when comparing the results with international normative samples, both styles of leadership were below the norm. Comparing these results with a study in the UAE of 34 general education schools, conducted by Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) where approximately 490 teachers completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), transactional and transformational leadership were once again below the averages obtained from the general education schools. Passive/avoidant leadership style, on the other hand, appeared to be higher than the international norms. The outcomes of leadership, which measures extra effort, effectiveness of leaders, as well as the general satisfaction of the followers, were also below the international norms (Al-Hussaini 2014). Policies that govern decision making in schools reveal a rather centralised context. School principals contribute to decision making through committees that meet frequently. However, the final decisions are discussed and approved by a governing Board (Al-Hussaini 2014).

Schools are complex organisations, and many scholars believe that they are influenced by the societal culture. For example, Walker and Dimmock (2002) consider it as the overall context in which educational administration and leadership should be studied. Understanding leadership in this context can be rather complicated especially for TVET schools in the UAE, due to their multicultural nature.

Societies such as those found in Arabic, Japanese, Korean and Chinese cultures are considered to be collectivist societies. Models of transactional and

transformational leadership were developed and applied to management settings in Western societies. In collectivist societies, there is a shared responsibility between leaders and followers that readily enables transformational leadership. In the case of UAE TVET schools, the society is collectivist, however, school staff and administrators come from various cultural backgrounds. The immediate question here is: what would be common among a diverse group of leaders and followers?

National culture is often conceptualized as having an influence on organisation and leadership style. Gardenswartz and Rowe (2001, in Silverthorne 2005, p. 2) identified five major areas that are important to consider in organisations that are functioning across cultures: hierarchy and status, group versus individual orientation, time consciousness, communication styles and pattern and conflict resolution. The behaviour of managers (or school principals), accordingly, is assumed to be influenced by the national culture.

Greenfield (1986) argues that people would like to see their own 'values' and 'existence' reflected in a school. This would build their trust and confidence in an institution that is designed to benefit the society. There is no doubt that the school as an organisation is influenced at various levels and across different boundaries, and cultural communication happens within and outside these boundaries (Walker & Dimmock 2002). This brings into question whether parents in the UAE can actually see their culture and value system transferred and expressed in the schools. Is there a dialogue happening between the school, the society, and the policy makers? These are broad and complex, yet important questions that require several studies to answer. As a start, examining organisational culture and leadership style in these schools could bring in new understandings. Looking at national culture and its influence on schools is one way to understand organisational culture. The researcher, however, is interested in looking at an inside-out model; starting with the school, specifically the backbone of any school: teachers and their leader.

1.3 Research Questions

This research explores two questions.

1. What are the different styles of leadership and how are they perceived in a sample of TVET schools, especially in terms of Burns (1978, 2003) transactional and transforming styles? The experiences and views of both principals and teachers will be examined.
2. What is the influence of school leadership on the organisational culture in these schools? This includes two main tasks:
 - a. Deciphering the organisational culture of selected schools, and
 - b. Exploring if a relationship exists between organisational culture and the leadership style.

1.4 Purpose and Objectives

Research over decades has provided sufficient evidence that leadership has an influence on school organisational culture. Less attention, however, has been paid to TVET schools, let alone studies of such in the Gulf region. Research methodologies in this field of study are characterised by repetition and have reached a level of stagnation. Therefore, this research aims to provide new perspectives on leadership and organisational culture, and is the first of its kind in this region. It provides new ideas for research methodologies that bring deeper insights on the two complex phenomena. At the same time, it opens the door for creative thinking about the importance of combining certain concepts from multiple disciplines. The results will have an impact on both the theory and practice of educational leadership, specifically in the UAE, and can be used by policy and decision makers, leaders and teachers for school leadership training programmes and placing organisational culture as a priority indicator of a productive learning environment.

The above mentioned aim will be achieved through the following objectives:

1. Review the literature about leadership and organisational culture with a focus on the undertaken research methodologies and trends in the relationship between the two phenomena

2. Identify the leadership styles of principals in UAE TVET schools as perceived by both school leaders and teachers
3. Develop a theory of TVET schools' organisational culture grounded in the data gathered from school leaders and teachers
4. Examine leadership through communication strategies of school leaders and evaluate the level of politeness in their speech acts
5. Combine and compare the findings to develop a meta-inference about UAE TVET leadership and its influence on school organisational culture

1.5 Chapter Overviews

The six chapters of this thesis commence with an introduction about the topic of this research and provide an outline on how it is situated within a wider perspective. In this chapter, the two main research questions will be stated along with the purpose of this study and the five objectives that describe how this purpose will be achieved.

The second chapter will include a literature review of leadership, organisational culture and discourse analysis/pragmatics of language studies. Given the complexity and plethora of studies in those three main streams, the literature review will focus on categorising studies according to their main purpose and critique their methodologies. This review of the literature critiques some of the core concepts and the underlying philosophies, especially for leadership studies. The idea of 'expressions of leadership' is an example of what the researcher argues to be a concept that is less researched in leadership studies. Leadership-followership interaction through communication, the leader's own value system and inner struggles and how they shape leadership practices and influence organisational culture are some of the main points in this line of argument.

The research design and methodology in chapter three are in several respects the most important part of this study. This chapter presents a new direction in leadership studies through the design and implementation of 'leadership scenarios' that are based on the concept of discourse completion tasks. The methodology therefore combines three disciplines; pure science, social sciences and sociolinguistics. The chapter commences with a description of the main

typologies in mixed methods research and the criteria that was used to select a 'parallel mixed methods design' for this study. The measures taken to ensure that this research is in line with ethical practices included informed consent, optional participation in the questionnaire and interviews, confidentiality and anonymity. The site selection and sampling, research method and data analysis will be described separately for each of the two strands; quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative strand will describe the implementation and administration of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Given the multi-level of data gathering, the levels of analysis will be identified and the appropriate level will be selected through justified data aggregation using statistical models. A detailed explanation of the reliability and factor analyses conducted in this research will also be presented in the quantitative strand of this chapter. The qualitative strand is presented in two parts, the first being grounded theory and the second discourse analysis and pragmatics. An overview of each part will be given and then the core tenets of conducting such methods will be introduced. In grounded theory, for example, reducing predetermined thoughts about data, gathering rich data, theoretical sampling and coding data represent some of the important considerations of grounded theory methods. The section on discourse analysis and pragmatics of language will focus on the concept of speech acts and politeness theory, and the development of 'leadership scenarios' based on discourse completion tasks. Three main speech acts will be the focus of the design of leadership scenarios: requests, apologies and refusals.

The fourth chapter presents the results of analysing data and in the same order as that in chapter three. This chapter will show the extraction of three factors out of the original nine factors of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the further reduction to only one factor that includes a combination of transactional and transformational leadership. Based on a symbolic interactionist perspective, grounded theory results will reveal the organisational culture theory represented by five emergent common theoretical categories and two exclusive ones. Leadership scenario results will show the redressive and polite strategies used by school leaders in their communication with teachers through the three main speech acts mentioned above.

The discussion of these results is then detailed in chapter five which highlights the importance of mixed methods research in providing complementarity and enhancement of results. It begins with the quantitative inference about an ‘enhanced transforming leadership’ style, which provides the answer to the first research question. The qualitative inferences are divided into two sections, one for grounded theory and the other for leadership scenario results. The grounded theory section describes the interpreted organisational culture and provides a comparison among the two selected schools. The five theoretical categories representing organisational culture will be discussed in detail and compared to similar concepts in the literature. This section presents a new idea for changing the direction of research on leadership from a focus on leadership style to the ‘image of leadership’ which encompasses the overall practiced leadership and does not necessarily reflect the values of the leader. The discussions in the second section of the qualitative strand focus on the meaning of choosing redressive actions as a communication style, how it defines the school leader and how it influences the organisational culture of the school. By combining the quantitative and qualitative results, a meta-inference is attained. It leads to a conceptual model elaborating the influence of leadership on organisational culture in the selected UAE TVET Schools, and thereby answering the second research question and enhancing the interpretation of the first. This chapter concludes with four main limitations of this study.

The final chapter sets out core recommendations for both research and practice in educational leadership and organisational culture. It emphasises the importance of considering multiple disciplines to address the complexity of the two phenomena and recommends the use of speech act theory in leadership and organisational studies. The recommendation of multiplicity extends to the methodology and methods that focus on addressing a research problem rather than being confined to a specific paradigm of thinking. This chapter concludes with recommendations for decision makers to use the results of this research in educational planning and practice such as the development of educational policies on school leadership and management, leadership training programmes, and developing new criteria for evaluating school organisational culture.

2. Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature review was completed in three major steps. The first was identifying the key databases in the three main disciplines of education, sociology and linguistics; the second was to identify keywords from the title of the thesis and research questions and search for articles using these keywords in their relevant databases and organise the results in tables; the last step was to write up the review of the identified literature. Four tables listing the results of these searches over a large number of publications databases are available in Appendix 1. Searches were conducted on databases from the University of Glasgow (Table 1.A), The British University in Dubai (Table 1.B) and the University of Toronto (Table 1.C). Table 2 in Appendix 1 summarises the main keywords and their alternative search terms.

The focus of the literature review was set within three main streams of ideas and concepts. The theories and approaches studied were, namely leadership, organisational culture and discourse analysis/speech acts in a school setting. For the methodology, the use and implementation of mixed methods research in these areas was considered, and specifically any research studies that combine the use of speech acts, grounded theory and MLQ in studying leadership and organisational culture in schools. Grounded theory was used to study organisational culture and therefore the literature review for this concept assisted in comparing the emergent theory with existing ones in the published literature. Analysis of the frequencies of relevant research was not conducted according to the number of publications, but rather considered, for example, how often speech acts are used to study organisational culture and leadership, as compared to their more abundant use in studying second language acquisition.

2.2 Literature Review

Reviewing leadership studies can be somewhat overwhelming, particularly when attempting to summarise and categorise these studies for the purpose of proposing new approaches. In their review of the literature on leadership studies in the *Leadership Quarterly* journal's second decade of publication, Gardner et al. (2010, p. 934) labelled their process of categorising and coding such studies as 'herding

theoretical cats'. Their review takes into consideration the chronological development, from trait theories of studying leadership through to neo-charismatic and cross cultural approaches. It extends to the contextual aspects of leadership, leadership identity, emotions and leadership, ideological and pragmatic leadership and all the way up to destructive leadership (see Table 6, p. 935 for a complete summary of these studies). Researchers have attempted throughout these studies to understand leadership, its meaning, perceptions, effects and influences whether on subordinates or on the organisation, and in schools mainly on student achievement. Scholars that define themselves within a particular paradigm of research bring in additional debates such as the most appropriate methodology for studying leadership, to what extent could the results be generalised, and more importantly whether leadership is described as a 'sovereign' phenomenon with defined constructs, or a mere symbolic representation of collective social incidents and experiences (Alvesson 1996; Antonakis 2003; Bass & Avolio 2004; English 2008; Ribbons & Gunter 2002; Krüger & Scheerens 2012; Silverman 1989).

Another lens to view leadership studies is through the different epistemological frameworks and paradigms of discourses in leadership studies. Gunter (2001, p. 95) identifies four approaches to studying leadership: critical, humanistic, instrumental and scientific. Burrell and Morgan (1979) identify two major epistemological dimensions: subjective-objective and social regulation-radical change. This in return forms four paradigms: radical humanist, radical structural, interpretive and structural functionalist (p. 23). Biesta and Miron (2002) described educational leadership studies according to structural-functional, critical theory, hermeneutic, feminist, pragmatist and post-modernist approaches. Many scholars believe that studies on school leadership and culture have taken a rather functional approach and by being based on rational systems of business models (e.g. Bates 1987; Smyth 1989), have neglected the importance of cultural politics where the culture of organisations becomes limited to the values and beliefs that a leader holds (Angus 1989; Ylimaki 2011). Scheerens (2012) meta-analysis looks at studies related to effects of educational leadership both direct and indirect through certain variables. Other reviews on leadership studies focus on one category of leadership such as 'authentic leadership' (Gardner et al. 2011).

Yukl (2013) classifies research on leadership according to five main approaches: trait, behaviour, power-influence, situational, integrative. Yukl raises an important insight on leadership studies that are based on how researchers define leadership in the first place. He believes that conducting research based on a confined definition of leadership limits the possibility of exploring and examining the researcher's own perceptions of leadership. If members in an organisation are asked about a role model of a leader, who would they choose? To specify such a question, one could ask about two role models, one in the organisation and the other outside the organisation. Would we expect similar responses to role models in an organisation? On what criteria would a role model in general be chosen? What do people think of when choosing a role model of a leader? Is it based on certain experiences or events? Or is it based on certain values a person holds and would like to see these values reflected in the role model? The list of questions is potentially endless.

One fundamental aspect, however, is that our perceptions of leaders are often either a direct effect from that leader on us, or observing the effect of that leader on others or on a required outcome. There is also empirical evidence that perceptions of followers can be linked to a specific situation, change or a difficult time that a school is going through. Adams and Gamage (2008), for example, identified differences in perceptions of leadership in environments of constant change and responses to demands in technical and vocational institutes in Australia. Smith and Bell (2011) examined how headteachers in some English schools practice transactional and transformational leadership, and factors that influence the use of one style over the other. External influences, such as policy reforms have proven to result in major changes in the role of the principal and therefore the perceptions of teachers change accordingly (see for example, Bolam 2003; Day 2005; Harris & Chapman 2002; Day et al. 2003; Fullan 2014; Jantzi & Leithwood 1996; Leithwood 1994). Research has also provided evidence that leadership is affected by the sectoral context and whether the organisation is functioning in the private or public sector (Pinnington 2011). In challenging situations, one can argue that there is even a greater demand on the leader to overcome obstacles and bring about change. Scholars in educational leadership have actually recognised the role of leaders in the growth and development of

educational institutes. Some contend that a school leader is the most important figure in school improvement, and is considered to be an “internal change agent” (Huber & West 2002, p. 1071). The question is, can transactional and transformational leadership models become a solution to school leaders in demanding situations? This thesis does not provide an answer to this question but rather drives an analytical discussion to provide some insights on the various dimensions associated with this model of leadership.

The core discussion in this thesis is built around the assumption that leadership has to be expressed in one way or another in order to ‘feel’ it or ‘describe’ it. The notions of leadership as ‘normative’ or ‘descriptive’ have been a fundamental point of argument in the educational administration field (see for example Greenfield 1986; Hodgkinson 1983). English (2008, p. 1) considers leadership “both a science and an art” but differentiates between the simplicity of measuring science and the more careful attempt to appreciate the performance of leadership as an art. Performance extends the leadership concept to the individual values and beliefs of the leader and the follower, but more importantly, their relationship with each other. Expressions of leadership are therefore an area of common ground for the varied debates about what constitutes educational leadership. They can take various forms, for example when considering the results and outcomes of organisations. In the industry sector, for example, results could be measured by productivity and revenues; a typical scientific and economic approach. In the education sector and in schools it often will be student performance or teacher motivation. It could also be the perceptions of school leaders or their teachers. Once again, the list is a long one.

There is no doubt that in reviewing some of the major work in the leadership field that there is an explicit and implicit recognition that one method of studying leadership is not sufficient. The implicit agreement, while not directly admitting the necessity of multiple approaches to studying leadership, researchers will tend to identify the shortcomings of research that is not conducted according to their dominant approach. For example, qualitative researchers criticise quantitative research as being too narrow and based on a single, simplified version of reality that neglects individual interpretations. Quantitative researchers similarly often

criticise qualitative research for being very subjective and criticise the fact that the results cannot be generalised. Mixed methods research has also been criticised for its various shortcomings. Some theorists raise major concern about the scientific method. They doubt the idea of a paradigm change and believe that there should be a separation between the modification in a theory and the development of a new one (Kuhn 1970). The debates about qualitative and quantitative approaches lead to other interesting discussions about research in education, in general, as well as in leadership studies. One area that is contested is whether research should be placed, partially or fully, within one paradigm and not another. Usher and Edwards (1994) for example, believe that education itself is postmodern in nature and therefore needs to be viewed from that epistemological approach. All these insights are debateable and could be challenged through counter arguments with solid evidence from the literature in social and educational research (Crotty 1998; Denzin & Lincoln 2005; Guba & Lincoln 1994, 2005; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010).

For that reason, analysis and meta-analysis of leadership studies show that the discussions and debates make it almost impossible to capture or define leadership and recommend the optimal way to study it. There is however, a general implicit and explicit agreement about the need for more multi-level approaches in theory, context and settings (Antonakis et al. 2003, Bass & Riggio 2006; English 2001, 2008; Yukl 2013).

A third level of implicit and explicit agreement is the common denominator in all of these discussions, interpretations, debates, the results of various approaches of research in educational leadership and whether or not they were tested for ‘credibility and authenticity’ or ‘validity and reliability’. This common denominator is in plain words the human being aspect and the complexities that are associated with feelings, interpretations and ways of thinking, but more importantly, communication. While not part of the academic literature, interestingly, Fisher and Ury (1983) identify three major issues associated with humans: perceptions, emotions, and communication. In negotiations and resolving conflicts, Fisher and Ury suggest ‘separating people from the issues’ because of the three main people problems. When analysing the development of leadership

theories, one finds that the emergence of new fields of leadership studies, such as destructive leadership, is due to the very basic nature of human beings, specifically those related to Fisher and Ury's three main problems. It is important, however, to emphasise that such concepts are probably more important in educational organisations, given the outcome is generally related to human beings, such as students graduating. Even when one considers a factory that produces material goods, the researcher cannot escape the human being aspects of the workers, the subordinates and their relation with their leader and how that impacts on productivity. A direct and evident example is that of the famous Hawthorne experiments, in which one of the main goals of the research was increasing the productivity of workers (Mayo 1933, 2010). Regardless of the many different ways that this famous experiment could be explained, it is the interpretation, or the 'misinterpretation' of reality, that lead the workers to function at a higher level than their normal rates.

These dilemmas and debates lead the researcher of this thesis to move away from the common and most popular approaches in educational research that focus on fitting a problem within a certain epistemological framework and creating reality, accordingly. Instead the researcher places the condition of human being at the start of the research process. Grounded theory methods have greatly helped in this matter where the researcher can produce the theory based on the core insights of people participating in the research. These discussions also lead the researcher to the very basic concepts of leadership proposed by Burns (1978) that focus on the relationship of leader and subordinates.

Burns (1978) emphasized that the fundamental aspect of leadership is the interaction between leader and follower within a common point of interest. He defined transactional and transforming as two forms of such interaction. Transactional leadership "occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things" (p. 19). Transforming leadership "occurs when one or more persons engage with others and in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p. 20). Based on Burns' studies, Bass and Avolio subsequently developed the 'Full Range Leadership' model in which four

components of transformational leadership were defined: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Three components were developed for transactional leadership: contingent reward, management-by-exception, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Riggio 2006). These components focus on the leader's behaviour and its effect on the follower. More details on the development of the 'Full Range Leadership' model have been presented in the methodology chapter of this thesis.

The concept of transactional and transformational leadership was initially studied in business, military and political settings, and more rarely in schools. However, the constant changes and reforms that have characterised schools over the years have created challenges and demands for school leaders to maintain an adaptive environment for such changes (Richardson et al. 2016). Studies on transformational leadership in general and technical and vocational schools have provided evidence of a similarity in both business and school settings (Boateng 2012; Bush 2014; Daughtry & Finch 1997; Leithwood, Leonard & Sharratt 1998; Leithwood 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi 1999, 2005; Marks & Printy 2003; Sheppard 1996; Silins 1994; Wonacott 2001).

Adding to the complexities of the plethora of leadership studies, school leadership brings its own dimensions and intricacies. Over the past thirty years, research in this field has provided evidence of a relationship pertaining between school effectiveness and the role of the school principal (e.g. Hallinger & Heck 1996; Fullan 2002; Huber & West 2002; Sammons, Hillman & Mortimor 1995; Sebastian & Allensworth 2012; Southworth 2002). School effectiveness has been studied through different indicators, such as students' academic achievement, teacher performance and motivation, and the performance of the principal him or herself. The principal's leadership style and the factors that influence the leadership behaviour have also been considered in studying school effectiveness. Many studies in Europe during the years 2000-2010, Canada, and the United States have been associated with school reforms, improving students' achievement, improving teachers' performance, or the overall school development. In Sweden, for example, around 23 Ph.D. dissertations were completed based on case studies in four major areas: the role of the principal;

communication with teachers; gender and gender discourses; governance, goals, school development (Vetenskapsradet 2011). Areas that have been researched less are those related to comparisons among effective forms and styles of leadership.

Research on leadership in TVET schools is similar to general education schools. It is believed, however, that leaders in such schools have additional responsibilities due to their direct link with the workforce and the public in general. Historically, changes in TVET happen more frequently and in direct response to the demands of the society, economic growth and modernisation of technology in industry (Maclean & Lai 2011). Other differences that have been identified are related to general research topics in TVET, research methodologies, which are heavily dominated by case studies and the recent call for considering TVET as a discipline by itself (Rauner & Maclean 2008). The concepts of leadership, especially transformational leadership, remain the same and are not different from general education schools (Moss & Liang 1990). Therefore, this thesis has neither limited literature review to technical and vocational schools, nor treated transactional and transformational leadership as a special case within such schools. As mentioned above, research on transactional and transformational leadership was introduced in schools as a response to major changes in the roles and responsibilities of schools and consequently school leadership. New legislation, regulations and policies have greatly contributed to these changes. Specific situations or conditions that schools experience, such as underperforming or disadvantaged schools, and those that go through constant changes, have also contributed to the rise of transactional and transformational leadership studies.

An analysis of the United Kingdom policy on school leadership through the Education Reform Act (ERA) 1988 (The National Archives), provides some excellent examples on changes that have influenced school leadership. This public policy introduced the 'new performativity agenda' and concepts of 'standardisation', 'decentralisation' and 'accountability', which caused a major shift in educational practices, beliefs and value system in schools in the UK, as well as in other countries. Among the major changes that occurred, were teachers'

perceptions about the role of school principals which they described as dominated by “management systems” (Day 2005, p. 399) and management of budgets.

Teachers no longer saw the role of the principal as an educator who should have influence on the teaching and learning aspects. In a report on school headship by Smithers and Robinson (2007), around 30 new tasks for school principals were identified. Some of these included: strategy, leadership, students, teachers and parents, teaching, support staff, pastoral, governors, administration, events, admissions, interviews, community partnerships, appraisals, school profile, finance, bids and awards. The 1988 ERA, has actually transformed the role of the school principal from a professional educator to an executive manager who is responsible for achieving targets and delivering an educational product that is competitive in the ‘market’, that is, other schools.

In the United Arab Emirates, some of the concepts of performativity and accountability through decentralisation of power to schools, have also been introduced. In 2007, the Ministry of Education (MoE) decided to give schools more authority and financial support (Al-Taneiji & McLeod 2008). The MoE described that its role was to set standards of education, and the role of schools would be to meet these standards. Al-Taneiji & McLeod contend that despite the decision to give school principals higher authority and more responsibilities, there hasn’t been a formal document published, describing the scope of decentralisation or the level of responsibility expected from the principal. Their study on school principals’ and teachers’ perception on decentralisation showed some interesting findings on how they understood decentralisation. Some considered that decentralisation might be a challenge, while others considered that there is a lack of information about the objectives of decentralisation of power to schools in the UAE. This research introduces a new dimension to thinking about school leadership in TVET and invites researchers to bring in more insights about leadership and the roles of leaders in UAE schools.

Leadership studies, whether in the UAE or other countries, need to take into consideration that leadership is not a functional tool that a principal can use in response to certain situations or external influences. Especially with studies on

transactional and transformational styles. Some of these studies have often viewed these two styles of leadership as simply a switch in principals' hands where they can easily alternate between the two. For example, Smith and Bell (2011) conducted a case study of school leadership through the perceptions of school principals, in four socially disadvantaged secondary schools in Northern England. Most of the students in these schools came from unemployed or low-income families and are in special educational needs programmes. High teacher turnover and attendance below England's national averages characterised these schools. Principals in these schools faced two challenges. First, they had to respond to the pressure of meeting targets and requirements of inspectors. Second, their ambition to improve the school and contribute to developing the disadvantaged community. Smith and Bell examined through semi-structured interviews how principals practice transactional and transformational leadership to face the different challenges in the school. They concluded that principals see transformational leadership as an effective way to bring about change and improvements to the school. However, as a result of the pressure to meet deadlines and requirements of government policies and inspectors, they are also forced into practicing transactional leadership.

The researcher concurs with other studies (e.g. Day & Leithwood 2007; Hogan & Kaiser 2005) and argues that in order to describe leadership as transactional or transformational in challenging situations, research needs to address, with an in-depth understanding, the values within a leader and what leads him or her to make certain choices to deal with such situations. The role of a school administrator by itself is complex, holds its own context and forces the leader into a certain style that is a framework by itself. English (2008, p. 123) argues that the position of a school leader:

is designed to embody the overall rules of the organization, to create an official who acts not on his personal whims, but as an actor, a person who represents encapsulated authority specifically configured in the overall fabric of purposeful organization life.

As such, drawing a conclusion about using a certain type of leadership in a certain situation without studying the values system of a leader can be quite limited. Moreover, the idea that practicing transformational leadership can lead to changes

in organisations such as the aforementioned English schools, or that transactional leadership would cause an organisation to be less responsive to change, is another debateable issue. The reason for that is twofold. First, there could be other reasons that cause changes that are not related to a specific style of leadership. As a matter of fact, Kets de Vries (2011) believes that being enthusiastic to make changes is not enough, and that there are other characteristics in a leader that can lead to change. Being transparent, receptive, approachable and having the ability to self-examine one's own insights and reflect on them, are just few examples of leader's qualities that can cause changes in an organisation. Second, viewing perceptions of leadership style from one end, either the leader or follower, is not a true representation of leadership. Burns's (1978) emphasis on interaction among leader and follower readily defines leadership as a combination of individual and collective characteristics and behaviours; a social action in itself.

The pilot study that the researcher conducted prior to initiating the actual research, showed that there were differences between the ratings of followers and their leader on the MLQ scale. Leaders rated themselves higher than their followers. These results were in line with some of the results that were published by Avolio and Bass (2004). This shows that perceptions of leaders can sometimes be different from their subordinates. Naturally, this would mean that perceptions of both leader and follower are needed to complete part of the full picture of leadership. The research methodology plays an important role in addressing such limitations. Smith and Bell (2011) limited their study to semi-structured interviews of four principals. With a high teacher turnover in these schools, using a questionnaire to examine the majority of teacher's perspectives could have added another dimension to the results of this study. A number of researchers, however, do suggest some limitations on leadership studies based on questionnaires (e.g. Evers & Lakomski 2000). They consider them mere tools for collecting data rather than a systematic approach for creating empirical data. The researcher believes that multiple approaches creates a different level of knowledge and helps in encompassing some of the complexities that surround the phenomenon of leadership.

In their mixed methods study on the effectiveness of leadership practiced by principals in various departments of vocational institutes in Australia, Adams and

Gamage (2008) addressed both the leader and follower interaction and introduced new insights. Leaders may think of ways to practice effective leadership that are not actually seen by the followers as effective. The principals in these vocational institutes identified self-confidence and self-awareness, motivating others, and team philosophies as more effective aspects of leadership. Teachers, on the other hand, perceived this as less effective area of leadership. These findings were consistent with Hsieh and Shen's (1998) work on teachers, principals and superintendents' perceptions of effective leadership. Their study made use of focus groups and found that the way in which leadership is perceived was in part dependent on role and hierarchical position; teacher, principal or superintendent.

This is where mixed methods research becomes important. They represent an important paradigm in educational research that tends to widen the limitations of conducting qualitative and quantitative research separately (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). The added value in Adams and Gamage (2008) study of leadership effectiveness was using a mixed method approach. While quantitative findings from head teachers showed that self-confidence was the most effective common area of leadership, qualitative findings showed that teachers identified this as being less effective. In multilevel management school systems, the situation becomes more complex. The leader would have a dual role, one in which he or she has to respond to upper management requirements, and the other would be to lead and manage teams and school operations. The question is, how would that influence the way leadership is perceived by teachers. Additionally, it questions whether a monomethod research design would be sufficient to explain the leadership phenomenon.

The different perceptions of followers might be better understood when one examines the nature of the leader-follower relationship. One of the fundamental aspects of this relation is the basic follower psychological and sociological needs that many scholars have identified (English 2008). Jean Lipman-Blumen (2005) for example identifies three basic needs: need for security and certainty; need to feel chosen and special; and fear of ostracism, isolation, and social death (in English 2008, pp. 136-137). Such needs require that the leader responds through a set of tasks and activities to reduce certain feelings such as uncertainty,

discomfort, and anxiety. For followers to feel special, as described by Lipman-Blumen, it means that they need to be assured of the importance of their role, that they are part of a team that is working to achieve the ultimate goal of the organisation, and that they work in an environment where there is confidence in their ability to contribute to the success of the organisation. Such needs may be addressed by recognizing the special qualities of the followers, emphasising their importance, and designing activities in which followers may demonstrate these qualities to each other (English 2008). One can imagine the kind of conflicts that may be generated when a leader does not pay attention to these basic human needs. This further reflects on the way that followers evaluate their leader, and subsequently interpret the effectiveness of his or her leadership. The differences in how followers perceived effective leadership in Adams and Gamage's or Hsieh and Shen's work may be an indicator of particular needs that were unmet.

Perceptions of followers can be influenced by the nature of the group itself. Burns (1978) describes this as the leader-follower structure. He describes the nature of the group that is led, particularly the concept of homogeneity or heterogeneity of opinions among followers, and how these opinions relate to the leader.

Homogenous small groups lean towards having less divergence and tend to be in agreement. Such a model renders the leader a representative of these groups that are united in their beliefs and opinions. Members of heterogeneous groups, in contrast, are more likely to have conflicts with each other and their leaders. This might place the leader in a position where he or she is in agreement with certain groups, but in conflict with others. Although Burns was specifically identifying political conflicts among leaders and followers, similar concepts may still be reflected in the school organisation. From personal experience of working in schools, homogeneous and heterogeneous groups are found among teachers, especially in large schools. The leader's role in such situations becomes extremely sensitive. Any signs of bias towards one group can cause huge disagreements and cause an unhealthy environment for both teachers and students. Burns analyses different clusters of leader-follower interactions by measuring "intensity, scope and degree of activity, that is, by looking for major types of leaders and major types of followers and then scrutinizing their interrelation" (p. 262). The researcher argues that homogeneity and heterogeneity may be represented in

different forms. For example, if a heterogeneous group altogether experienced an undesirable situation at work, could this shared experience unite them and transform them into a homogenous group?

The recommendations of Adams and Gamage's (2008) study includes professional development for head teachers in areas that were identified by teachers as being less effective. It also recommends that transformational leadership would be a better approach to address the situation of TVET. The question is, how will professional development be able to address, for example, a leader's self-confidence that was perceived by teachers as being less effective? Another question would be, how could transformational leadership be adopted when this type of leadership requires leaders to inspire and motivate followers to achieve the goals of the educational organisation? As mentioned earlier, styles of leadership are not switches that could be controlled and alternated according to external or internal influences.

Huber and West (2002) conducted a comparative research study on school leadership training and development programmes across ten countries. Eight dimensions were used to compare the programmes among countries: the training provider; target group; the aim of the programmes; the content, methods used to deliver; length of programme; compulsory or non-compulsory; and the cost of the programme. The researchers found that there are common trends among training programmes across the ten countries in various areas. For example, there is a special focus being placed on the goals and objectives of the programme to be more specific rather than general. Another trend was the shift from training leaders on managing day-to-day activities to maintain the functions of the school, to focusing more on roles that lead to improving the achievements of schools. An important common aspect among training programmes is that there is an increasing interest in the personal development of school leaders rather than focusing on training leaders for specific roles. This shows that the personal qualities of leadership have been identified as a major influence in effective leadership.

The successful enactment of transformational leadership in challenging situations requires a certain level of determination and belief in one's ability to achieve certain goals. Bandura's social cognitive theory refers to the concept of "self-efficacy" as confidence "in one's capability to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura 1997, p. 2 in Ross & Gray 2006). People with high self-efficacy tend to be more effective in achieving goals (Ross & Gray 2006). Dimmock argues that not much research is available to explain how leaders respond to constant demands and changes. He believes that the self-efficacy of leaders is a rich subject that needs further investigation through research (Dimmock 2012). He also points out that the likelihood of creative and innovative thinking among school principals, would be higher in those who possess high self-efficacy. Consequently, responding to challenges would be more successful. There are many more aspects that only reinforce the fact that leadership cannot be viewed, interpreted or described from a narrow perspective.

The complexity of transactional and transformational leadership can take many forms and extends beyond identifying the type of leadership that would be more effective. In his five reflections on school leadership and school development, Southworth (1993, p. 78) identified complexity of leadership as the first of his five concerns. He believes that scholars need to "seek more grounded interpretations of school leadership", rather than analysing and simply classifying leaders into transactional or transformational styles. Leadership in action is what needs to be observed in order not to neglect the actual qualities of leaders while attending to their duties, which in turn, are somewhat multifarious. With this idea in mind and recalling what was mentioned above about English's identification of school leaders being shaped by the "overall fabric of purposeful organization life", one can argue that the role of school leaders is part and parcel of a "complex and dynamic" (Huber & West 2002, p. 1073) nature of the school as an organisation. Schools constitute an integral part of the societies they are in, so they are subject to socio-economic and cultural changes that happen within societies. This results in various changes and different demands on schools, hence the school leader has to respond and attend to these changes. Southworth (1993) supports this concept and considers it another form of complication that emerges

from the complex nature of the school as an organisation. Thus, he believes that transformational and transactional leadership are mutually dependent on each other and cannot be separated. Part of the complexity is attributed to the roles of leaders that is not confined within the boundaries of the school. Studies on school leadership are still in need of more insights as to what types and activities of leadership can actually bring change, improvement and effectiveness to schools (Stewart 2006).

It is clear that in order to examine effective transactional and transformational leadership, various dimensions must be considered. Murphy (1991) believes that there are four aspects that link to thinking about leadership. The first is the characteristics and qualities of effective leaders which relates to the trait theory of leadership. The second aspect is the identification of what is common among what leaders actually practice that makes their leadership successful. This relates most directly to the behavioural theories of leadership. The third is the different contexts in which leadership is practiced and how it is interpreted in different situations, which has prompted the situational approaches to leadership studies. The last aspect explores links between the type of leadership and organisational culture. According to Huber and West (2002), this relationship lends itself to the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. While these four aspects provide a comprehensive perspective on the dimensions to be considered in defining effective transactional and transformational leadership, there are other aspects that have been less examined. Before elaborating on them, it is necessary to understand organisational culture and the various approaches to understanding it.

Organisational Culture

According to Hatch and Yanow (2003, p. 71), organisation culture is one of three major areas common to the interpretive perspective on organisation theory: organisation culture, symbolism, and aesthetics; process-based theorizing about interpretation; and analysis of writing and storytelling in narrating realities. Within the first area of interpretive analysis, there are various approaches to studying culture. Due to the fact that the interaction between the school culture and the leadership style of the principal (the executive level) is the focus of this

study, the approach that will be considered is to treat culture primarily as a “unitary phenomenon” (p. 73). Other approaches include studying culture within different hierarchical levels, for example vice-principals and groups of teachers, or among the different groups of teachers of different specialisations. Approaches to culture can follow differentiated or pluralist or fragmentary perspectives to studying sub-cultures or counter cultures (Gregory 1983; Louis 1985; Siehl & Martin 1984; Van Maanen & Barley 1984; Young 1986; Yanow 1996, in Tsoukas & Knudsen 2003, p. 73). Other researchers, such as Meyerson and Martin (1987), and Martin (1992) studied culture from the perspective of the researcher. In this case, the organisational culture is constructed based on the observations and perceptions of the researcher rather than reflected on, as it might actually exist for others in the organisation.

The use of cultural artifacts is another interpretive approach that has been proposed by researchers (e.g. Deal & Kennedy 1982; Kilmann, Saxton, & Serpa 1985; Ouchi 1981; Peters & Waterman 1982, in Tsoukas & Knudsen 2003, p. 73). This approach categorises the organisational culture into a “generalizable schema and compared cross nationally” (p. 73) and lends itself to the symbolism perspective for analysing organisational culture (e.g. Schultz 1991,1994).

Studies in organisation culture and leadership have provided links between each concept and the performance of the organisation (Pinnington 2004). However, many researchers believe that little attention has been paid to analyse the relation between organisation culture and leadership (Ogbonna & Harris 2000).

Examination of the literature shows a dearth of cultural studies in vocational schools. In the Gulf region, moreover, there is a lack of studies on vocational schools in general.

The approaches to studying organisational culture

Studies on organisational culture became apparent as a distinctive area of research on organisations at the beginning of the 1980s. Despite the many years of research in this field, there is still no common framework that can be generalised to analyse organisational culture (Schultz 1994). Therefore, different cultural topologies have been used to categorise research in this field. The approaches

followed in research on culture can be subdivided into three dominant perspectives: Smircich's (1983) perspective on culture as a variable or metaphor; Martin and Meyerson's (1988) integration, differentiation, and fragmentation perspective on culture; and others characterized by rationalism, functionalism, and symbolism.

Culture as a variable or metaphor

Building on the anthropological school, Smircich (1983) differentiates between two schools of thought and categorises researchers within these two paradigms. The first is the positivist approach where culture is treated as a variable. The approach considers culture as something an organisation 'has', and assumes it is a tool in the hands of managers that is used to direct the behaviours of people to whatever best improves the efficiency of the organisation. The second approach defines culture from the interpretive view where culture is treated as a root metaphor. This approach considers culture as something an organisation 'is' and lends itself to cultural anthropology, where culture is seen as a social pattern resulting from the characteristics of a certain group. Many researchers have followed Smircich's two approaches (e.g. Martin 2001; Martin & Siehl 1983), however, the problem is that it is difficult to implement one approach totally in isolation from the other. Therefore, researchers often have found themselves located somewhere in between these two fields. This is due to the fact that when separately considered each paradigm has its own deficiencies. Treating culture as a variable neglects the fact that culture can neither be easily quantified, nor can it be considered as a rigid tool. Whereas, the metaphoric approach to culture neglects the physical and economic aspects of an organisation (Alvesson 2002).

Integration, differentiation, and fragmentation

The second typology for analysing culture is Martin and Meyerson's three perspectives: integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. The integration perspective mirrors Smircich's variable approach to culture considered as an instrument that can be used to control the productivity of an organisation. This integrated approach also mirrors Schein's approach to organisational culture (2010). Similarities among groups in an organisation are the focus of study in this approach. Therefore, only those indicators of culture that are interpreted in a

consistent manner among the group are studied. Martin (2001, p. 94) uses the metaphor “solid monolith” to describe this perspective. In contrast to this approach, dissimilarities and conflicts of interest among the different subcultures of the organisation represent the core focus of the differentiation perspective in cultural studies. This perspective mirrors the interpretive phenomenological root metaphor. The type of culture that is studied from this perspective is that which is interpreted inconsistently among the subgroups. The metaphor Martin proposes for this perspective is “Islands of clarity in a sea of ambiguity” (p. 94). Finally, the fragmentation perspective of organisational culture is based on the idea that people in organisations can never be in agreement. Culture is seen as neither consistent nor inconsistent and so uncertainty in organisations is the core interest of this approach. The metaphor for this approach can be described as light bulbs signalling on and off “with no pattern repeated twice” (p. 94).

The three perspectives reveal the importance of identifying the level and type of employees that culture is studied through, whether it is at a manager’s level or at other subdivisions of the organisation structure. It is apparent from these three perspectives that the elements of consistency, inconsistency, and complexity, characterise the interpretations of culture among members of an organisation. Looking at the literature, it is found that these elements are the central point of contention for theorists in organisational culture who argue vehemently about, “single-perspective studies” (Martin 2001, p. 95). Notwithstanding these debates, using each approach separately to study culture or all three approaches together, “three-perspective theory of culture” (p. 115) represents another point of common contention amongst theorists.

The integration approach has been criticised for two major aspects, the first is that if culture is manifested in a consistent manner across organisation members, then this calls for studying all employees in the organisation. The second point of criticism is that consistency is considered an ideal situation that is difficult to maintain, and therefore deviations from this situation will occur. Supporters of this approach have argued that even though deviations might occur, they are not really profound and are not a true representation of the core of the existing culture. Schein (2010) contends that culture is an abstract concept and therefore in

studying culture, only those aspects that are observable should be considered. In his model, culture is manifested in three levels: artifacts; espoused beliefs and values; basic underlying assumptions. These levels represent the “degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer” (p. 23).

In his semiotic perspective, Barley (1983) supposes that there is an agreement in the way that people in a social group will behave and that this actually transcends to a level where all members ascribing meaning to their reality through a shared set of codes. McDonald (1991) concluded in her studies on the Los Angeles Olympic Organising Committee that consensus within a group was achieved through motivating members of the group to undertake a shared objective and work towards achieving it, rather than strengthening interaction among to achieve these objectives. Other researchers have suggested managerial and organisational solutions for overcoming the divergence and inconsistency in the ways in which culture is perceived. Sathe (1985, in Martin 2001, p. 99) states, “if fundamental and irreconcilable misfits between the individual and organisation are apparent, it may be best for the individual to leave”. Researchers that support the integration perspective usually look for the most evident culture that exists in the organisation and provide descriptions that are strictly within the domain of integration. An important limitation that one must consider in reviewing the different views about each perspective is the background and profile of the scholar.

The differentiation perspective analyses various dimensions of subcultures in an organisation and identifies the differences and disagreements associated with these dimensions. One can view this as a valuable tool to focus on the varied opinions and perceptions generated from a specific culture. In other words, the different views on culture are not overlooked as they might be in the integration approach, given that culture in the latter approach studies the holistic and dominating culture that can be observed. However, it can be rather complicated to define the scope of subcultures and identify the relationship among them. Van Maanen (1991) studied the subcultures that exist among workers in Disneyland and described them according to the different duties they perform. Here the researcher is comparing different cultures within an occupation. It is not clear though whether these subcultures were in conflict or disagreement with each other

or both. Martin (2001) explains that subcultures may be created from various dimensions such as, race, gender, ethnicity, friendship that exist among a group in an organisation, and networks among various groups. Considering these factors, it could be essential to decipher all of these elements should a researcher adopt this perspective. Schein (2010) claims that differentiation is a natural result of the growth of any organisation. He argues that this differentiation takes different patterns such as functional, hierarchical and geographical (p. 271). This calls for a closer look at the differentiation approach and the limitations of studying subcultures in isolation from the overall integrative culture that exists. Accordingly, one can argue that adopting the differentiation perspective to studying culture without looking at the overall observable culture, that is, the integration approach, might be insufficient to understand the inconsistencies among subcultures. Returning to Martin's metaphor of the "islands of clarity in a sea of ambiguity", if the ambiguity of the sea is so great that the holistic perspective of culture cannot be understood, then the clarity of each subculture cannot be explained. There are, however, many scholars who have adopted this perspective to emphasise either the harmony or conflicts that exist between various groups in an organisation. In general, Martin (2001, p. 103) divides the literature into two major traditions, those that focus on "relatively harmonious relationships among subcultures", such as Trice and Beyer (1993), and those that focus on the "critical theory perspective", such as Alvesson (1993).

The last perspective is fragmentation, and this is considered to be the most complicated of all three perspectives. This is due to the fact that ambiguity is the centre of attention in this approach and "ambiguity is difficult to conceptualize" (Martin 2001, p. 103-104). Nevertheless, many scholars find that such an approach is necessary to decipher an existing culture. Meyerson (1991) studied the culture among social workers and found that this occupation had many ambiguities. This was due to the unclear goals and objectives of social work, absence of an evaluation method where the approach of the social worker was deemed successful or not, and unclear directions as to where such work is heading to (Godwyn & Gittel 2012). Weick (1991, p. 324) describes another dimension of ambiguity generated from "barriers of status, language, and task assignment" in his study on an airport in Tenerife that was covered by fog. Due to ambiguity, two

Jumbo planes hit each other and many lives were lost. These two examples of studies, in addition to others (e.g. Brunson 1985; Feldman 1988; Hatch 1999), show that such an approach is case-specific. It is adopted to explain a specific situational problem that occurred as a result of high uncertainty, or a complicated situation that is explained by vagueness.

The other perspective in the cultural debate is the three-perspective method, where all of the three approaches mentioned above together are considered in the cultural research. The question then follows, which perspective is better? The answer is that it depends on the cultural research and what the focus of the researcher is. Martin (2001) strongly advocates in favour of the three perspectives approach because she believes that there are limitations to each of the three approaches when considered individually, and that studying all three approaches helps with providing an integrated insight about the culture of an organisation. However, the examples of studies on the single perspective show that those researchers followed an exclusive focus on one dimension of culture. Considering that the study is conducted in a school, a closer examination of school culture in the next section will elaborate on the different approaches that can be taken in schools.

Rationalism, Functionalism and Symbolism

Another paradigm for studying culture is to view it through the organisation theory lens. This paradigm includes three perspectives: rationalism, functionalism and symbolism. The first two emerged respectively from the “organisations as machines” and “organisations as organisms” (Shultz 1994, p. 13) metaphors. From the rationalist point of view, culture is seen as an instrument that is used to achieve the goals of an organisation. Schultz (1994) describes it as the extreme version of the culture as integration approach. This approach treats culture as one of the variables that influences the effectiveness of an organisation. Such an approach can be adopted if the purpose is to measure the effect of culture on organisational performance using a quantitative methodology (e.g. Ogbonna & Harris 2000). The functionalist approach is based on the assumption that in order for an organisation to survive, specific functions need to be taking place, and culture is one of those functions. Therefore, culture is studied in terms of what it does and how it affects people in organisations (e.g. Schein 2010). The symbolist

approach to culture, as its name implies, focuses on the use of symbols to explain what the organisation actually means to people working in it (e.g. Schultz 1992). The researcher in this approach aims to understand “the meaning and symbols, as they are being created by the members of the organisation” (Schultz 1994, p. 16).

School culture and its complexities

Approaches to studying culture are not different in schools, and the same debates above differentiate between the various approaches and methodologies to studying school organisational culture. The interest in studying school culture has mainly been associated with the rise of studies on culture and its effect on organisational excellence and the performance of employees (e.g. Deal & Kennedy 2000; Hartog 1996; Ouchi 1981; Waterman, Peters & Phillips 1980; Schein 2010). Many scholars in the field of educational leadership believe that culture is of great importance for the effectiveness of schools, and have examined how school culture has an influence on the overall functions of the school and can shape its characteristics (e.g. Cheng 1993; Maehr 1987; Beare, Caldwell & Millikan 1998; Stoll & Fink 1996). They tend to concur with other scholars in cultural studies that culture is rather complex and hard to capture (Schein 2010; Stoll & Fink 1996; Teasley 2016). Other scholars have attended to studying the effect of leadership on school culture (e.g. Bush 2015; Deal & Peterson 2009; Harris et al. 2007; Hallinger & Leithwood 1996; Hargreaves & Fullan 1991; Stoll & Fink 1996). There are a set of research findings indicating that in order to achieve continuous school improvement and student achievement, school leaders must promote a positive collaborative culture among teams of teachers (Fullan 1988; Stoll & Fink 2009; van der Westhuizen et al. 2005).

There are, however, aspects that distinguish schools from other organisations in the business world. These are related to the general complexities associated with the education world. Being a role model for students, feelings, trust and hope are some of the main aspects in the school as an organisation. All of which are not as tangible as outcomes of business organisations where services and products can be a measure of organisational culture (Deal & Peterson 2009). Due to these complexities and the limitations mentioned in the above approaches to studying culture, current models of school organisational culture have their specific

limitations. To start with, they are heavily influenced by a positivist theoretical perspective, specifically the aforementioned ‘culture as a variable’ approach. The researcher here is not criticising this perspective outright, but agrees with scholars about the shortcomings that a one-dimensional approach brings to such a complex phenomenon as culture. Alongside this approach are the predominant management theories that view school leaders as the ‘controllers’ and ‘manipulators’ of culture. Similar to leadership styles, school organisational culture within these models, is portrayed as a phenomenon that leaders can change at will.

Schein (2010) describes that part of this complexity is that culture has many hidden aspects, and is hidden so deeply that people, or members in an organisation, become unconscious about it. For that reason, many scholars and researchers believe that approaches and models of culture need to be in line with this depth, address these hidden aspects and bring them out to the surface where they become observable, instead of using models that deal with it at superficially. Anthropological approaches to school organisational culture has been one of the recommended intellectual disciplines, where the social context of the school is taken into consideration (e.g. Angus 1996; Bates 1987; Hargreaves 1995; Schein 2010; Stoll 1999). Sociologists, however, contest that anthropological views might not be applicable in modern multicultural societies and argue that the concept of culture is not as direct as anthropologists often might view it; as shared meanings and symbols among a group of people (e.g. Erickson 1987). In most of the research on school organisational culture, there is always a notion of culture being a term that does not have an agreed upon definition. This further complicates the understanding of organisational culture.

Understanding school organisational culture: structure and culture

There seems to be an agreement among the different debates, whether in organisational culture or organisation theory, that both structure and culture are important elements in understanding school organisational culture and that they are inseparable (Bush 2015; Stoll 1999). Structure is a concept that stems from bureaucratic theories of organisations where expertise and hierarchy are the main drivers for achieving organisational goals (Greenfield 1973). As such, reality is

not created by the members of the organisation, it is rather dictated to them. In other words, all members work towards achieving a target that serves the organisation, rather than their own personal interests. This is different from the systems theory where members of the organisation are completely separated from the organisation. Goal setting is considered an external aspect and therefore its reality is created through internal operations and systems of feedback.

Greenfield (1973) provides important insights regarding these two theories and contends that most of the theoretical approaches to studying organisational culture in schools is driven by them. Which means that the social reality of a school as an organisation, is not created through its members but rather defined by the goals of the organisation itself. This would mean that both leader and followers are ‘fitted in’ to a system of hierarchies, each according to their specialisation, in order to achieve organisational goals. Does this mean that the organisational culture is also predetermined? What would be the role of people in an organisation in shaping culture? Neither the classical bureaucratic nor the modern systems dimension, can be completely dismissed when we think about a school as an organisation. A good way to illustrate this would be contemplating one of the important goals of a school, which is to have, for example in TVET, graduates who are ready to join the workforce. From a bureaucratic point of view (a simplified version), to achieve this goal it would be necessary to have a building, hire an experienced principal, vice principals, teachers with high level of expertise and other administrative staff. All work together, according to hierarchical ‘structures’ and are governed by a set of rational rules for rational decision making, in order to achieve the ultimate goal. At the same time, school operations and processes are important to maintain the school and keep it as alive as an ‘organism’, regardless whether the goal was actually achieved or not. Feedback mechanisms and evaluative measures can reshape school operations until the goal is achieved. Logically, one would immediately think that both school structures and operations are crucial to achieve the goal that was set, and they are. Many studies on school effectiveness have examined these aspects and used various methodological approaches to study student attainment as one of the indicators of school effectiveness, in both general and TVET education (e.g. Haris et al. 2006; Hofman & Hofman 2011; Perez & Socias 2008). Other researchers have conceptualised teaching as a process and measured its effectiveness on student learning as an

indicator of a successful school (e.g. Dimmock 1995; Freiberg & Driscoll 2000; Westwood 1998). Should the conclusion, then, be that school organisational culture is a reflection of the school structures and processes in isolation of its staff? This question has actually been a major debate among theorists of organisations and organisational culture. Greenfield (1973, p. 561) contends that theories are mostly dominated by conceptions that view organisations as “things” rather than as “extensions to individuals”. Accordingly, he calls for a “human perspective” to understand and evaluate organisations.

Organisational goals and the human being aspect

If parents are asked about the previously mentioned goal, all would agree that, yes, they would want to see their children graduating with all of the skills they need to join the workforce. Therefore, the goal can be considered a ‘rational’ goal and all ‘actions’ that lead to achieving it can also be considered ‘rational’. Here lies a set of fundamental questions: Who is carrying out these actions? How are they carried out? Are there differences among the members of the school in the way they carry out these actions? To put it differently, can all the school members mentioned above, from principal to teachers in classrooms, be replaced with robots? Excluding the cost of producing robots, it would be very easy to program them for achieving organisational goals, and as a matter of fact, there could be tremendous consistency in school effectiveness and school culture across a number of schools. The researcher speculates that the immediate answer from parents would be, “no, we don’t want robots to teach our children or lead schools”. This answer would probably be echoed if asked in any country or among any culture. It would, therefore, be acceptable to say that there is a universal agreement that interaction among human beings is essential for communicating and achieving organisational goals, especially in schools. As mentioned previously feelings, role modelling and trust, among other things that require communication, are by and large inseparable from schools as organisations, and therefore a major constituent of the culture. As much as organisational goals are important, the human being aspect of the organisation is equally important. In this case, the interaction of individual members with their role towards these goals becomes important (Greenfield 1973).

Simon (1964) proposed an 'operational' definition of organisational goals in order to include individual actions in response to roles that are defined by the organisation, especially at the management level. He emphasised the relationship between 'goals', 'motives' to carry out certain goals and the decision-making processes at different organisational levels, which he described as loosely coupled. His proposition (p. 2) stems from an opinion that sometimes the

goals that actually underlie the decisions made in an organization do not coincide with the goals of the owners, or of top management, but have been modified by managers and employees at all echelons.

The researcher relates this to the importance of understanding how school leaders make certain choices in response to challenging situations, because it is a decision-making process. School leaders' value systems determine how they perceive certain organisational goals and influences their decision making. The performance of a role is, therefore, influenced by perceptions and 'interpersonal differences' of people that hold these roles. These insights are very important to consider within a 'structure' given it is one of the common and agreed upon dimensions in studying organisational culture. They transform this dimension from a static to a dynamic concept, thereby aligning it to the dynamic nature of culture itself.

Current models of leadership and organisational culture

Perhaps Schein's (2010) model of the three levels of organisational culture gives a more inclusive framework to study organisational culture. Still, the researcher finds that it focuses more on meaning of culture to members of an organisation, adopts a functionalist approach and does not facilitate the understanding of how the processes within a leadership role influence organisational culture. A more comprehensive and cross-cultural approach includes national and societal culture as essential 'context' in educational leadership and organisational culture (Cheng 1995; Gerstner & Day 1994; Dimmock & Walker 2002; Hallinger & Leithwood 1996; Moos 2002). The six-dimensional model of Dimmock and Walker (2000, p. 148) for cross-cultural comparison in school educational leadership and management, represents one of these approaches, and encompasses context, structure, processes and culture. One interesting aspect of this model is the

consideration of four important elements of a school: organisational structure; leadership and managerial processes; the curriculum; teaching and learning (p. 149), and how they interact with each other both internally and externally outside the school boundary. Nevertheless, on a methodological level, this model does not provide an applicable approach to encounter all these aspects, i.e., it is a conceptual model that provides descriptions of structures and processes of a school as an organisation. Moos (2002, p. 374) contends that this model is difficult to apply on a national level “because no country is mono-cultural”. Considering the differences within one society, it would be difficult to have one model of culture applicable to the entire society or all organisations in one society. The same problem arises in multicultural societies, like the UAE. Dimmock and Walker’s (2000) concept of culture, both societal and national, was based on the work of Hofstede which in itself has been criticised for its various limitations (see for example Signorini, Wiesemes & Murphy 2009). They did, however, consider some of these limitations and have explained them within their model. Yet still, given the multicultural nature of the schools under study, this model does not serve the purpose of this study. The researcher argues that understanding school organisational culture in the selected schools would require a more universal approach. The universal nature that the researcher calls for is one that is related to what all human beings would agree on, regardless of their culture. A theory that emerges from the schools themselves, given their multicultural nature, can be one way of achieving this.

‘Expressions of leadership’, a new perspective

The previous debates and discussions lead the researcher back to the concept of expressions of leadership and the importance of placing them at the heart of research on leadership, especially when organisational culture is woven in with leadership. If we consider that morals, norms and values are the only road to studying educational leadership, there still remains a problem of the actual values and beliefs a leader holds, and how that leader expresses them. It has been well established that context, structure and culture all determine how the leader’s values are developed and expressed. Paradoxically, they can also function as obstacles in front of actually enacting them. Herein lies a crucial limitation to both current models of leadership and organisational culture, and research

methodologies that target only one perspective. Even with phenomenological approaches that consider the very finest and deepest retrospective reflections of one's mind, it would still be like capturing a small part of a corner in a room and directing a spotlight on it. Indeed, it has its value, but that very same room, if we consider it a school, there are teachers all around, and students are in their care, which necessitate more than a myopic corner view. The researcher argues that if we are to understand educational leadership and organisational culture there is a need to focus on the difference between the values that one holds and whether it is actually expressed as it is, or has been suppressed because of an internal or external influence. This is not a form of Kantian deontological ethics, where the categorical imperative guides and controls actions (Kant and Gregor 1991). 'Moral feelings' according to Kant are dependable on the coherence or inconsistency with the law of duty. In educational leadership, this might not always be applicable. For example, a school principal, can violate his or her own beliefs to attend to a duty and still remain dissatisfied, even if the consequence of their action is in line with their duty. Or, the same principal might attend to a law of duty but that law in itself can have unpleasant consequences on a group of people, such as teachers or students. Therefore, the consequences of actions cannot be fully dismissed as Kant assumes. Or to be more precise, so as to not misinterpret Kant's actual concept where the intention of the moral agent is the defining element of ethics rather than the consequence of their actions, the intentions of a school leader may not be identified or understood by the follower. The other aspect that separates this concept from Kantian deontological ethics is the notion of 'conscience' and that duty serves "to cultivate one's conscience, to sharpen one's attentiveness to the voice of inner judge to use every mean to obtain a hearing for it" (Kant & Gregor 1991, p. 202). Again, the researcher is tempted to say that individual intentions cannot always be easily expressed, nor can the leader's conscience.

The dual subjectivity of leadership practices

The researcher calls for examining a dual subjectivity, an individual and a collective one that a school leader, in particular, might experience. As discussed earlier, the changes in school leaders' roles as a result of the 1988 ERA, an external influence, completely changed how teachers perceived their leaders. This

doesn't necessarily mean that the leader has changed his or her values. Rather, the norms and values of the school as an organisation changed in response to this external influence. Once again, research has shown that values and norms in an organisation can be different in the public or private sector. So how does that impact on the same leader who has worked in schools before 1988 ERA? Similarly, how does that impact on the same leader who has worked in the private sector and then decides to move to the public sector? Would the leadership style be the same or different in each sector? Would that mean that leaders function with multiple identities?

Recent research has paid special attention to the concept of multiple or dual identity organisation and the effect of external and internal influences on shaping this identity (Desai 2017; Gehman Trevino & Garud 2013; Gioia et al. 2013; Pratt & Foreman 2000; Roberts & Dutton 2009, 2011). The concept of organisational identity is not new and there is substantial literature in this area. Certain terms like 'managerial values' and 'values work' have emerged, and several aspects have been recognised as a gap in the literature of research in this field. Some of which are the influence of such organisations on managerial practices and values; positive identities and how they affect the leader and the members of such organisations; the effect of organisational culture on values practices; the interaction between values practices and sustenance of identity in dual-identity organisations. Obviously, a realisation of the struggles of the leader's 'self' and 'mind' and their interaction with organisational values, has come into view.

Understanding the difference, or the struggles within the leader's self, between the two subjective worlds, would present a more meaningful insight into the expressed reality, i.e., leadership. Pratt and Foreman (2002) paid special attention to the struggles that managers go through as a result of having to work with two opposite identities. This concept is similar to a person who experiences living in two different cultures, one is his/her own and the other is a different country. If that person moves from the native country to a different one, he/she would live in two subjective realities. These realities might combine and unite, or not, but understanding the differences among the two worlds, can actually help in describing the new reality that would be created should the person adjust to the

new culture, or not. The immediate argument that arises here is the extent that Identity Process Theory (IPT) (Jaspal & Breakwell 2014) can explain the adjustment to culture and the conflicts in identity, through known processes of ‘assimilation’ and ‘accommodation’. In some ways, this seems to be outside the scope of this research, but in fact, the researcher sees this as a relevant and similar issue and therefore brings it into the argument of this thesis.

Similarities are specifically related to the ‘symptoms’ that a leader might experience. The researcher’s focus is to understand the ‘decision-making’ process in a leader’s mind that made him choose one reality over the other. Precisely, what is behind the choices that have been made in order to carry out actions according to, or against, a leader’s beliefs on the one hand, and in adherence or disagreement with work duties, on the other? How does that impact on the leader’s own style of leadership, satisfaction, motivation, and those of followers? More interestingly, would followers perceive and understand this decision-making process? Would they be able to recognise the two subjective realities a leader is living? It is this difference that might be able to explain the relation between leadership and organisational culture, including that perceived by the members of an organisation.

Limitations of current leadership and organisational culture models

Current models of understanding leadership and organisational culture have fallen short of considering the above mentioned aspects and have focused more on context, structure and culture as indicators to reflect on organisational culture. But then, if these models have fallen short, what could be suggested to build on them or create new ones? The researcher’s argument above is based on an understanding that concepts like the leader’s subjective realities and decision-making processes all happen in the mind of the leader. Perceiving them by followers, also happens in their minds. So, how would a researcher capture that? Can leadership be manifested and explained through models and theories other than the existing traditional ones?

There is no doubt that understanding the relationship between leadership and organisational culture is rather complex. They are connected to many disciplines

and require multiple research methodologies to capture this complexity and provide a more holistic view of the phenomena. This is another similarity with researchers in the field of identity construction and IPT, or the social psychology field. They have recently emphasised the importance of erasing the divides in research between qualitative and quantitative methodologies and call for “methodologically and epistemologically pluralist approaches” (Jaspal 2014, p. 12) to understanding identity.

Interdisciplinary approaches in TVET research

Complexity demands interdisciplinary approaches. Researchers in TVET, however, seem to have a different view and believe that interdisciplinary approaches are hard to achieve, and even more so when applied to the field of TVET. The multiplicity and complexity within TVET systems themselves and the various influences from the public, are all constitutive of a separate TVET discipline (Rauner & Maclean 2008). This research may provide a different insight on these views. The previous argument that the leader’s self, values and the expressions of leadership are interweaved with the organisational culture, still holds for TVET. As a matter of fact, given the extra challenges that TVET schools and leaders face, more attention needs to be paid to human aspects of leadership and to the interactions with followers.

Organisational discourse and symbolic interactionism

Interaction means communication; an indispensable component in an organisation. It is “the lifeblood” (Boden 1994, p. 8; Harris & Nelson 2008, p. 221) that circulates in the veins of every aspect of an organisation, most important of which are leadership and ‘followership’. The researcher believes that communication through ‘talk and ‘text’ is an inseparable facet in both leadership-follower and organisational studies. This belief is widespread among scholars in leadership, management and organisations. In fact, it is only common sense that communication is important in an organisation’s life. What the researcher alludes to, however, is the less common belief related to the underlying meaning-making processes in communication (Mautner 2016; Oswick 2011). Another aspect that is less common, is the interaction aspect of communication which is simply the core of “social interaction and social institutions” (Schegloff 1987; Zimmerman &

Boden 2001, p. 3). What makes communication significant, is its symbolic nature that is behind the creation of meaning among a group of people, such as members in an organisation. Mead (1934, p. 327) emphasises that it is through “significant symbols” that communication happens. His philosophy on the ‘system of communication’ among a society is of crucial importance. He describes a form of an ideal communication system in which the impact of communication on a hearer is the same as the intended impact the speaker wishes to have on the hearer. This happens when symbols or signals among social actors cause the exact or similar reaction to both the speaker and the hearer. In Austin’s (1962) speech act theory, one could demonstrate this as the intention of the speaker being fully translated in the action of the hearer, without any misinterpretations. Mead believes that for a symbol to be significant, this ideal discourse is achieved.

Overcoming the ideal situation for communication

Theoretically, it would be an ideal situation for researchers to observe significant symbols. In organisations, this would be unattainable, for two main reasons. First, the intentions of people while communicating are latent constructs and cannot be readily observed. Second, even if they could be observed, it would be almost impossible to study on a large scale. It would require observing each and every single member in the organisation. For that reason, discourse/conversation analysis and speech act schematics have been some of the main approaches to studying language and communication in organisations (Alvesson & Kärreman 2000; Fairhurst & Coorin 2004; Fairhurst & Putnam 2004; Holmes, Mara & Vine 2011; Putnam & Fairhurst 2001; Silverman 1999; Tietze, Cohen & Musson 2003; van Dijk 2009, 2011), and within two main methodological categories: Language in use and language in context (Grant et al. 2004). The former is concerned with organisational conversations and text, which represents a micro level of the daily talk or text among group members in an organisation. The latter is the discursive construction of reality through language, which is more of the macro level system of discourses that predominates in an organisation and forms its ideology (Alvesson & Kärreman 2000). Another way to view research on language in organisations is through two parallel approaches, one is based on isolating text from its dialogic setting, and the other is to deal with text within a social interaction. The former is mainly driven by psycholinguistics, where signals are

treated as codes that are deciphered into verbal communication and then analysed for sentence structure. The latter approach is embodied in various disciplines like sociolinguistics, pragmatics of language and discourse and conversation analysis (Drew 1995).

Such studies, resolve the problem of capturing dialogic intentions among social actors. The focus on the ideal situation of a complete agreement is exchanged with a focus on shared understanding that can be explored through, for example, speech acts. This is a form of ‘intersubjectivity’ in linguistics (Traugott 2010) or, in conversation analysis, a ‘socially shared cognition’ (Schegloff 1991), where participants in a conversation maintain this understanding and make sure that the action taken by the hearer corresponds to the intention of the speaker. Schegloff (1992) therefore suggests a ‘repair’ mechanism whereby social actors discuss the verbal interchange and make sure that any misinterpretation is cleared. Interestingly, this does not only apply to verbal communication, it extends to written as well.

Rational social action and pragmatics of language

The merge between the two disciplines, social sciences and language/linguistics, has opened new doors in organisation and organisational culture studies. Rather than a rigid framework that defines, and thereby confines, dimensions of such research, i.e. structure, context, culture and processes, this combination works as a fluid disciplinary collaboration that gives these dimensions tractability.

Consequently, this interchange of different theoretical and methodological perspectives addresses the dynamic nature of organisational culture and attends to its constant creation and recreation. It also restores some of the underlying aspects of Max Weber’s four types of rationality as it relates to social action, where they are considered “anthropological traits” of human beings (Karlberg 1980).

Weberian influenced discussions about the different rationalities are outside the scope of this research, but the researcher borrows some of the concepts that are related to ‘rational’ social action and the ‘rational’ processes that underlay them in an organisation such as a school. The borrowing is threefold, the first is the anthropological aspect, whereby regardless of cultural or historical backgrounds, there are ‘universal’ tenets that all human beings share. The second is related to

rational processes that, according to Weber, depend on the interaction of various factors such as ideas, interests and values (Karlberg 2008, p. 1149). This emphasises the importance of human interaction and the reason why, in the previous hypothetical example, most parents, it is speculated, are likely to refuse replacing principals and teachers with robots. The third aspect is based on the two above where the researcher borrows the use of 'rational' to describe the strategies that school leaders use to maintain an agreed upon interaction with followers; one that achieves the 'goal' of interacting itself.

Placing this in a pragmatics of language context, specifically speech act theory, the 'goal', for example, in a school, would be to attend to the face needs of teachers. Accordingly, a rational process would be one in which the principal selects the most suitable way to articulate a speech act, such as, 'request' certain duties from teachers. Indirectly, the school leader in this context is achieving the ultimate organisational goal. However, instead of regimenting rational methods for school members to work on together, the leader builds on individual human interests of being valued through communication, by 'saving face', to create common and collective 'rational' ways of achieving organisational goals. Instead of focusing on separating personal interests of members in an organisation from those of the organisation itself, fulfilling a universal human being interest readily directs members of the organisation to place its interest at the heart of theirs. These ideas and line of argument return us to concepts such as Burns (2003) formulation of transforming leadership that portrays a leader as a 'dynamic' social change agent that empowers followers. Personal interests, thus, are not transcended, they are transformed.

The researcher argues that studying language and how people communicate in an organisation can bring the consensual dimension into the common practice, instead of a mere agreement for processes that lead to an ultimate goal. Achieving the goals of the organisation becomes a given, and it becomes a functional aspect that is achieved as part and parcel of the existence of the organisation itself. Language and communication become the core of the dynamic organisational processes (Tietze, Cohen & Musson 2003) and integral aspects of creating the social and subjective reality of the organisation. Accordingly, meaning will no

longer be ‘superseded by function’ (van Leeuwen 2008), rather they would complement each other.

Achieving this condition, however, is not as direct as it sounds. It is not a matter of selecting the right way of communication with followers in order to motivate and inspire them. It is not a matter of using a model such as the ‘Motivating Language Model’ presented by Mayfield and Mayfield (2002) to improve commitment, performance and satisfaction among organisation members (Mayfield & Mayfield 2012, 2015; Mayfield, Mayfield & Kopf 1998).

Communication, especially within the context of speech act theory, means that a leader is using language to create action and not only feelings of commitment and encouragement. Therefore (Tietze, Cohen & Musson 2003, p. 135) advise that

language must resonate closely with people’s experiences and expectations, and make connections between events and ideas that echo the listeners’ beliefs about truth. Otherwise, emotive, stimulating and creative language is unlikely to move people to action, or be unconditionally accepted as representing reality.

Communication: a determinant of the leadership-followership relationship

The discussions above provide further support to the salience of the relationship between leaders and followers, emphasising how they communicate with each other, how leaders drive the process of meaning making and how important it is to place this at the core of the influence of leadership on organisational culture. It also echoes Kets de Vries (2016) notion about the leader’s qualities of being transparent, receptive and approachable. Otherwise, how would communication become significant and how would mechanisms like ‘repair’ happen if there are barriers between a school leader and teachers? Most of the studies on language use or discourse analysis in organisations has not placed this relationship as the direct focus of research. In other words, the objective is not to study leader-follower interaction, but rather to examine the relationship between power and language in a social context. Critical discourse analysis, a major branch of discourse analysis, is concerned with the concept that power is not visible and that it is manifested in language (Fairclough 1989; Wodak & Meyer 2009). In contrast, leadership theories themselves have paid comparatively little attention to

the discursive sides of leadership or the language of leadership (Holmes, Mara & Vine 2011; Tietze, Cohen & Musson 2003).

Politeness theory (Brown and Levinson 1987), which is based on speech act theory, adds to the discussion an important dimension that complements the idea of mutual understanding among speakers and hearers in a dialogue. In fact, it addresses the considerations that are made when a speech act is uttered. It explores and investigates the various ways in which a speaker considers the ‘face’ of the hearer in order to minimize imposition and discomfort that results from ‘face-threatening acts’, like requesting and apologising. From a methodological perspective, this theory lends itself to pragmatics of language and can contribute in providing an in-depth view on the choices that leaders make, or the decision-making processes, in communicating with their followers. It also informs various methods that can capture decision making, which occur in the mind of the leader, and convert it into tangible discourses that can be analysed using defined criteria. The researcher argues that pragmatics of language can be an important way of looking into the complex nature of the inner struggles that leaders go through in defining their reality, and consequently creating it within followers and the organisation as a whole. The difference between leaders’ own value system and the one that is created in the organisation can be approached through this methodology. Therefore, leadership ‘expressions’ in this context becomes a literal concept. Leaders are what they say and how they say it, but more importantly, how it impacts on followers. This is different from the idea of “leadership as a discursive phenomenon” (Ford 2006, p. 77). The assumption is that both the phenomena of leadership and organisational culture can be manifested through the pragmatics of language, specifically, politeness theory. Combined with other methodologies, of course, a more comprehensive picture can be created about these two complex phenomena.

Conclusion

As much as reviewing the literature provided the researcher with rich information about the various approaches and limitations to studying leadership and organisational culture, it has also provided her with limitations and obstacles. To overcome these impediments and to design a research study that can contribute to

the very same literature but with new insights, the researcher recognised the three main goals that she intended to achieve from the two research questions. These three goals were then evaluated against the literature review on four main levels: epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and method (Crotty 1998).

Goal one: Identify transactional and transformational leadership styles in eleven schools, considering both the leader and follower perceptions. At this stage, the researcher is interested in identifying the general pattern of these two styles among the schools. An objectivist epistemological approach would serve the purpose of this goal. Literature review, however, has shown that this approach readily dismisses insights on the nature of the relationship between the principal and teachers. More importantly, it neglects specific and in-depth information about how principals and teachers create their social reality and how they ascribe meanings to it. This results in a lack of understanding about teachers' feelings and what actually led them to perceive their leaders' style as transactional and transformational. At the same time, there is an abundance of studies that adopt the MLQ as a method for identifying leadership styles, which can mean that the results of this research would be a mere addition to this abundant literature. Nevertheless, the Full Range Leadership (FRL) theory underlying the MLQ includes some important aspects related to the transcendence of personal interests that was previously discussed. It is represented as idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Additionally, less attention has been paid to a multilevel analysis of the MLQ results in multi-management structures of organisations, including a standard criterion for selecting the most suitable statistical approach. This becomes more important in this research, given that the MLQ is implemented in eleven schools. At the same time, the previously discussed idea of transcendence of personal interests to those of the organisations actually represented as idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration.

Goal two: Decipher the organisational culture as experienced by the members of the organisation. Given the complex nature of organisational culture, most of the models have been criticised for their limitations in providing a holistic view. For that reason, literature recommends the use of more than one approach to study

organisations and organisational culture. Using a specific theory confines the meaning of culture within a defined framework. This does not fit within the researcher's objective, which is to understand organisational culture as it is experienced by the members of the organisation, with a focus on processes, actions and interactions. Therefore, the researcher endeavours to move away from the most common approaches to studying organisational culture, replacing them with a focus on the human being aspect, keeping an open space for constructing what the organisation and working in it means to its members. The researcher concurs with Greenfield's (1973) opinion that the specificity of schools as organisations, requires research methodologies that lead to building theory grounded in data from within the field. In other words, the theory of organisational culture is created from the experiences, actions, interactions and sense making of its members, rather than confining it with a predetermined frame that readily neglects the human being aspect of members in an organisation.

Goal three: Look for a relationship between leadership and organisational culture. This means identifying whether a relationship exists and then understanding the nature of the relationship. Current models of school leadership and organisational culture fall short of looking at the inner self of the leader and focus on national culture as a set of beliefs shared among a group of people. In a multicultural setting, such as the schools under study, such models of national culture do not apply well. Another missing aspect is a framework that can explain the nature of communication between leaders and followers. The latter is of central importance because communication is the platform on which interaction happens. It is especially significant to this study given that an issue with communication was raised by teachers during the informal visits and interviews in the schools under study. Pragmatics of language and the use of politeness theory has not been identified in the literature as a methodology for understanding such an important relationship between two equally complex phenomena.

Researchers, especially novice ones, are tempted to look for systematic frameworks and apply them to complex phenomena such as leadership and organisational culture, so that they become easier to observe and measure in anticipation that research questions could be easily answered. This approach,

however, leads to “losing sight of the base phenomena itself” (Samra-Fredericks & Bargiela-Chiappini 2008, p. 654); the deeper and most profound aspects of human being interaction, which in fact, are the very reason why these phenomena are complex in nature. Once again, complexity calls for multiplicity, open-mindedness and inventiveness in research methodologies.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The structure of the theoretical framework was developed using Crotty (1998) four dimensions: epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and method. This framework is characterised by dual epistemologies that combine constructionist and objectivist views of organisational culture and leadership. Understanding the reality of organisational culture in the selected schools will not be based on an existing theory. It will be constructed by the participants based on their interaction with each other and with the researcher. Leadership styles on the other hand, are assumed to be an existing reality that will be described by the researcher through a predetermined theory. Accordingly, both the constructed and assumed realities will be grounded in dual theoretical perspectives: interpretivism and postpositivism, respectively. In line with the two theoretical perspectives, the research design is based on a mixed methodology that includes a qualitative and quantitative strand. Each is used in a manner that is consistent with its corresponding theoretical perspectives. Figure 2.1 below summarises the theoretical framework for this study

This study seeks to reveal school organisational culture as perceived and constructed by participants, and the nature of communication between them. A constructionist grounded theory approach (Charmaz 2006, 2008, 2014) using in-depth interviews (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009; Rubin & Rubin 2012) and analytical notes (Emerson, Fretz & Shaw 1995), and discourse analysis/ pragmatics of language (Austin 1962; Searle 1969) using discourse completion tasks (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984) represent the course of action for achieving the research objectives within the qualitative strand.

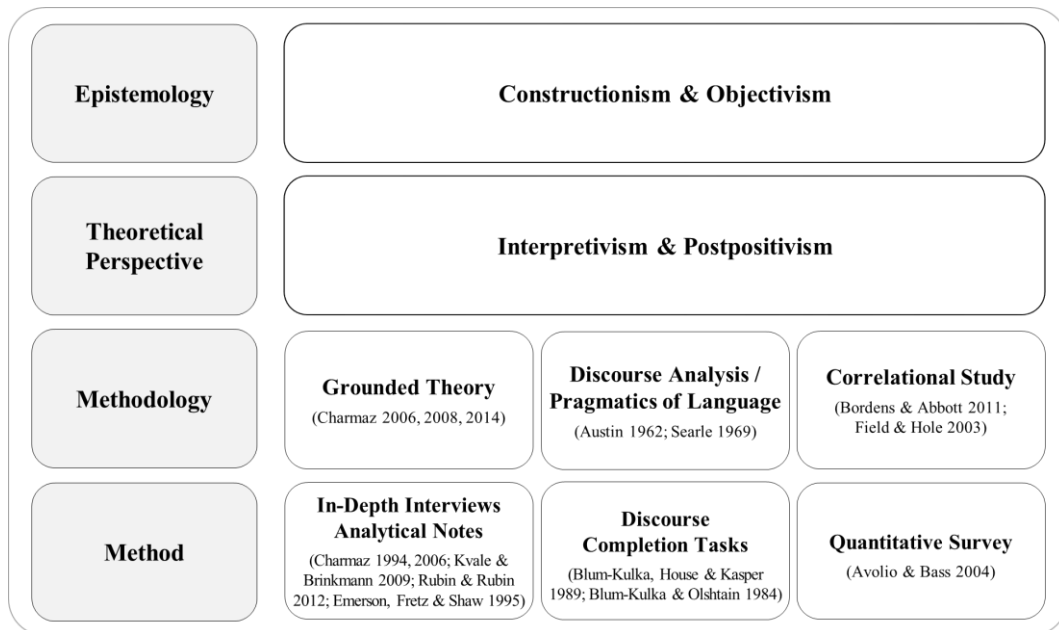


Figure 2.1: The theoretical framework

To describe leadership styles within the quantitative strand, a correlational study (Bordens & Abbott 2011; Field & Hole 2003) will guide the implementation of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass 2004).

3. Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

Implementing a questionnaire in a number of schools is a straightforward process. Not the same, however, could, or should, be said about the analysis of this questionnaire to identify leadership styles as transactional or transformational. A number of considerations need to be addressed in order to avoid a narrow descriptive statistical analysis based on calculation of averages. The level of analysis, extent of agreement between raters of a questionnaire and the level of sample homogeneity are all examples of important aspects to consider before a certain style is accepted as a meaningful research result. Studying associations and causal relationships among the different variables within a questionnaire is therefore essential.

But what about the perceptions and meaning of leadership to teachers and leaders in these schools? What about the meaning of organisational culture and its relationship with leadership? Would a statistical study be sufficient to bring out these meanings? The answer is, no. Then, why the reader might ask is it essential? Is the researcher presenting contradicting statements? The answer again is, no, the researcher is seeking to present ontological disparities that serve to complement one another and provide a deeper understanding of two complex social phenomena; leadership and organisational culture. The same applies to objective and subjective knowledge. Collectively, they can lead to more profound understandings. This does not necessarily mean combining the two epistemologies. In fact, some scholars see this as unnecessary, sometimes impossible, and argue that research questions within each perspective should be kept separate (Biesta 2010). The discussion above reveals the difference between a 'mechanistic' and 'social' ontology (Biesta 2010); the former explains a phenomenon and the latter understands the meaning of it. Organisational culture studied through a mechanistic ontology would be seen as researching external values and beliefs that exist, regardless of the members of the organisation, and therefore it influences them and shapes their behaviour, and that of new members who join. Through a social ontology lens, organisational culture is a dynamic and changing phenomena that is shaped by social actors, i.e., the members of the organisation (Bryman 2016).

The ‘complementarity’ justification (Green, Caracelli & Graham 1989) between the two ontologies and epistemologies, stems from two main methodological scopes in the researcher’s preferred research design. The first is the ‘dialectic stance’ of mixed methods research (MMR) where in a single study, all paradigms are assumed to be valuable in their contribution to creating a thorough understanding of a phenomenon (Green 2007; Green & Hall 2010). Thorough understanding of complex phenomena requires a ‘diversity of views’, both researchers’ and participants’; recognising correlations and disclosing meanings through a quantitative and qualitative approach, respectively (Bryman 2016). It also requires ‘enhancement’ of findings and therefore entails quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection (Bryman 2016). There are, however, other conceptual stances in MMR, each have their own specificity and represent major conceptual differences among MMR (see Green & Hall 2010, p. 123, Table 5.1 for a comparison among stances). The second scope is ‘methodological eclecticism’; one of the contemporary characteristics of MMR (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2010, pp. 8-9). It provides a platform to select the most appropriate methods that can best help with resolving research questions. Though this broad-based and inclusive perspective has been heavily criticised by qualitative researchers (see for example Denzin 2012), research in educational settings, especially schools, requires researchers of MMR “to be cognizant of the approach that they are using and open to considering the best alternative for their circumstances” (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011, p.54). As mentioned previously, there isn’t any background knowledge about the schools in this study. This gives the research an exploratory nature, and therefore brings in ‘initiation’ (Green, Caracelli and Graham 1989) as another justification for using MMR.

Statistical models are sometimes criticised for their rigid and scientific stances, when in fact they can be at the core of serving humankind. A social reality created in an organisation can actually be evaluated through a statistical model, not for the sake of generalising or validating this reality. Rather, it can serve as a logical approach to specify whether a shared meaning, about leadership for example, among a large number of people is agreed, or disagreed, upon. This is not necessarily to confirm it, although in some cases confirmation is important (see Bryman 2016, p. 654; Creswell et al. 2003; Tripp, Bies & Aquino 2002), but to

juxtapose an explanation with an understanding. Metaphorically, it is an attempt to ‘qualitatively’ extrapolate meaning over a large population while acknowledging and maintaining individual realities. The researcher recognises this as an additional strength of MMR, within the context of a school, its broad-based interpretation respects and values both the individual and collective worlds of teachers and leaders. Statistical models further serve to inform whether this agreement is by sheer coincidence, or is actually real (at least from the post-positivist’s epistemological world view). Extending the idea further, it can provide us with percentages of how real it is and to what extent a probability of error might exist? Considering that any school arguably exists to serve caring, educational purposes, where individual interests need to be transformed into goals within this purpose, MMR has the potential to bring us close to descriptions of ‘reality’, that can lead to more caring environments for students.

Indeed, it would be beneficial if the research produces socially useful and significant results, but the entire image would not be complete, nor would it exist, if the social reality itself was not created either beforehand or contemporaneously during the conduct of the research. To put this more forcefully, if the researcher does not attempt to understand this reality as created by participants, then waving goodbye to the statistical model might become the only ‘logical’ thing to do. It is a matter of “multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world” (Greene 2007, p. 20), this is what defines MMR. It is not that it purports to be superior to other methods (Bryman 2016), but to achieve specific objectives within a research problem.

There are various typologies for MMR designs, Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) provide a comprehensive list of 15 classifications of such designs with in various disciplines, including educational research (see Table 3.1, pp. 56-59). This research follows a mixed methods approach that can be classified under two typologies, two different names referring to the same concept: the ‘concurrent triangulation design’ (Creswell et al. 2003) and ‘parallel mixed design’ (Teddle & Tashakkori 2009). The researcher will use the latter topology to avoid the word ‘triangulation’ which is used in qualitative research and also been a point of debate (see Denzin 2012). Typologies in MMR have been a point of interest

among MMR practitioners, starting with those developed by Green, Caracelli and Graham (1989). They help in making decisions about designing MMR, give this field of research organisational structure and provide a common language within MMR (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009, p. 139).

Making a decision about MMR design is best done within a research ‘strand’ or phase. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) describe a strand as having three main stages: conceptualisation, experiential and inferential. Both quantitative and qualitative methods encompass these three stages and therefore, MMR includes at least two strands, one is quantitative and the other is qualitative. Within each strand there are a set of processes that represent the basic steps in conducting a research: asking a question, gathering data, analysing data and then interpreting the results accordingly (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). Based on this concept, the researcher used Creswell and Plano Clark (2011, 64) four key considerations to selecting the right MMR design:

1. The level of interaction between the strands.
2. The relative priority of the strands.
3. The timing of the strands.
4. The procedures for mixing the strands.

Table 3.1 below, summarises the researcher’s selection of key decisions about the research strands, which led to the research design.

The level of interaction is the most important aspect of the decision-making process. The strands are evaluated as either being ‘independent’ or ‘interactive’. This research is seeking to answer two main questions, one is quantitative and the other is qualitative. Each question will be addressed independently during data gathering and analysis. Therefore, the strands are independent. They are also equally important in addressing research questions, so they have an ‘equal priority’ as opposed to a ‘quantitative priority’ where quantitative methods have a more important role, and ‘quantitative priority’ where qualitative methods have a greater weight in addressing the research problem.

| Key considerations | | Type | Selected |
|--------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------|----------|
| 1. | Level of interaction between strands | Independent | ✓ |
| | | Interactive | |
| 2. | Priority of the strands | Equal | ✓ |
| | | Quantitative | |
| | | Qualitative | |
| 3. | Timing of the strands | Concurrent | ✓ |
| | | Sequential | |
| | | Multiphase combination | |
| 4. | Procedure for mixing strands | During interpretation | ✓ |
| | | During data analysis | |
| | | During data collection | |
| | | At the level of design | ✓ |

Table 3.1: Key considerations for designing MMR according to research strands
(Adapted from Creswell & Plano Clark 2011)

Commencement of the research requires a decision about the sequence of data collection and analysis of results. This is referred to as the ‘timing of the strands’, and includes three types: 1) concurrent, where both quantitative and qualitative strands are conducted at the same time during a phase of the research, 2) sequential, where one strand is conducted after the other, 3) multiphase combination, where the research includes several phases and sequential, concurrent or both, are used over the entire length of the research. This research follows a concurrent timing in data gathering and data analysis. The last important consideration for making a decision about MMR design is the ‘point of interface’ or the timing of the mixing between the two strands. This includes four points: during the interpretation phase; during the analysis; during data collection; at the initial design phase. The point of interface in this research is within the epistemological and ontological levels. In other words, at the design level, data are then collected and analysed separately, and at the interpretation level, the two strands are mixed again.

These decisions together define the parallel mixed design adopted for this research. Figure 3.1 graphically demonstrates the concurrent processes in each stage of both the quantitative and qualitative strands, and the stages at which the

mixing occurs. The end result is referred to as a ‘meta-inference’ (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009), where the research problem is resolved.

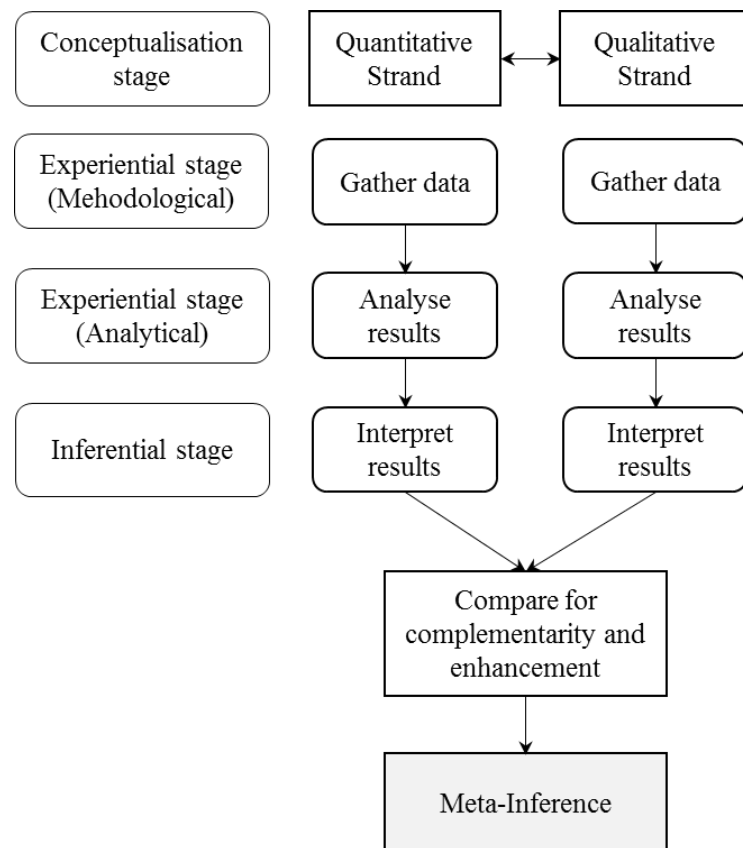


Figure 3.1: Parallel mixed design
(Adapted from Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009)

The literature review showed the various views and debates regarding both leadership and organisational culture and how one view, whether objective or subjective, is not sufficient to provide a complete understanding. The mixed methods design of this research will allow findings to be compared for confirmation, complementarity, consistency, diversity of views and expansion (Bryman 2016; Creswell 2007, 2009; Green, Caracelli & Graham 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie 2010). The quantitative strand addressed the first research question about leadership styles as perceived by the leader and follower, and data were collected through a quantitative survey. The qualitative strand addressed the second research question which included interpreting organisational culture and

identifying its relationship with leadership. Data were collected through in-depth interviews and discourse completion tasks.

Leadership styles were based on the FRL theory developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). The selection of a theory, as well as recognising the organisational structure of the schools, were both important for identifying levels of data gathering and analysis, and to choose the best statistical model to analyse results. Antonakis et al. (2004) and Avolio and Bass (2004) used the multifactor leadership questionnaire in their studies and applied confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling as statistical models in their meta-analysis of leadership. Their results were explained within the theory of transactional and transformational leadership and demonstrated raters' perceptions of leadership styles on both individual or group level. The statistical models helped in measuring the homogeneity of samples that extends beyond a mere statistical meaning. It helped in determining the consistency in the sources of evaluation, i.e., participants' ratings.

Literature review, however, suggested some limitations on leadership studies based on questionnaires. This adds another dimension of importance to MMR in leadership studies. It combines perceptions of leaders and followers with the actual leadership effects and then seeks for commonalities among the findings. This can lead to more insights on effective school leadership when compared to results based on using one method data collection, such as questionnaires in quantitative studies or interviews in qualitative.

3.1 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations in MMR are not different from other approaches. There are, however, some aspects that require particular attention related to matching results between the strands, especially if they are conducted at different timings (Bazeley 2010). Another aspect to consider is the number of participants of a questionnaire in comparison to participants, for example, in interviews. Given the large number of participants during the initial implementation of the questionnaire, sending a form would not have been a practical method for sharing information about this

research or obtaining consent, especially that the questionnaire was administered online. Therefore, two measures were taken:

1. The consent to participate was included within the questionnaire itself. Prior to answering questions, participants would read a statement which shows that responding to this questionnaire indicates an acceptance to participate.
2. An email was sent to all participants, with a summary of the research objectives, the approval from management that had been obtained, and their rights to anonymity and confidentiality.

As for the qualitative strand of this research, due to the nature of interviews and the detailed information shared by participants, a consent form was given. Both participant information and consent forms may be found in Appendix (2). The forms clearly explain the mixed methods nature of this research and how it relates to the purpose of the study. It also explains in detail the rights of participants, especially if they do not wish to participate. The researcher gave participants in interviews an extra option of being excluded from the research after the interview was conducted. This option had a dual benefit, the first was that if participants had a change of heart after the interview was conducted, they would not feel trapped. The second benefit lies within the process of revising and confirming interview accounts. It was explained to participants that after listening to interview recordings, they would have an option restating responses, changing them, or completely withdrawing from the research. The researcher found that this option made participants more comfortable during interviews, especially that the content of the form was explained in detail before every interview and signed by the researcher in front of the participant.

The researcher, therefore found that assuring anonymity and confidentiality have benefits beyond ethical considerations. The more the researcher is transparent and authentic about the participant's rights, the better chances of obtaining authentic interview accounts. As a matter of fact, Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) contend that the validity of quantitative measurements depends on the conditions of how a

questionnaire is administered. They refer to this as the ‘conditions of administration’ (pp. 61-62).

3.2 Quantitative Strand

The quantitative strand was designed to answer the first research question, which involves the measurement of latent constructs, leadership styles. Accordingly, styles have to be indirectly identified by analysing relevant dimensions or factors. Such a design is categorised under non-experimental or correlational research. Quantitative strands extend beyond measuring certain variables within a certain timeframe, they include studying casual relationships through experimental, randomized and quasi-experimental designs (Bordens & Abbott 2011; Field & Hole 2003; Shadish et al. 2002). It is worth mentioning here that qualitative methods could also be used to identify leadership styles. For example, Roberts and Bradley (1988) studied charismatic leadership in some of the schools in the United States through interviews and participant observations. However, the aim of the research transcends leadership styles to the interaction of leaders and followers and what it brings to the organisation.

3.2.1 Site Selection and Sampling

At the time of data collection, there were thirteen technical and vocational schools spread across different Emirates. A central management office runs the schools and therefore approvals to conduct the survey were made on both central and individual school levels. All schools were selected except for two in which the number of teachers was very low.

The schools include both academic and administrative staff, however, the ‘study population’ (Babbie 2007) included academic staff only, namely school principals, vice principals and teachers. No specific sampling technique was used and the entire study population was selected for administering the survey. The reason for that was twofold, the first was that this research is a case study bound by time and place, and findings will not be generalised to other schools in the UAE. Findings are specific to this type of schools, however, bearing in mind the return rate of the respondents and whether it would be representative of the whole study population. The second reason was that the questionnaire return rate from

the pilot study was low, and within respondents there were missing responses which eventually affected the total number of participants (*N*) considered for statistical analysis.

The choice of academic staff only is due to the fact that the focus of this research was access perceptions of organisational culture and leadership specifically from the leader, i.e., principals and vice principals, and follower, i.e., teachers' perspectives. There are various levels of interaction occurring within the school between administrative and academic staff on one level and within the academic staff on the other. There is also an interaction between academic and administrative staff and the school management. Selecting academic staff only, limits the interaction to one level and narrows the probability of a sample that is biased and not representative. Another reason is that academic staff, specifically teachers, are in direct contact with students and have a greater influence on them. This research is situated within wider future perspectives that need further exploration. It is therefore important to identify the levels of interaction in which organisational culture and leadership are studied. This is especially important in cases similar to these schools, where a central management governs.

The selected sample had around 500 male and female participants from various countries with a very limited number from UAE. The differences in perceptions of leadership styles according to age, gender, country of origin, and years of experience were not of interest for the quantitative strand of this MMR. Accordingly, participants' demographic data was not gathered within the questionnaire.

3.2.2 Instrumentation

The short form Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-short) was used to collect data. It contains a total 45 questions in which 36 represent nine components of leadership categorised into three styles: 'transformational', 'transactional' and 'passive/avoidant behaviour'. The rest of the questions represent three components that constitute outcomes of leadership. These components together form the FRL model (Avolio & Bass 2004). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), each of the nine components of leadership styles is

hypothesized to predict specific components of leadership outcomes. A long version of this questionnaire with 63 items is also available, however, this is usually used for obtaining feedback during leadership development programmes (Bass & Riggio 2006).

Statistically, leadership styles cannot be directly observed and therefore referred to as 'latent variables' (Antonakis et al. 2003; Bordens & Abbott 2011; Field 2009). In psychological terms, they are referred to as 'constructs' or 'factors' (Antonakis et al. 2004; Brace et al. 2009). Constructs are studied through a set of measurable variables that can be directly observed. In the MLQ, the 45 questions represent the measurable variables. Table 3.2 below shows the nine factors that constitute the three leadership styles and the three factors that constitute the outcomes of leadership.

The questionnaire includes two forms, the first is the 'leader form' where the principal self-assessed him/herself, and the second is the 'rater form' which the vice principals and teachers completed. Therefore, that this questionnaire describes and measures leadership styles from two perspectives: the leader him/herself and the followers. The ratings are based on a five point Likert scale that measures the frequency of how each statement corresponds to the person assessing him/herself or being rated. It ranges from 0 = *not at all* to 4 = *Frequently, if not always*.

The use of survey instruments in early quantitative studies on school leadership has been a major tool for collecting data. However, according to Bass (1998) these studies have tested the same hypothesis over time, resulting in "a paucity of theory and a lack of practical applications" (in Stewart 2006, p. 11). The work of Bass (1998) has led to the development of a factor analytical framework for two important types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Avolio and Bass developed a Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) in the late nineties to analyse patterns of leadership behaviours as an indirect measure for leadership effectiveness (Stewart 2006). The development of the MLQ had major impact on quantitative studies in school leadership and much research work has been conducted following the same approach of Avolio and Bass. Ross and Gray

(2006) used factor analysis to design surveys of Likert items to measure various dimensions of school leadership and its effect on teachers' self-efficacy. Hoffman and Hoffman (2011) also used factor analysis to develop questionnaires that measure multi-dimensions of school leadership and its effect on different variables that contribute to school effectiveness such as, students' performance in mathematics.

| Leadership Styles | Factors | Concise Description |
|------------------------------------|--|---|
| Transformational Leadership | A. Idealized Influence (Behaviours) (II-B) | Leaders behave in ways where they become role models to their followers. |
| | A. Idealized Influence (Attributes) (II-A) | Certain capabilities, such as persistence and determination, are attributed to leaders by their followers. |
| | B. Intellectual Stimulation (IS) | Leaders stimulate and encourage their followers to be innovative and creative in addressing certain tasks or issues. |
| | C. Inspirational Motivation (IM) | Leaders motivate and inspire followers and involve them in setting a shared vision for the future. |
| | D. Individual Consideration (IC) | Leaders act as mentors for their followers and pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth. |
| Transactional Leadership | A. Contingent Reward (CR) | Leaders reward followers in exchange of satisfactorily completing an agreed upon task. |
| | B. Management-by-Exception (Active) (MBE-A) | Leaders actively monitor mistakes in followers' tasks and take corrective action as needed. |
| Passive/Avoidant | A. Management-by-Exception (Passive) (MBE-A) | Leaders passively wait for mistakes to happen and then take a corrective action. |
| | B. Laissez-faire (LF) | The leadership aspect is absent or avoided. |
| Leadership Outcomes | | |
| Outcomes of Leadership | A. Extra Effort (EE) | Followers exert extra effort as a result of their leaders' performances. |
| | B. Effectiveness (EFF) | Followers' perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness. |
| | C. Satisfaction (SAT) | Followers' satisfaction with their leaders. |

Table 3.2: The Full Range Leadership model with concise descriptions
(Adapted from Avolio & Bass 2004, p. 101; Bass & Riggio 2006, pp. 6-7, 22)

The MLQ 5X is available in many languages including Arabic. For this research, however, the English version was used given that teachers and principals are from

different countries and English language is used for communication, and it is also the medium of instruction except for Arabic and Islamic studies. The MLQ was developed based on Western concepts and theories of leadership and therefore one of the first questions that were raised by the researcher, when selecting the MLQ for data gathering, is whether it is applicable in the Middle East, given the difference in culture. This aspect in particular, has been a major point of discussion among the developers of the MLQ. They believe in the ‘universality’ of transformational leadership where it can be observed in various organisations all across the globe (Bass & Riggio 2006), and of certain modes of leadership that exist or develop in all organisations (Avolio 2011). Drawing from Burns (1978), they specifically emphasise that ‘authentic’ transformational leaders “have goals that transcend their own self-interests and work toward the common good of the follower” (Bass & Riggio 2006, p. 16). Accordingly, they believe that transformational leadership is universal and its influence can be observed in all cultures and all organisations.

Meta-analytic findings supported the hypothesis that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional and laissez-faire leadership in maintaining followers that are more dedicated and satisfied (Bass & Riggio 2006). The foundations of the difference between transactional and transformational leadership lay in Downton’s work on rebel leadership (1973, in Avolio & Bass 2004; Barnett et al. 2001; Northouse 2007; Yammarino et al. 1993). A conceptualization of this difference became evident through the work of Burns (1979) on political leaders where he distinguished between ‘transactional’ and ‘transforming’ leadership. A couple of years before Burns, House (1976) published his theory of charismatic leadership that included descriptions similar to transformational leadership (Northouse 2007). Building on Burns (1978) and House (1977), Bass (1985) developed an expanded concept of ‘transactional’ and ‘transformational’ leadership to what he suggested as the ‘augmentation effect’ (Avolio & Bass 2004; Barlett et al. 1999, Bass & Riggio 2006). In his concept, Bass regarded transactional and transformational leadership as a continuum that extends to laissez-faire leadership. This is different from Burns’s (1978) model where theoretically he regarded transactional leadership to be at one end of the leadership continuum and transforming leadership at the opposite end (Bycio et al.

1995; Yammarino et al. 1993). Bass's 1985 concept comprised of seven leadership factors: charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulations, individualised consideration, contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez-faire (Avolio & Bass 2004).

3.2.2.1 The development of MLQ

The first MLQ version developed by Bass (MLQ Form 1) included a six-factor model and was presented to a sample that included high level officials from the United States military, and from there it went through several revisions. For example, factor analysis showed that the charisma factor is different from the inspirational factor despite having a strong correlation among them (Avolio and Bass 2004; Bass & Riggio 2006). Continuous revisions led to the development of the FRL model by Avolio and Bass (1991), in which leadership factors are highly transformational at one end of the leadership continuum and highly avoidant at the opposite end (Avolio & Bass 2004). The FRL model of the MLQ also went through several factor analyses to better refine the constructs. Different forms, such as Form 4, modified Form 4, Form 10, Form 11R were also developed and analysed by many researchers (Bycio et al. 1995). Examples of such analyses include partial least square analysis, using Form 10, done by Howell and Avolio (1993), and confirmatory factor analysis, using Form 1, by Bycio et al. (1995). Results supported the five-factor MLQ where charisma and inspirational were combined (Avolio & Bass 2004; Bass & Riggio 2006). Howell and Avolio's results further showed that transformational leadership had only one factor, Laissez-faire had only one, and transactional leadership had three factors: contingent reward, active and passive management-by-exception (Avolio and Bass 2004)

As described above, since its first form (Form 1), the MLQ witnessed many changes and different forms were developed and revised to better identify the constructs of leadership styles. The various forms were different in (Avolio & Bass 2004; Bycio et al. 1995):

- 1) Number of items and content.
- 2) Number of leadership factors.

- 3) Target population.

The forms varied in the purposes they were used for (Bycio et al. 1995):

- 1) Performance of leaders
- 2) Outcomes of organisations
- 3) Follower satisfaction
- 4) The effectiveness of appraisal forms

Examples of research conducted on the first three purposes include Keller (1992) and Hater and Bass (1998). Wildman's et al. (1987) research represents an example of the fourth purpose mentioned above.

The major aspects that were researched in the different versions of the MLQ included:

- 1) Psychometric properties/internal consistency of MLQ (e.g. Bass 1985; Hunt 1991; Smith & Peterson 1988; Yukl 1994 1999). Some of these studies showed that the initial model by Bass in 1985 did not give consistent results when various empirical researches were conducted (Avolio & Bass 2004).
- 2) Bass's 'augmentation hypothesis' where he believes that "transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting effects on associates' satisfaction and other outcomes" (Avolio & Bass 2004, p. 22). (See also: Hater & Bass 1988; Seltzer & Bass 1990; Waldman et al. 1990; Yammarino & Bass 1990, in Avolio & Bass 2004).
- 3) Supporting certain factor models, the correlations and intercorrelations between these factors (e.g. Avolio & Bass 1993; Avolio et al. 1995; Howell & Avolio 1993). In 2003, Antonakis et al. provided further evidence for the nine-factor model of the FRL MLQ 5X. This study and both Avolio et al. (1995) and Bass and Avolio (1997, in Antonakis et al. 2003) were the only studies that supported the nine-factor scale of the MLQ 5X (Antonakis et al. 2003)

The MLQ 5X was developed as a result of the various studies that analysed and critiqued the MLQ, specifically the MLQ 5R. According to Bass and Avolio (1993, in Avolio & Bass 2004) and Antonakis et al. (2003), the major points of criticism were as follows:

- 1) High multicollinearity between transformational leadership scales (Antonakis et al. 2003, p. 266).
- 2) High correlations between transformational leadership scales and contingent reward (Avolio and Bass 2004, p. 47).
- 3) The mixing of behaviours, impact and outcomes within a single leadership scale and distinguishing between behaviourally based charismatic leadership (idealized influence-behaviours in the FRL model) versus attribution or impact of followers referred to as idealized influence (idealized influence-attributed in the FRL model) (Avolio and Bass 2004, p. 47).

Understanding the various studies and criticism of the MLQ, may lead to some confusion as to which study better represents the best constructs of leadership scales. Each study can provide evidence of certain aspects that are related to the theoretical background of the MLQ, the factor structure, the effect of context and gender, the sample used and the type of organisation (business, educational, health, public/non-public sector, etc.). Researchers used a variety of statistical methods to analyse the MLQ, some for example, used exploratory factor analysis, others used confirmatory factor analysis. Bycio et al. (1995) criticised Howell and Avolio (1993) sample size and considered it to be low. On the other hand, Antonakis et al. (2003) criticised Bycio et al. (1995) results being on samples that were heterogeneous and did not represent same levels of management, despite that sample size was above one thousand. All these aspects were considered before selecting the MLQ 5X.

- Considering the proper statistical procedure
- Bass's intention from his model is not to detect a specific number of factors but rather to examine a range of factors that better represent FRLT

In their study chapter on methods for studying leadership, Antonakis et al. (2003, p. 62) recommend four quantitative methods for identifying 'boundary conditions' of a theory:

- 1) Levels of analysis (at which constructs operate).
- 2) Structural equation modelling.
- 3) Moderated regression.
- 4) Meta-analysis

This questionnaire has been widely used in research work and has been tested for its external and construct validity using discriminatory and confirmatory factor analysis (Avolio & Bass 2004). The construct validity of the MLQ 5X has also been evaluated starting with the confirmatory factor analysis done by Avolio et al. (1995, in Antonakis et al. 2003) and Bass and Avolio (1997, in Antonakis et al. 2003) using samples of over a thousand participants. Antonakis et al (2003) used meta-analysis to study a homogenous sample from the business sector of over three thousand participants that included males and females, and their results supported the nine-factor model and its construct validity. Antonakis et al. (1993) also emphasised on the importance of context and homogeneity of samples and attribute the failure of previous studies to replicate the nine-factor model to the possibility of these two important aspects.

3.2.2.2 Validity of MLQ 5X

Studies across the world for more than ten years have shown evidence for the MLQ 5X external validity. For example, the meta-analysis research conducted by Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam (1996), which also provided evidence on the strong relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. Face validity of the questionnaire has also been achieved through the expertise of leadership scholars and their contribution to the editing the MLQ 5X whether adding items or deleting them (Antonakis et al. 2003; Bass & Riggio 2006).

3.2.2.3 Implementing the MLQ 5X, permission and administration

A one year licence was purchased from the publishers of the MLQ ‘Mind Garden’ through their website: www.mindgarden.com to use the MLQ 5X. A PDF version the MLQ was provided along with the ‘Manual and Sample Set’. Selections were made to address the number of participants and the method used for implementing the questionnaire, which was using the online ‘Survey Monkey’. Following the guidelines sent by Mind Garden, the ‘Remote Online Use Application Form’ was filled and signed prior to creating the questionnaire online. The guidelines include placing copyright material on each page of the questionnaire in addition to sending a copy to Mind Garden prior to administering the questionnaire. Accordingly, MLQ 5X questions were typed in Survey Monkey and a link was created and sent to Mind Garden for verification. Upon approval, links were created and sent to schools via e-mail. Survey Monkey licence for an upgrade was also purchased in order to access the unlimited questions and 1000 responses options, otherwise, a basic plan would only allow for ten questions and 100 responses.

A five-phase administration method over an eight months’ period was used to implement the MLQ. Table 3.3 summarises the stages of responses and their rates throughout the data collection period.

| Response rates after: | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------|---------|--------------------------|---------|--------------------------|---------|-------------------|
| Principals | | | 1 st reminder | | 2 nd reminder | | specific reminder |
| | Same day | | 8 weeks | | 7 weeks | | 8 months |
| | 40% | | 50% | | 60% | | 70% |
| Vice Principals | | | 1 st reminder | | | | specific reminder |
| | 1 week | | 8 weeks | | | | 8 months |
| | 28% | | 43% | | | | 57% |
| Teachers | | | 1 st reminder | | visit | | specific reminder |
| | 1 week | 3 weeks | 4 weeks | 5 weeks | 7 weeks | 9 weeks | 8 months |
| | 10% | 11% | 19% | 20% | 21% | 27% | 32% |

Table 3.3: Stages of response rate

3.2.3 Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS version 19 (SPSS Inc. 2010). All analyses were done selecting the option of valid cases only, to ensure that any case that included missing data was deleted. The other general option selected was that measurements were made based on a 95% confidence interval. As a first step, the test of parametric data was done in order to decide on the path that will be taken to conduct the statistical analysis. This included testing the normal distribution and homogeneity of variance of the study population. An initial analysis of the original nine-factor MLQ 5X internal consistency of the questionnaire was done using the Alpha model of the reliability test. The option of 'Cronbach's Alpha If Item Deleted' in SPSS was selected to assess whether there were any items that were contributing to a low reliability coefficient. Reliability analysis was repeated for the factors that resulted from factor analysis.

3.2.3.1 Levels of analysis

Within the research design and prior to any inferential statistical analysis that was done on the results of the MLQ, the level of analysis at which leadership was studied was determined. This was an important step given the multivariate structure of the MLQ on one hand, and the multilevel organisational management structure of the schools being studied. Figure 3.2 below shows a model of the multilevel structure of management, which includes an executive level of management, a school management level and principals, vice principals and heads of departments at the individual school level.

According to Antonakis et al. (2003), some of the problems that were raised in volume 13 of the 2002 leadership journal 'Leadership Quarterly', included the lack of considering the level at which measurement of leadership is done. This is specifically important when followers are rating the leadership styles of their leader based on behavioural scales such as those in the MLQ.

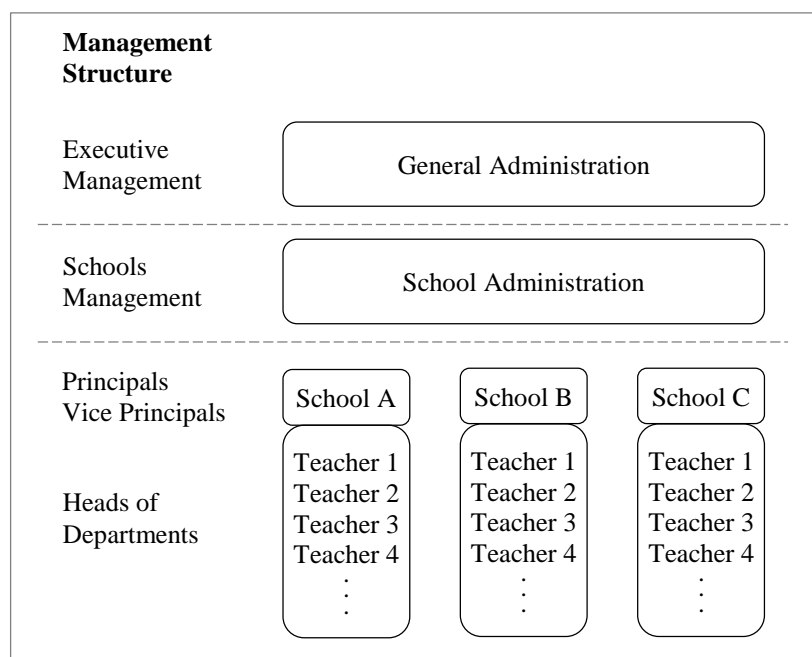


Figure 3.2: A model of the multilevel management structure of TVET schools

According to the organisational structure of the schools being studied, the data obtained from the MLQ can be categorised into three hierarchical levels of analysis. Figure 3.3 below demonstrates a model of the three-level hierarchical structure of data.

To address the first research question, data were collected from all teachers (in level 1) in all schools (in level 2). From an analysis point of view, setting the level at which this data will be analysed reflects the ‘contextual factors’ or the boundaries within which teachers conducted their ratings of leadership styles using the MLQ scale. The focus of this research was to identify the relationship between leadership style and organisational culture in TVET schools as a whole (Level 3). Therefore, the intended analysis of leadership was at the third hierarchical level. This required aggregating data to the third level and therefore aggregation had to be justified. This meant making sure that there is enough agreement among measures on an individual level, at the lower hierarchical data level, that these measures can be considered a representation of the group as a whole at the higher hierarchical data level. In other words, aggregation could only be justified if teachers’ ratings of leadership styles are in agreement with one another in each school and between schools.

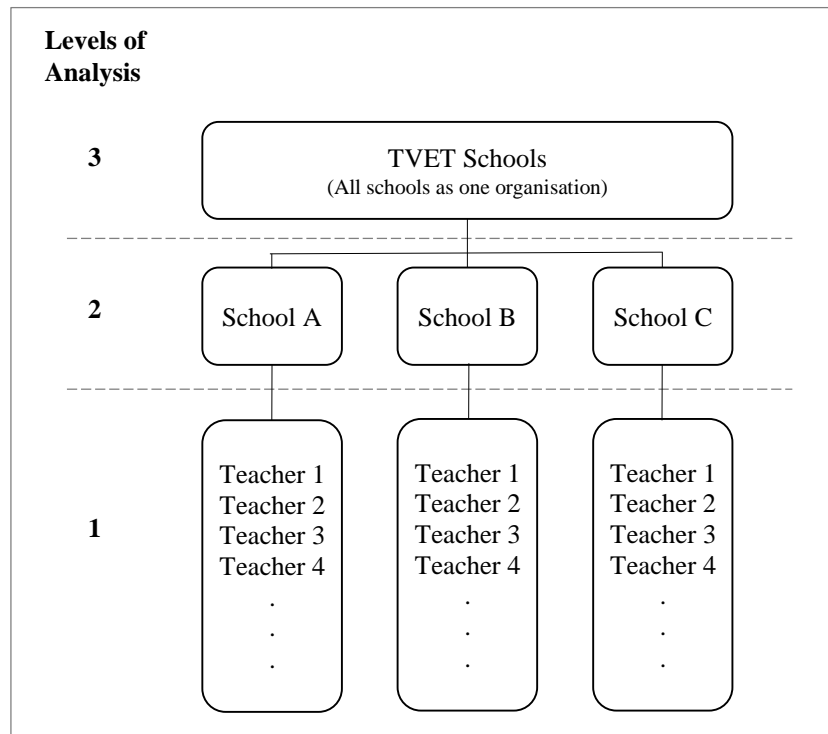


Figure 3.3: A model of the three-level hierarchical structure of data under study.

3.2.3.2 Test of normality and homogeneity of variance

The first step in statistical analysis is checking whether data are parametric. This can be achieved through testing the normal distribution of data by using either the Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilk tests (Field 2009). However, for the data in this research, none of these were used, due to the large sample size and the multivariate nature of data. The other test of parametric data includes Levene's test of homogeneity of variance. This test is important to evaluate whether there is a difference in the variance among variables in different groups. The assumption is that homogeneity is almost equal among groups if Levene's test proved to be non-significant (Sig. > 0.05) (Field 2009). Once again, large sample sizes, like the one in this research, may affect this test and therefore it is recommended that Levene's test should not be interpreted separately. Accordingly, and given the multivariate nature of the MLQ, homogeneity of variance was further supported by measuring the Intraclass Correlation Coefficient, and through principal component analysis. Both are described in the forthcoming sections.

3.2.3.3 Data aggregation and ICC

The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC), based on a one-way random method, was the selected statistical method to justify aggregating data to a higher level. Generally, ICCs are basically indices for measuring ‘interrater reliability’ (IRR) and ‘interrater agreement’ (IRA) (Castro 2002; Dixon & Cunningham 2006; LeBreton & Senter 2008). Kozlowski and Klein (2000) view two approaches to aggregating data from lower levels to higher, the first is ‘composition’ where both IRR and IRA are essential, and ‘compilation’ where individual responses do not need to be in agreement or consistent, i.e., IRR and IRA are not important measures. Therefore, the composition approach was chosen to support the aggregation of all individual scores into a higher group level represented as level 3 in Figure 3.3, i.e., all schools together as an organisation.

In organisational studies ICC is important in detecting the level of analysis where certain variables are measured within a set of constructs, for example leadership styles in organisations (Antonakis et al. 2003, LeBreton & Senter 2008). The importance of using this measurement for this study was twofold, the statistical importance and the leadership interpretation (among raters of the MLQ) importance. At the statistical level, ICC was used to examine whether individual ratings could be aggregated to one group at a higher level, i.e., representing the whole organisation as a group of schools. This was done to validate the research design that was based on identifying general leadership styles in TVET schools. According to James (1982, in Dixon & Cunningham 2006, p. 94) ICC is viewed “as the reliability of a single assessment of the group mean, or the extent to which individuals are substitutable within a group”. ICC according to this interpretation can be considered “a criterion for aggregation” (p. 94), especially if it has a high value, as this would mean that “a single assessment (or a single individual) can provide a reliable estimate of a group mean” (p. 94). On a leadership interpretation level, this is very important considering the hierarchical structure of management in the schools under study, and hence, the hierarchical structure of data being analysed (Figures 3.2 and 3.3).

ICCs take into consideration the variances within and between measures. In other words, it is a measure of the ratio of variance that results from measurements of

‘objects’ or ‘targets’ (McGraw & Wong 1996). Accordingly, it is based on the same assumptions of analysis of variance (ANOVA). However, in ANOVA there is the issue of non-independent measures that may affect the resulting statistic, which ICC overcomes (Castro 2002; Field 2009). The assumptions include:

- 1) Normality of data.
- 2) Homogeneity of variance.
- 3) Statistical independence, i.e., measurements are independent.
- 4) Measures are done on an equal interval scale. The five-point Likert scale of the MLQ is in line with this assumption.

These assumptions have already been considered as mentioned at the beginning of this section.

There are several types of ICCs and are referred to in different ways by researchers. There are also different terms, such as ‘object’ and ‘target’, which refer to what is being measured. The most common types of ICCs and terms used to describe measurements are those defined by the classical work of Shrout and Fleiss (1979). Shrout and Fleiss used the term ‘target’ and described six forms of ICCs, three of which they labelled: ICC (1,1), ICC (2,1) and ICC (3,1). They based this on the three possible cases that are present in reliability studies, and the type of variances that each ICC targets. Other common types of ICCs are those that are described by McGraw and Wong (1996) that are based on Shrout and Fleiss’s work, but include other types of ICCs as well. Castro (2003) on the hand describes ICCs in terms of ICC (1) and ICC (2). Despite the different labels used to define ICC types, they are based on the same fundamental interpretations.

The statistical model and analysis of ICC in this study was based Shrout and Fleiss’s (1979) guidelines and definitions of ICCs. So, the term ‘target’ used in this thesis refers to the principals being rated by ‘judges’, which are the raters of the MLQ (teachers and vice principals). Shrout and Fleiss (1979) describe three possible cases for reliability studies, and three major guidelines for selecting the appropriate form of ICC; these are described in Table 3.4 and 3.5, respectively.

The chosen selections based on the research questions of this study are also shown in the two tables.

| Case | Shrout and Fleiss (1979) statements | Chosen Case |
|------|--|-------------|
| 1 | Each target is rated by a set of a number of judges that are randomly selected from a population. | ✓ |
| 2 | A random sample of a number of judges is selected from a larger population and each judge rates each target. | |
| 3 | Each target is rated by each of the same judges, who are the only judges of interest. | |

Table 3.4: Shrout and Fleiss models of reliability studies
(Adapted from Shrout & Fleiss 1979, pp. 420-421)

The hierarchical structure of data in Figure 3.3 above justifies the selection of case one. In each school, teachers (the judges) are rating their principal (the target). This means that each principal in each school received a set of ratings from his/her teachers. Identifying leadership styles for all schools, as one organisation, is the target of the first research question, and using the MLQ means that each teacher is producing several values represented by the factors of the MLQ. Therefore, in order to determine the leadership style for each school, teachers' ratings for each factor are averaged. The interest of the study as mentioned previously, however, is not to determine the leadership style for each school but for all schools together and therefore the interest would be to look at sources of variance among targets, i.e. the principals.

Looking at case number two, the judges "represent a sample of a larger population of measures...that could have been used" (Field 2005 p. 953). Therefore, in this case if another random sample of judges were chosen to replace the existing ones, it would not affect the ratings. In case number three, however, the judges are not random but specifically chosen and changing them affects the ratings. However, this effect is pertinent to the interpretation of results rather than the actual calculation of ICC (Field 2005). Neither cases two nor three apply to the research design of this study.

| No. | Shrout and Fleiss (1979) statements | Chosen ICC form for this research |
|-----|--|---|
| 1. | Is it a one-way or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) appropriate for the analysis of the reliability study? | One-way ANOVA |
| 2. | Are differences between judges' mean ratings relevant to the reliability of interest? | No, the differences between and within targets are relevant and so are the variances that are due to interaction between judge and target |
| 3. | Is the unit of analysis an individual rating or mean of several ratings? | Mean of several ratings |

Table 3.5: Shrout and Fleiss ICC selection guidelines for reliability studies
(Adapted from Shrout & Fleiss 1979, pp. 420)

According to Shrout and Fleiss (1979), selecting case one entails a one-way ANOVA, which estimates the between-target variability. In terms of the MLQ ratings of the principals, the natural variability between principals' leadership styles will be estimated through the mean squared error referred to as MS_{rows} . So basically, the mathematical model for one-way ANOVA produces mean squares for both between-target (SS_{Rows}) and within-target (SS_w) (Field 2005; McGraw & Wong 1996). This means that the calculations include measuring the average rating for each factor (all teachers' ratings for one school) of the MLQ for each principal and the extent to which it deviates from the averages of each factor for all principals being rated. This explains the selection of 'average measures' made in guideline number three in Table 3.5 above.

To examine effects more closely, Shrout and Fleiss (1979, p. 421) describe several possible ones that happen as a result of a judge(s) rating a target(s) and therefore each of the three cases mentioned in Table 3.4 has a certain mathematical model that explains the results. Some of these effects are pertinent to the:

- 1) judge,
- 2) target,
- 3) interaction between judge and target,
- 4) constant level of ratings,
- 5) random error component.

For case number one, the judge, interaction between judge and target, and the random error components are combined and cannot be separated. As mentioned above, the one-way ANOVA between-targets serves the objective of the first research question, hence the selections made in the first and second guidelines shown in Table 3.5 above. The selections based on Shrout and Fleiss guidelines lead to the conclusion that the appropriate ICC form is ICC (1,1). The important interpretation of this ‘mean of several ratings’ ICC or ‘average score’ ICC is “the degree of absolute agreement for measurements that are averages of [a number of] independent measurements on randomly selected [targets] (McGraw & Wong 1996, p. 36). ICC (1,1) along with Cronbach’s Alpha, that reflects consistency between measures for each MLQ factor, give enough criteria to justify or not the aggregation of data into level three (Figure 3.3).

ICCs differ from other types of correlations in that they are used to examine relationships of variables in measurements of the same class (Field 2005 2009; McGraw & Wong 1996). Another useful application of ICC is to compare and examine the reliability or consistency and agreement between ratings of judges for a group of ‘targets’ (Field 2009, LeBreton & Senter 2008). In this study, the judges are the raters of the MLQ describing leadership style through nine factors, and the targets are the principals. The ‘same class’ to which the variables belong to in this study is leadership, and also each leadership style is considered a class. Accordingly, ICC was measured for each of the nine factors or constructs of the original MLQ and the factors produced from factor analysis.

One of the strengths of using ICC (1,1) is that it is an “unbiased estimate of the target” (Shrout & Fleiss 1979, p. 442). There is, however, a limitation in that its estimation of the population value, referred to as ρ , is found to be biased despite being consistent (Shrout & Fleiss 1979). ICC inferences about ρ dates back to Fisher (1925, in Donner 1986) and various studies have evolved with regards to procedures for ρ inferences. One of the main concerns is related to the relation between the magnitude of ρ and large-sample variance referred to as Vr_A (Smith 1957), and that with Vr_A but in small group sizes referred to as $V'r_A$ (Swiger et al. 1964). Assuming that ρ is a nonnegative value, it is basically a proportion measure of ICC of the overall variation in measurements that can be accounted for by

between group variation (Klar & Donner 2005). For significance testing of ICC results, it is important to report two values of ICC: one is the observed value, and the other is the value of ICC under the null hypothesis. The latter ICC is represented by the F distribution ratio with two degrees of freedom. In SPSS output, it is referred to as 'F Test with True Value 0', i.e. ICC is measured under the null hypothesis where $\rho = 0$ (ρ_0).

3.2.3.4 Reliability analysis

As mentioned previously, reliability was measured through Cronbach's coefficient α . The accepted value of Cronbach's α is generally between .70 and .80, and considered to be high around 0.90, but not accepted if it is below 0.70 (Brace et al. 2009; Field 2009, Kline 1999). According to Green et al. (1977), the number of items affects the value of α . The larger the number of items the more likely the questionnaire will reflect a higher α value. Cortina (1993), however, identified several problems with Green et al.'s findings related to the difficulty in evaluating the effect of variables within a factor. This was due to the procedures that were done by Green et. al. with regards to number of factors that are present in a scale and the communalities of items under each factor. Cortina (1993) follows Cronbach (1952, in Field 2009) recommendation that if a questionnaire includes several underlying factors then the reliability test should be done separately on each group of items that represent these factors. Still, however, the recommended acceptable values of Cronbach's alpha mentioned above, which are considered a rule of thumb, are not quite sufficient as there are some shortcomings that need to be considered (Brace et. al. 2009; Cortina 1993). To understand this, Cronbach's alpha is basically a measure of "the mean correlation between each pair of items and the number of items in the scale" (Brace et. al. 2009, p. 368). However, even though a high Cronbach alpha for a certain scale might indicate that this scale is highly reliable, it doesn't necessarily mean that there is a high correlation between each individual item within this scale (Brace et. al. 2009). It was therefore necessary to examine other elements as recommended by Brace et. al. (2009, p. 368-369) that are part of the SPSS output for reliability analysis, namely:

- 1) Item-item correlation (also produced from factor analysis).

- 2) Squared multiple correlation for each item (R^2 obtained if the item is entered into a multiple regression as a criterion variable with all other items as predictor variable).
- 3) The value of Cronbach's alpha for the scale if a particular item is deleted.

Reliability coefficient alpha along with ICC were measured twice, the first being for the original factors of the MLQ 5X to give a general analysis of the psychometric properties of the questionnaire. The second time was done for the factors produced from principal component analysis and results were reported in a separate table.

3.2.3.5 Factor analysis

In its basic definition, factor analysis is a multivariate method for reducing large numbers of variables, assumed to be correlated, into fewer numbers forming a construct or a set of constructs (Tinsley & Tinsley 1987). These constructs or factors represent latent variables that cannot be measured directly, for example leadership styles. Factor analysis is therefore a technique to examine the construct validity or, in a more detailed meaning, the “validity of inferences about unobserved variables (the constructs) on the basis of observed variables (their presumed indicators) (Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991, p. 52).

There are several methods for conducting factor analysis and the selection of a specific method depends on the purpose of the research, the underlying theory, and the type of data available. The purpose of using factor analysis for this research was to explore the factorial validity or construct validity of data produced from using an already developed questionnaire, the MLQ 5X. As mentioned in the previous section, various studies were conducted on the MLQ and not all supported the Bass and Avolio nine-factor model, due to the different methods that were used, the sample size and its homogeneity, the level of analysis, type of organisation and the context in which leadership is studied, and so on. It is therefore outside the scope of this research to compare and contrast the obtained factor structure with those obtained from other studies. As a matter of fact, the number of factors that researchers arrive at from factor analysis, not only for the MLQ but also for scales in general, can actually be an endless attempt even within

a specific factor analytic method. This was evident in a set of trials that were conducted on the data of this research using different rotations methods. The result was that three factor structures emerged: five, eight and ten-factor models. Examining the model fit of the MLQ to FRLT is also outside the interest of this study. For all the previous reasons, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was chosen as a method for construct validity. Other types include Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), which is one of the important factor analysis techniques that are used to test a hypothesis, or a model fit to a certain theory (Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991)

According to Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991, p. 67), “EFA answers the question: how many factors are necessary to explain the relations among a set of indicators and with the estimation of the factor loadings?”. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was the selected method of extraction, and found to be widely used (Glass & Taylor 1966; Pruzek & Rabinowitz 1981). There are various discussions about PCA related to whether it is considered a factor analytic method or not, and also whether the solutions it provides are similar to common factor analytic techniques, such as principal axis factoring, or different. These discussions go back to more than sixty years ago and debates have continued to categorise the method and the solution it provides in different camps. Borgatta et. al. (1986) and Hubbard and Allen (1987) claimed that results from the two factor analytic models are quite different. In a response to this claim, Wilkinson (1989) disputed Borgotta et. al. and Wilkinson’s findings and provided evidence that the differences can be negligible. Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988, in Field 2009) contended that there is little difference in the results generated from PCA and common factor analysis. Stevens (2002, in Field 2009) provided evidence that the little differences between results are only true when the scale includes thirty variables or more and they all have communalities above 0.7. There seems to be, however, an agreement that PCA is in fact a dimension reduction method rather than a factor analytic one (e.g. Field 2009; Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991; Bentlar & Kano 1990). Velicer and Jackson (1990) see that both methods share the same objective of reducing a group of observed variables to a new smaller set, i.e., dimension reduction, but it is the purpose to which this reduction serves that distinguishes one method from the other.

The mathematical details of these debates are not of particular interest for this thesis, especially given that the main point of discussion is the different algebraic and geometrical calculations and models related to the correlation matrices and the components of their principal diagonal. As a very simple example, in PCA the diagonal represents the standard variance of a variable, which is equal to one, while in principal factor analysis the diagonal represents communalities, the common variance that exists in a variable, calculated as square multiple correlations (SMC) (Field 2009; Thorndike 2005). More important are the lessons learned from analysing the various debates. They lead back to basics, and how identifying sources and sizes of variances and their effect on the validity of results based on the research questions, must first and foremost be the main focus for any researcher, should construct validity be attained (see principle II Kaiser 1970, p. 404 about simplicity). Another lesson learned from these studies is that in discussing the different approaches of factor analysis, the findings and conclusions should be categorised according to the type of psychometric analysis done. As an example, Chaplin (2005) discusses EFA and CFA within the context of personality measures. Categorising findings will allow, especially for non-statistician postgraduate students, to narrow the different debates, discussions and the confusion it produces, into one field of study.

Paradoxically, a factor analysis, dimension reduction, is needed for the debates about factor analysis. As a matter of fact, Kaiser (1970) enjoyed doing something similar to this suggestion except that he placed factor analysts on a scale of methodological interest that has EFA at the left end of the scale and CFA at the right end. The first factor analyst he placed was himself, categorising him as “an extreme left-winger” (Kaiser 1970, p. 402).

The selection of PCA ensures that the ‘total variance’ will be extracted. Total variance includes the ‘common variance’ shared with the variables or the indicators of the scale, the ‘unique variance’ that is specific to one indicator, and the ‘random variance’ that is due to error and therefore will identify sources of bias in the results (Field 2009; Goodman & Phillips 2005), which is particularly important when multiple groups are involved in the study (Little & Slegers 2005; Pruzek 2005). Linking this to the FRLT, PCA provided sufficient analysis of the

extracted factors, which represent the leadership constructs, that allowed the researcher to assess whether they were in line with the FRLT (not to assess model fit) in terms of the leadership continuum, i.e., having two opposite leadership styles at each end of the continuum. PCA results will be combined with the results of ICC to further assess the possibility of data aggregation. Two important considerations have been set here: the theoretical rationale for using PCA and the level of analysis in which leadership was studied.

Another important aspect to consider is the generalizability of results related to the type of factor analysis used, that is, whether the selected sample can be extrapolated to the entire population or whether the results are specific to that sample (Field 2009p. 637). (See Generalizability Theory, Brennan 2001; Cronbach et al. 1972; Shavelson & Webb 1981, 1991; Shrout & Fleiss 1979; Webb & Shavelson 2005)

3.2.3.6 Exploratory factor analysis

PCA was used as a method of extraction with orthogonal (Varimax) rotation, as this ensures that all factors remain independent, which is in line with Avolio and Bass's initial design of the questionnaire. The Kaiser (1960) criterion was used as a factor selection method and therefore only factors with eigenvalues above one were retained. Many researchers believe that this is a strict criterion and recommend retaining factors with eigenvalues above 0.7 (Jolliffe 1986). Others believe that both criteria are problematic (Nunnally & Bernstein 1994, in Field 2009) and that other methods than SPSS could be used to overcome these problems, such as parallel analysis (Field 2009). Kaiser criterion along with examining the communalities of each factor served the purpose of this research. Factor loadings were suppressed using Steven's (2002, in Field 2009) criterion where the cut-off value was set to 0.4. Therefore, any loadings below this value were not included in the factor-loading table.

PCA was conducted on the 35 items that constitute the three main leadership constructs of the MLQ 5X, transactional, transformational and passive avoidant (original number of items is 36, item number 17 has been deleted as previously mentioned). PCA was also conducted on the nine items that constitute the three

constructs of outcomes of leadership outcomes of leadership, effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction.

The first important step before considering any of the results of PCA was to check its reliability with regards to the sample being studied and the type of correlation matrix that exists. Once again, researchers provide many recommendations about which sample size would best support the reliability of results. As mentioned previously, ‘back to basics’ is one of the lessons learned from reviewing various studies about factor analysis and so the original model of Kasier (1970) was followed. SPSS provides a measure of sample adequacy that is based on Kasier’s model, as well as testing the ‘determinant’ $|R|$ of the correlation matrix, or the R -matrix, against the null hypothesis, to ensure that correlations are measured according to an ‘identity matrix’, and not a ‘linear dependency’ one. The following section describes these tests.

3.2.3.7 Adequacy of sampling and test of sphericity

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was used to test sample adequacy (Kaiser’s 1970 original model was: Measure of Sample Adequacy (MSA), p. 405). This test represents “the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables” (Field 2009, p. 647). According to Kaiser (1974, p. 32), who referred to this measure as “the index of factorial simplicity (IFC)”, values for KMO range between 0 and 1. The closer the KMO measure is to 1, the more reliable the factors are. In between, the levels of acceptability differ as follows (p. 35):

in the .90s – marvellous
in the .80s – meritorious
in the .70s – middling
in the .60s – mediocre
in the .50s – miserable
below .50 – unacceptable

3.2.3.8 Analysis of extracted factors

The last analysis was to examine the extracted factors (independent variables) and assess whether they are good predictors of the outcomes of leadership (dependent variable). Multiple regression was used for this purpose. Link the results with the Augmentation effect that transform augments transactional in predicting the outcomes. Report whether it supports the augmentation effect or not. Also, point out that the augmentation here happened literarily, provide research evidence that contingent can usually be part of transformational. Basically, Bass's leadership continuum is supported by the results of this questionnaire except that it does not differentiate into completely transactional because contingent was merged with transformational. The analyses were done on the results of the rater form that was completed by vice principals and teachers.

3.3 Qualitative Strand

This section describes the two qualitative methodologies, grounded theory and a combination of discourse analyses and pragmatics of language, which were used to interpret organisational culture and leadership practices, including the language of leadership. Charmaz's (2006, 2008, 2014) constructionist grounded theory approach was used to study the common experiences of teachers and principals from working in this organisation, and discourse analysis to further analyse how school leaders communicate with teachers. Leadership studies have often focused on the qualities of the leader or their behaviour, however, research in the language of leadership is less common in that respect.

While using discourse analysis and pragmatics of language might seem, at the first stance, to be moving to a different area of this research, it actually supports and complements the study by looking at ways in which the members of the organisation communicate. Lots of complexity surrounds organisations and the way they function, especially in schools and especially for the chosen schools for this study where there are three hierarchical levels, and therefore the researcher needed to look at various dimensions in order to capture a complete picture of the intended research problem. Martin and Turner (1986) recommend that "research methods must incorporate the complexities of the organisational context-rather than ignore or simplify them- to produce accurate results" (pp. 141-142).

Grounded theory, discourse analysis and pragmatics of language came hand in hand for this research on two levels. The first being the initial results of grounded theory which emphasised on communication and the influence it had on school staff. The second was the use of symbolic interactionism in developing the theoretical categories, the final outcome of grounded theory. Language and communication has been a missing link in the symbolic interactionism realm, despite the strong connection with it (Denzin 1992). This connection comes from the fact that communication is a form of social action and that analysing discourse, depending on the approach used, can help in understanding certain aspects of a social domain such as that of an organisation (Jorgenson & Phillips 2002; LoCastro 2012; Mead & de Silva 2011). Denzin (1992, p. 98) believes that

[t]he social practices, relationships, and technologies of communication symbolically interact. They do so in concrete historical moments, to produce particular ideological, emotional, and cultural meanings which are connected to the lived experiences of interacting individuals.

In line with the theoretical framework of this research, a social constructionist approach to discourse analysis was used (Jorgenson & Phillips 2002). There are various applications and usages of discourse analysis, such as: discourse theory; critical discourse analysis; discursive psychology (p. 1). Yet still, there are various discussions and ways of defining discourse analysis among scholars of language and language use. Linguists, sociolinguists or critical theorists, for example, view and apply discourse analysis in different meanings and perspectives (see Baker and Ellece 2011; Jorgenson & Phillips 2002; LoCastro 2012; Schiffrrin et al. 2001; Scollon & Scollon 2001). All of these discussions, however, are beyond the scope of this research. Instead, the researcher chose to borrow certain aspects of discourse analysis and pragmatics of language that served the research questions and the emerging themes resulting from grounded theory.

Both discourse analysis and pragmatics overlap with each other, because both are approaches to language analysis within a certain social context (La Castro 2012). The discourse analysis part was related to the analysis of macrostructures of texts to understand how the principal of the school communicates with his/her superior

and subordinates. The pragmatics of language part, included the use of Speech Act Theory, which incorporates meaning, force and the effect of the interlocutor's utterances on the listener or the receiver (Austin 1962; LoCastro 2012; Searle 1969). According to Ferrara (1985, in LoCastro 2012, p. 5), "pragmatics is the systematic study of the relations between the linguistic properties of utterances and their properties as social action". The core focus of pragmatics is the functional purpose of the utterance made by the speaker. For example, the purpose might be to convey an apology, or to request something. How such purposes are communicated, according to pragmatics, depends on the cognitive decisions the speaker makes according to his/her intention of the message being conveyed.

The results of grounded theory showed that part of what affects principals in their way of communicating with staff, is the negative influence of their superior. It functioned as a reminder of what should be avoided in order not to create a negative feeling among their staff. In other words, and in pragmatics language, the principals considered maintaining the 'self-image' or 'face' of their staff and their superior. This needed further elaboration and hence discourse leadership scenarios were developed and given to principals to respond to.

The following sections will provide more details on the two qualitative methods. Given the overlap between discourse analysis and pragmatics of language, and that a combination of both was used for this research, they will both be dealt as one method described in one section.

3.3.1 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory is defined as "a qualitative research design in which the inquirer generates a general explanation (a theory) of a process, an action, or an interaction shaped by the views of a large number of participants" (Creswell 2013, p. 83).

Using grounded theory as a methodology represents a reverse approach to the quantitative part of this thesis in which a theory, the FRLT, was identified prior to data gathering, and leadership styles in the schools were classified accordingly.

The theory or the description and explanation of both leadership and organisational culture in this part of the thesis are grounded in the interview data from participants.

Grounded theory initially emerged as a set of strategies or a method rather than a methodology at a time where quantitative approaches were under heavy criticism, or what Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. ix) refer to as the “qualitative revolution” in the social sciences. The etic/emic approach was among the main points of argument between qualitative and quantitative researchers (Guba & Lincoln 1994) in which Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss (1967) addressed through publishing ‘The Discovery of Grounded Theory’. Their work focused on recognising valid insider (emic) interpretations, grounded in the data gathered from participants. Some researchers refer to Glaser and Strauss (1967) work as the first generation of grounded theory (Birks & Mills 2011), which initially faced criticism on an epistemological, ontological and methodological level. Later generations of grounded theory attended to this criticism, and several changes led this method into becoming a methodology in qualitative research. For example, grounded theory was placed within pragmatism and symbolic interactionism theoretical framework in the Corbin and Strauss (2008) edition of grounded theory (Birks & Mills 2011). In 2005, Adele Clark introduced yet another version of grounded theory by placing it within the postmodern theory. She suggested situational analysis as another approach to grounded theory in which she proposes, based on the work of Strauss, three “cartographic approaches” (p. xxii), situational maps, social worlds/arena maps and positional maps. Clark believes that “social situations should form our unit analysis in grounded theory” (Creswell 2013, p. 84).

Despite being a qualitative methodology, the Glaser’s grounded theory is seen as lending itself to the positivism tradition, whereas Strauss and Corbin’s version is seen as compatible with the postpositivism tradition (Charmaz 2005). In coding procedures, both versions assume an objectivist approach to grounded theory, which caused another point of criticism among grounded theorists themselves. Based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss (1987) and Strauss and Corbin (1990), Kathy Charmaz addressed this criticism and others related to the strategies of grounded theory by linking it to interpretive methods (Charmaz 1983 1986 in Charmaz 1995, 1994, 1995) and introducing a constructionist approach based on three main aspects (Charmaz 2000, 2005 p. 510, 2006, 2008):

1. A more flexible approach is required in the strategies of grounded theory.
2. Using grounded theory to broaden interpretive understanding by emphasising on meaning.
3. Grounded theory can be used without adopting the positivists assumptions.

Charmaz's approach assumes multiple realities in specific social worlds with all the complexities they hold in people's views and actions. Charmaz's constructionist approach lends itself to the interpretive paradigm in qualitative research and emphasises on understanding the participants' experiences, feelings, opinions, how they make sense of things, their values and beliefs (Creswell 2013). The themes that emerge in the coding phase are therefore different from the set categories that Strauss and Corbin use. Her method is useful in uncovering latent phenomena such as leadership, power relations and communication. All of these elements are part of the organisational culture, which are the core interest in this research.

Despite the different versions of grounded theory, the most two widespread approaches are the objectivist approach of Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998), and Charmaz's constructionist approach (Creswell 2013). The core tenets in applying grounded theory based on Charmaz (2006, 2008, 2014) include:

1. Reducing predetermined thoughts about the data being gathered.
2. Gathering rich data
3. Theoretical sampling-sampling for theory building and not representativeness
4. Collecting, analysing and comparing data concurrently.
5. Writing analytical notes, or memo-writing.
6. Coding and developing theoretical categories.
7. Constructing the theory.

In studying organisational culture, this can be an obstacle towards reflecting the actual shared feeling of employees about the place they are working in and how

they make sense of it, how it affects the way they are working and how they perceive leadership meaning.

The researcher's role is mainly focused in the design of the interview that includes open ended questions that allow the participant to provide intensive descriptions, however, within defined areas of organisational culture and leadership.

3.3.1.1 Reducing predetermined thoughts

Interpretive analysis assumes placing the experiences and views of the participants within their natural setting and based on how they make sense of it, not how the researcher makes sense of it (Denzin & Lincoln 2005). It is therefore important that any preconceived ideas about the data being collected or how it fits into a certain theory must be dealt with prior to and during the data collection phase. Literature review for the grounded theory part can influence how data is approached and therefore it was done after the theoretical categories were developed and not at the beginning of gathering data. This is exactly what Charmaz (1995) described as part of the main characteristics of grounded theory within an interpretive constructionist framework.

Leaving the literature review till the end does not mean that everything is left out without any knowledge about the topic to be researched or the people to be interviewed. The literature review that is delayed in grounded theory is specific to the theoretical categories that are developed and not for the research as a whole. In this dissertation for example, the literature review was already conducted during the proposal development phase in preparation for the proposal defence. In fact, the university mandates the literature review as part and parcel of the research proposal. It is therefore important to distinguish between the general literature review for the research and the specific and more focused literature review for the developed theoretical categories in grounded theory. Also, one must keep in mind that a literature review for a dissertation is different from that for a book chapter or a journal article.

Delaying literature review for this part of the research about organisational culture is of special importance given the rich literature on this field and the various

approaches to studying culture. It actually made it difficult to completely isolate what is already known about organisational and how it should be studied. Therefore, and in order to shift the focus from the researcher's thoughts to the participants', several measures were taken. The first, as mentioned above was delaying literature review for the grounded theory part. The question was, how will the questions be formed and what would be the best way to initiate the interviews that can give rich data about organisational culture. The other question was what is it that the researcher is looking for in organisational culture to gather rich data about. This part cannot be left open as this can result in overwhelming amount of data that would be difficult to handle. This is where the second measure was taken which was conducting informal visits and interviews. A total of twelve hours was spent in visiting the schools of interest and informally speaking to principals, vice principals and teachers. This helped in forming an idea, based on their interpretations of working in these schools, about what to look for in the initial interview questions. The third was writing notes immediately after the visits and sketch some ideas about what areas of organisational culture will be studied. Table 3.6 summarises the procedures taken to reduce preconceived ideas about data.

| Measure taken | Purpose | Examples |
|--|---|---|
| Delaying literature review about studying organisational culture | Not being influenced by the existing theories of organisational culture | N/A |
| 12 hours of informal visits and interviews | Participants views as a source for interview ideas | "[We] don't [have a leadership role], nor does the principal" |
| Writing analytical notes: (Emerson et al. 1995) | Making sure that information is not lost | |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In-process memos | | Note that the head of department didn't want the role anymore, feeling loaded with unnecessary work and responsibilities. |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asides | | Ask about events at the beginning of the school year. |

Table 3.6: Reducing preconceived ideas about data

3.3.1.2 Gathering rich data

As a postgraduate student using grounded theory for the first time and conducting interviews for that matter, going to an interview with supporting questions drawn from the informal interviews helped in strengthening confidence. Ideally, in a constructionist approach, interview questions are shaped gradually as ideas emerge from coding and analysing data from initial interviews. A slightly modified approach to this method was used within two aspects:

- 1) The use of informal interviews to form an idea about what to ask for.
- 2) The use of policy documents to get some forethought about the organisational and management structures. This helped in understanding the descriptions given by the interviewees.

Being open to data and limiting preconceived ideas about the data are essential in conducting grounded theory. Yet this does not mean that one completely walks into the interview, or any data gathering method for that matter, with no knowledge. Having some a priori ideas helps understand data, understand the context that the participants are speaking within and more importantly, especially for a postgraduate student, helps in making a better judgment about when to pose and when to ask for an elaboration during an interview. Familiarity with the areas to be explored in a phenomenon or a lived experience is also very important in order to ask relevant questions (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009).

The first general interview question ‘what is it like to work here?’ was fundamental in revealing some of the major events and processes, which further helped in shaping the rest of the questions after the first few interviews. More importantly, initiating the interview with this question set the context that helped interviewees reflect on their lived experience in the school they are working in and what this experience meant to them. This is especially important in understanding organisational culture where the researcher was looking for specific events, experiences and values through the phrases or words that participants might repeatedly use.

Reflecting on a lived experience and its meaning to the person represents the core principle of phenomenological research where the researcher seeks to gather thorough data sufficient enough to derive the main aspects of the lived experience (Moustakas 1994). The research methodology for this research was based on a constructionist approach to grounded theory and not phenomenology. The first interview question, however, was developed by borrowing this aspect of phenomenology, keeping in mind that the focus of grounded theory is to inductively provide a theory or explanation to a phenomenon as described by the participants rather than the pure focus of exploring and understanding what the essence of this phenomenon means to the participant; in which phenomenology entails. At the same time, when looking at Charmaz's (1994) study of chronically ill men, it is found that her goal was to explain what it meant to experience chronic illness. Questions were designed to elicit a phenomenon or a lived experience and understand what it meant to the person. This again brings in a similarity with phenomenology, which can be justified given that both methodologies belong to the same interpretive theoretical framework.

Interpretivism, in its ontological beliefs, denotes the presence of multiple realities "that are constructed through our lived experiences and interactions with each other" (Creswell 2013, p. 36). On the other hand, phenomenology includes some common philosophical aspects of constructivism in that reality is constructed through the human experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) although there are different debates among theorists regarding, for example, reflexivity in constructivism and phenomenology. (example discussions may be found in Rasmussen 1998 and Seigfried 1976).

Comparing among different research methodologies, such as phenomenology and grounded theory, was useful in understanding that the boundaries between them can in some areas of data gathering methods be 'porous' as Starks and Trinidad (2007) refer to it, depending of course on the objective of the research question. Grounded theory and phenomenology share some common characteristics, especially during interviewing, like seeking rich descriptions of participants' experiences as perceived by them (Baker et al 1992; Winpenny & Gass 2000), which means that questions are developed to be general and exploratory in nature

rather than interrogative. One important difference that was also kept in mind is that in grounded theory one should attempt to narrow the range of topics that are investigated in order “to gather specific data for developing our theoretical frameworks as we proceed with conducting the interviews” (Charmaz 2006, p. 29). Other similarities were found in terms of the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. In phenomenology, however, there are different approaches depending on the phenomenological tradition, whether it is the European Husserlian phenomenology or the North American tradition such as that of Shutz (1972). For a detailed description and comparison see for example Crotty (1996) and Winpenny and Gass (2000). Charmaz’s constructionist approach emphasises on the importance of the role of the researcher and the participant in constructing meaning and that this construction is mutual. At the same time, one’s own thoughts and interpretations must remain bracketed during the interview and should not influence the views of the interviewee. Yet, “no qualitative method rests on pure induction – the questions we ask of the empirical world frame what we know about it” (Charmaz 2008, p. 206). During the analysis of data, one’s own interpretations contribute to the development of the theoretical categories, it cannot be fully isolated. This represents a major point of difference between the subjective constructionist and the objectivist approach to reporting the results of grounded theory.

Despite some similarities in the data gathering methods, each methodology maintains its rigour, specificity, intellectual foundations and strategies. Table 3.7 below summarises a comparison between the two interpretive research methodologies based on five characteristics (Creswell 2013). Another way of looking at Grounded theory and phenomenology maybe found in Crotty (1998).

The focus on processes represented one of the key areas for understanding organisational culture and therefore more emphasis was made on narrowing the topics that emerged from the first interview question to those related to how things are done in the organisation, how do members communicate and what are the major events that happen in the school on regular and unusual basis, all together linked with leadership practices and the role of the leader in these events. For example, most of the answers to the first question included recurring phrases

about the amount of work and tasks required from staff. These were general answers to a general question which was narrowed down to: “can you describe what a normal and unusual week at the school looks like? Let’s start with a normal week”. Meetings were one of the events that happen in all heads of department normal week. Therefore, this was followed by a question that elicits their roles individually in these meetings. By asking this question the described organisational process moved into a different level, from indicating a collective practice to looking at the individual participation in this process. Which means, looking at the participant’s views, i.e., interpreted world.

| Characteristics | Phenomenology | Grounded Theory |
|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Focus | Understanding the essence of an experience | Developing a theory grounded in data from the field |
| Type of problem best suited | Needing to describe the essence of lived phenomena | Grounding a theory in the views of participants |
| Discipline background | Drawing from philosophy, psychology and education | Drawing from sociology |
| Unit of analysis | Studying several individuals who have shared the experience | Studying a process, an action, or an interaction involving many individuals |
| Data collection forms | Interviews with individuals | Interviews with 20-60 individuals |
| Data analysis strategies | Analysing data for significant statements, meaning units, structural descriptions | Analysing data through coding |

Table 3.7: Comparison between grounded theory and phenomenology
(Adapted from Creswell 2013, pp. 104-106)

While some participants responded to the first question with details, others responded with just one word such as ‘challenging’. In this case, the previously prepared supporting questions such as ‘what made you say that?’ helped in mitigating the situation and opened the door for the participant to amply describe how it is like to work in the school.

Flexibility in interviewing was an important aspect during the interview. No two interviews were exactly the same in terms of asking the same set of questions or in the same sequence. Some of the responses were detailed that fewer questions were needed. Charmaz (2006) describes grounded theory interviewing as similar to in-depth interviewing in its flexibility. Questions that are aimed to study organisational culture are generally less structured in order to allow more ideas to emerge and also to give room for participants to elaborate on certain events that can show how certain behaviours are manifested or how things are done in an organisation (Rubin & Rubin 2012).

The most important part of the interview was establishing rapport with participants. Interpret inquiry entails entering the world of participants and therefore participants need to trust the researcher and need to feel respected; building rapport is one way of building this trust and showing respect (Charmaz 2006). Several actions were taken in order to build this rapport, the first was the initial informal interviews, which was an opportunity for the researcher to introduce herself and talk about the purpose of the interview. The second action was explaining to the participants their rights in this interview and assuring them that should they feel uncomfortable at any point during or after the interview, they may withdraw provided it's during the data collection period. The third action was that the researcher assured participants that they would receive an audio file to review and confirm their answers. All these aspects were explained and were also written in detail in the participant consent form in which the researcher signed first in front of the participants before initiating any interview.

While conducting the interview, Rubin and Rubin (2012) point out that active listening should be prioritized over asking questions. This comes in line with Charmaz's four main principles for interviewing, which first places the interviewee comfort before the importance of getting the data the researcher needs. The second principle includes choosing the right moment to use probing questions. Interrupting the flow of an interview may result in losing important data and so choosing the right time is fundamental. Thirdly, understanding the participants' views and acknowledging their importance to them. The fourth and last principle is ending the interview on a positive note by gearing towards

questions that can give positive answers. This is especially important when the participant has been talking about a distressing experience. Such questions help in bringing the participant back to the normal level started with at the beginning of the interview.

3.3.1.3 Theoretical sampling, saturation and sorting

Theoretical sampling is a distinctive way of sampling in grounded theory. It differs from all other sampling methods in that it is for theory building and not representativeness of the population (Charmaz 1995, 2006, 2014). The aim is to build theoretical categories and therefore reaching saturation in data and participants determines the level of sampling. Typically, sampling is the initial step in research practices. In grounded theory, however, theoretical sampling is a gradual process that is based on the simultaneous collection, analysis and comparison of data (Charmaz 2006; Glaser & Strauss 1967). In this research, theoretical sampling was applied in terms of data, information and events and not participants. The type of participants was already defined based on three points, the first is the purpose of this research that looks into school academic staff only. This included teachers and heads of departments, vice principals and principals. This selection was further supported by the second point which is the informal interviews and the initial ones conducted with principals, which clearly revealed that the main actors were the principal, vice principal and teachers, especially heads of departments. The third point was the school's publicly published documents that show the organisational structure and policies of some of the core processes.

Prior to sampling, site selection was made because there were 11 schools. Only two were selected for conducting the interviews. That selection was made based on four factors:

- 1) Selecting in the same Emirate to exclude possible influence of local culture.
- 2) Same student gender to exclude any possible differences in managing a male or female school.

- 3) General academic performance of students to exclude possible special measures that might affect the way these schools are managed.
- 4) Accessibility of data sharing and willingness to participate.

These two schools will be referred to hereafter as School A and School B. The total number of participants from the two schools was 24 divided as:

- Two principals
- Two vice principals
- Twenty teachers, 10 from each school, including heads of departments

Reaching saturation of data was based on teachers' interviews, and so the selection of twenty teachers was done accordingly. As a matter of fact, saturation was reached after the sixteenth interview with teachers but an additional four interviews were conducted for further confirmation. Again, this was done due the researcher doing grounded theory for the first time. During the last four interviews, responses no longer guided further comparisons among the data listed in each theoretical category. This gave the researcher confidence that saturation has been reached. The important point that was kept in mind was that the purpose of reaching saturation was to generate the theoretical categories and not to generalise the results. Data have to be sufficient enough to compare and analyse in order to develop the categories and then build them into main concepts that constitute the emerging theory. Accordingly, ending the selection of participants was not done because there were no more ideas to emerge. In fact, almost every interview had a new idea, including the last twentieth interview conducted. What guided the researcher to stop was that there were no more data that can aid in evaluating, comparing and contrasting data within the emerging theoretical categories and making "abductive inferences" (Charmaz 2006, p. 104) about this data. "Categories are saturated when gathering fresh data no longer sparks new theoretical insights, nor reveals new properties of these core theoretical categories" (p. 113). This is actually what distinguishes theoretical sampling from other types in qualitative research. Charmaz identifies four common types of sampling that are confused with theoretical sampling (p. 100):

1. Sampling to address initial research questions
2. Sampling to reflect population distributions
3. Sampling to find negative cases
4. Sampling until no new data emerge

More qualitative sampling strategies and their purpose based on Kuzel (1992) and Patton (1990) may be found in Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 28).

There was, however, an additional consideration to the selected samples with respect to organisational culture. As a setting, any school has sub settings which are the different departments based on subjects. Choosing participants from different departments was favourable for better understanding the organisational culture and making sure that the emergent themes are happening across. For example, the recurrent description of being overwhelmed with work was even more emphasised in one of the departments than the rest. It turned out that this department had additional duties due to the nature of the subject, which made some teachers feel that it is unfair. If sample selection did not include covering as many departments as possible, this data would not have been discovered. This selection does not necessarily lead to sample representativeness, though it may seem like it. Representativeness, mostly in quantitative research, is “the selection of individuals from a sample of a population such that the individuals selected are typical of the population under study, enabling you to draw conclusions from the sample about the population as a whole” (Creswell 2012, p. 142). As a matter of fact, Charmaz (1995) points out that theoretical sampling leads to selectivity in the sources from which data are gathered and this selectivity increases as more interviews are conducted. Accordingly, choosing from several departments was a matter of selectivity not representativeness.

Despite its distinctiveness to grounded theory, theoretical sampling can be compared with what Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 27) refer to as “conceptually-driven sequential sampling”, where samples are not completely specified at the onset of the research but rather selected gradually as it progresses. Depending on the data or analysis of data, events, or information gathered, the decision to choose subsequent same or different samples would be made. The fact that

sampling in grounded theory is theory driven is a matter of timing. Generally, qualitative sampling is considered theory driven but it depends on whether the theory is readily explicit or whether it will be developed at a later stage, as in grounded theory (Miles & Huberman 1994).

The most important tool that helped in coding and sorting data was memo writing. Memo writing is an analytical tool that helps in shaping, connecting, clarifying, and sorting data or codes in order to eventually develop the analytical themes and categories. This can be done at several stages during the analysis and therefore varies in the depth and complexity (Emerson et al. 1995). Emerson et al. refer to 'theoretical memos' as those done during coding field notes, and they can be written at an early stage where memos are written on a set of broad or unconnected topics and thereby referred to as 'initial memos'. Or they are written at a later stage where analytical themes have been developed and a link between them is required, thereby referred to as 'integrative memos'. Other types of memos include 'in process memos' which are helpful for developing analytical themes while the researcher is still in the process of collecting data in the field. Such memos resemble 'commentaries' and 'asides' (Emerson et al. 1995) and are often used in grounded theory. However, memo-writing in grounded theory takes a rather free and informal style where the purpose is to help the researcher analyse and sort ideas, notes or codes at an early stage of the research (Charmaz 2006). Table 3.6 above shows an example of both in-process memos and asides. Box 3.1 below shows another example of in-process memos. The memo was written after two weeks of interviews and shows some of the first attempts to analyse and compare data for identification of initial and emerging common themes between the two schools, and themes that are specific to one school. Such practice helped in further shaping the theoretical categories.

After a few months from completing the interviews, where draft themes have been developed and still being refined, more detailed memos showing more defined subcategories and describing some of the inner feelings of the participants that are a result of working in the school, were written. Box 3.2 below shows an example of a more defined memo within the same initial theme mentioned in Box 3.1, to easily compare the depth of each. It also includes the researcher's reflections on

how teachers felt, which were like a discussion comparing how working in a school or in the education sector is like working in a hospital or in the health sector. At the end of the memo there is an aside comment where the researcher is reminding herself to focus on comparing and contrasting the frustrations that teachers are describing.

Comparison among two schools (dated after two weeks from first interviews)

Even though both schools exhibited same initial ‘symptoms’ of frustrations, not being appreciated, loads of extra work, etc. (take all descriptions from transcripts), one of the schools seems to have a more optimistic approach. The team spirit somehow seems to be higher. Some attributed this to one of the previous principals that created a very positive environment that to date, remaining staff carry it to the new staff including the principal. This is an interesting case where the leader’s influence remained despite the person is no longer there. At the same time, the existing principal emphasises the importance of treating teachers well and giving them the support they need for raising their morale. The principal also includes heads of departments in school related decision making, supports them when needed and maintains a balance between addressing upper management requirements and managing the school.

Box 3.1: Sample in-process memo-writing after two weeks of interviews

Main themes from interviews

One can see that the major theme was around being respected, mainly through proper communication. This was very stressed on by teachers in most of the interviews. Their choice of a role model of a leader was based on many qualities, the first being a person who communicates well.

The human being element is very strong, almost similar to how things should be in a hospital or in the health sector, in general. You cannot accept a doctor with bad communication skills. A leader in a school or in the education sector in general is the same.

Experiencing a negative environment is considered a significant event, teachers described some of this as

- Doing as one is told
- Feeling that they are not important
- Not having the room for growth within career
- Feeling okay within the boundaries of the school but not with Schools Management. This feeling, however, varies depending on the school because it was different when comparing both schools. This depended on the:
 - Principal
 - Vice principal
 - The head of department, school (A) showed more cohesion among heads of departments
 - Each department as a whole

Focus on what are the common frustrations of teachers and what are specific ones. For example, few teachers' main frustrations were exclusive to some human resources (HR) related matters, they did not describe the same symptoms that the majority of teachers did.

Box 3.2: Sample memo-writing after a few months of interviews

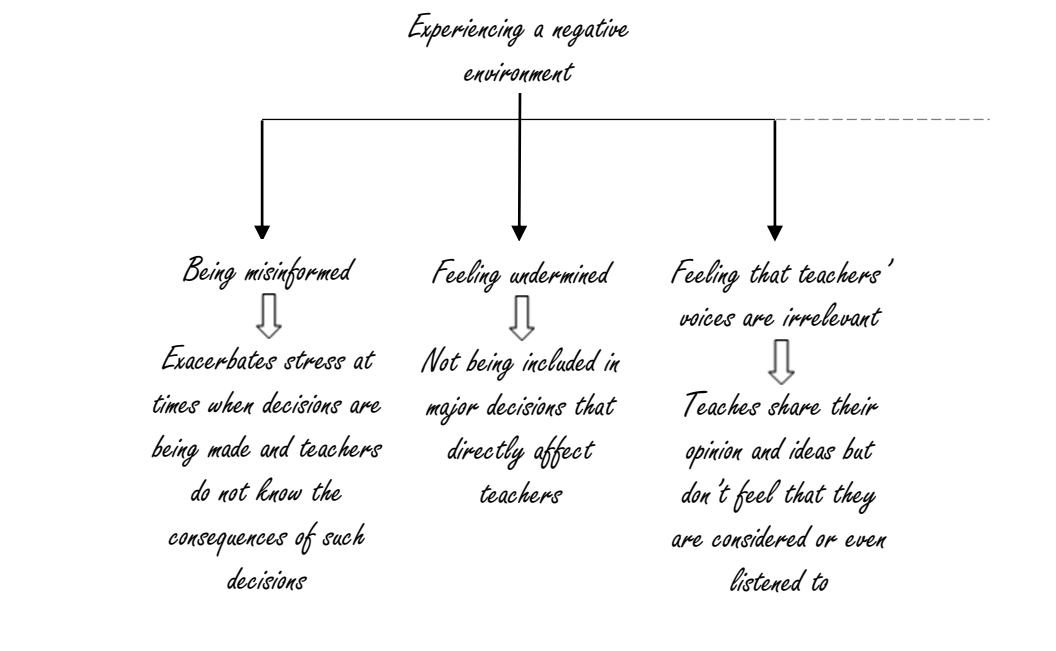
Refining themes was made by sorting data. At later stages, when more interviews were conducted and more data were gathered, more notes were written and initial codes developed, sorting data was a necessary step to organise, connect, compare, integrate and enrich the theoretical categories. In grounded theory, sorting data provides the logic that helps the researcher analyse and compare among theoretical categories (Charmaz 2006). In sorting data, the researcher tried to highlight the most significant events and what it meant to the participants. As Charmaz (1991, p. 210, in Charmaz 2006, p.116) describes:

A significant event freezes and enlarges a moment in time. Because of inherent or potential meanings of self within the event, people grant obdurate qualities to it.

They reify it. To them, the event supersedes past meanings and foretells future selves.

Sorting data was done at several levels and stages throughout the research, using different ways and tools. For example, initial sorting was done using large A3 size paper to sort out memos by jotting the main themes written in them and giving a summary description for each theme. The aim was to compare and cross out repeated descriptions or join together similar patterns of events under the same theme. This process helped in projecting all the thoughts and thinking on paper and making it easier to compare, contrast and analyse. This represented the first step in developing the draft theoretical categories which would eventually represent the organisational culture in the schools.

Diagrams were also used to think out loud about some of the significant themes and subcategorise them into small descriptions in order to understand between the lines and provide an explanation to this significant phenomenon. Box 3.3 shows a sample from a diagram that was used to subcategorise the same significant theme mentioned previously in box 3.2 (experiencing a negative environment).



Box 3.3: Sample from diagram for sorting memos on a significant theme

As these drafts of sorted memos and diagrams were developed on paper, a more refined one was done using Microsoft Excel spreadsheet (Microsoft® Excel® 2016). Using this spreadsheet sorted data to an advanced level and brought the themes closer to the final theoretical categories. This was done by including the results of thinking, sorting and diagramming memos, and further including the selective codes developed during the coding process. Selective codes were placed under each category and another comparison among them was made to look for common and different themes. Box 3.4 below shows a segment from one of the draft versions of the identified theoretical categories using a spreadsheet.

| Selective Theoretical Categories_v4 - Excel | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|---|--|--|---|--|--|---|---|---|--|--|
| File Home Insert Page Layout Formulas Data Review View Tell me what you want to do | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | | |
| Common in two schools | | | | | | Specific for each school (Culture over time) | | | | | | | |
| Working with a limited leadership role | Defining the role model leader | Experiencing a negative environment/influence | Dealing with frustrations | Abiding by the rules of the game | Reminiscing the past | SchA: passing on the rituals | The principal's voice both schools | The principal's voice specific to schoolB | SchB: Changing Cultures | | | | |
| Principals & vice principals Experiencing a micromanaged role | Heads of departments and teachers Experiencing a limited capacity to address all teachers' concerns | The good listener Describing an ambivalent feeling of working in the school | Listening to each other and reduce the negative effect from school management and how the principal contributes to that | Developing a shared understanding that instructions received from schools management must be obeyed | Reminiscing the past working atmosphere | Describing how each principal comes in and molds himself to the school | Describing an understanding among staff that their principal has exhausted his/her discussions with schools management | Describing the implications of higher authority making all the decisions on how staff view their principal | Complete change with | | | | |
| Describing decision making in the school as limited/minor (to operational issues) | Feeling limited room for innovation | The supporter Feeling a dynamic environment but not in a positive way | Needing to be listened to | Describing a shared understanding that principals' have no saying in schools management conveyed instructions | Appreciating the rewarding experience for teachers who have contributed to establishing and | Sharing concerns and problems among team members reduces the stress and challenges that team members face | Feeling respected and not feared from by teachers | Describing the change in work atmosphere from being dynamic and forward thinking to stagnation | Disliking the feeling of uncertainty in whether one has done a good job or not | | | | |
| Describing schools management as the decision makers in all school matters | Describing a do as you're told culture/execute do not discuss | The good communicator Feeling frustrated from the lack of opportunity to plan ahead | Feeling semi protected by the principal of the school - The shielding effect - link this to quantum results of transform/transac leadership style | 13-ELT: Avoiding any objection, discussion, comments on received instructions/demands from schools management | Remembering how working extra hours did not matter because it was recognised and appreciated (today, work is by clock hours) | Cohesion among HoDs | Avoiding the unpleasant meeting atmosphere with schools management in meetings with HoDs and VPs | Feeling that being limited to a managerial role restricts the role of a principal to bring about the passion amongst staff | Experiencing a change in the atmosphere of meetings | | | | |
| Describing a do as you're told culture/execute do not discuss | Describing that decision making is limited to school operational matters | The reasonable and fair That who makes his/her staff voluntarily go the extra mile | Describing an absence of clear criteria for teachers' evaluation | Turning to heads of departments for help and support | Avoiding being labeled by schools management as negative and uncooperative by doing as one is told | Experiencing a turning point in the enthusiasm of working in the school | Existing staff teach the new staff on the way things work in the school | Learning to be a better leader from the unpleasant experience with schools management | Fearing that in time teachers will no longer come to the principal because they feel that his/her role is limited | | | | |
| Expressing the need to give principals autonomy in their campus but monitoring performance | Feeling that the principal has a limited capacity to address all teachers' concerns | That who makes his/her staff voluntarily go the extra mile | Feeling that teachers and teaching are not priority | Feeling that the principal will support and defend teachers' or 'fight' for them | Avoiding scrutiny by schools management as a result of asking too many questions about schools management school related decisions | Experiencing a change in schools management in terms of transparency and expressing opinions and concerns | Attributing the success of building this specific school system to the first principal and his/her positive impact on the team | Feeling a better meeting atmosphere in the presence of executive management, where expressing opinions and concerns is more accepted | | | | | |
| Receiving instructions from schools management and conveying them to teachers to execute | Experiencing a negative type of meeting with schools management where instructions are conveyed and teachers are criticised | That who contributes to the personal and professional growth of staff | Experiencing job instability | Feeling respected inside the school (link this to the way go and VPs speak to them. This is dependent on the style of the leader, probably not all schools are fortunate - link this to DCT. | Developing skills to address schools management demands on the account of the core duties of a teacher | Describing the principal role in the past as more authoritative and contributing to decision making | Describing an open communication channel with executive management | | | | | | |
| Experiencing a limited capacity to address all teachers' concerns | Understanding and showing respect to the differences in thinking among people | Feeling that completing a task as instructed is more important than providing quality work | Feeling that completing a task as instructed is more important than providing quality work | Being listened to inside the school | Warning new teachers of what to talk about and what not talk about | Experiencing a change in principal-teacher relationship where principals spent more time among teachers | Expressing disappointment from lack of recognition and reward for hard work | | | | | | |
| Experiencing a rigid type of meeting with schools management where | Giving staff the sense of appreciation | Working with no recognition or acknowledgement of good | Participating in school management/For HoDs | Refraining from raising any concerns, sharing an idea and exercising | Describing how in the past there was a constructive approach | Making sure that their staff are recognised at school (but this | | | | | | | |
| Sheet1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Box 3.4: Example of a draft version of theoretical sorting using Microsoft Excel

The shaded cells in the excel sheet indicate where a connection can be made with both the results of the quantitative part and with the discourse analysis part of this research. It therefore had a dual purpose in sorting data, one for developing the theoretical categories and the other for making a connection with the other data sources in this research.

3.3.1.4 Coding, collecting, analysing and comparing data concurrently

Generally, coding qualitative data means unfolding the meaning of this data. It is another level of analysing data where certain segments of text are ascribed with a label that represents the meaning of that segment according to the researcher's sense of it (Charmaz 2014; Creswell 2014, Flick 2009; Miles & Huberman 1994; Rossman & Rallis 2012). Data can be overwhelming, especially those resulting from in-depth interviews, and so unless a clear focus on what the researcher is looking for is there, one can end up with all the data being sorted and coded regardless of its direct relevance to the major themes. Consequently, analysing and making connections among data not only will consume an enormous amount of time but also becomes difficult to achieve. Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 55-56) refer to this as 'data overload' and contend that conceptual frameworks are important to keep this focus, especially during data collection. As a novice researcher and at the beginning of the data collection phase, all data seemed important. The simultaneous process of collecting, memo writing, sorting, coding and analysing data helped in refining and filtering data to the most concentrated themes and thereby leading to more focused theoretical categories.

Coding in grounded theory depends on the approach that one is using. Corbin and Strauss (1990) objectivist approach includes three levels of coding, open, axial and selective. Charmaz's constructionist approach, used by the researcher, includes at least two phases of coding, initial and focused or selective coding (Charmaz 2014), and makes use of active codes (Creswell 2013), specifically gerund-based codes (Charmaz 2014; Glaser 1978). Occasionally, literal selections of the participant's expressions, during an interview for example, can be used as codes and thereby referred to as 'in vivo' codes (Charmaz 2014; Creswell 2013; Flick 2009; Glaser 1978). The use of gerund-based codes has its importance in that it helps in defining a process or processes of an event or set of events and maintains the researcher's closeness to data (Charmaz 2014; Glaser 1978). For studying organisational culture of the schools in this research, this helped in describing what it is like, how does it feel and what happens when working in the school.

Using gerunds though, does not mean using an ‘-ing’ form just for the sake of transforming a word from its noun to its gerund form. While conducting the interviews, many images and stories were being built in the researcher mind and those needed to be converted into a set of categorised processes in order to draw a picture of the organisational culture in the school. While it seemed clear in the mind, it was not sufficient to describe the organisational culture. These images and stories had to be taken out of the researcher’s mind and translated into actions that were well defined and enough to be reviewed and compared with the actual descriptions of the participants. This is where gerunds played their important role, they provided “action and sequence” as compared to nouns which limit the interpretation of codes to topics (Charmaz 2006, p.49). Topics entail descriptions of events and provide a theme for a segment of text. Actions on the other hand, entail what is happening in these events at a given time according to the sequence that participants experience. Coding in phases facilitates the process of translating stories into actions and hence the initial and selective coding in this study.

One of the main rules in coding is to stay open to any possible emerging ideas from data. Being restrictive may lead to the opposite of what coding is about, i.e., revealing what is behind data and consequently leads to departing from data instead of staying close it. Initial coding helped in revealing some of the possible emerging theories and directed the researcher to what needs to be more elaborated on throughout subsequent interviews, or what needs to be removed from interview questions or rephrased. Initial coding can be done in several ways, word-by-word; line-by-line, or incident by incident. Line-by-line coding was chosen because the researcher was looking for details of experiences, for incidents, events and processes in the school. Word-by-word coding would not work well in this research as such type of coding would be more suitable for analysing documents and looking for meaning of words by making sense of them and looking into how they are structured (Charmaz 2006). Incident-to incident

The ‘constant comparative method’ (Glaser & Strauss 1967, p.102) was used throughout the different stages of the interview phase to compare data and initial codes with one another among participants in one school and between the two schools. This led to the second phase of coding, selective coding, in which two

main things were achieved: the first was the selection of the most significant symptoms, feelings and events, and the second was the reduction of line by line codes to fewer codes that captured the most recurring shared and specific aspects among participants within one school and among both schools.

Codes shared among both schools were subcategorised according to specific participants. Some codes represented those related to principals and vice principals, heads of departments and teachers, and shared among all staff. Other codes represented those related to principals by themselves and vice principal, heads of departments and teachers together. Some codes were specific to staff that have worked there for a long time and witnessed changes in the organisational culture, this was titled 'old staff'. At this stage, the initial images and stories constructed in the researcher's mind have become more focused, defined and structured according to the participants' contexts. Because of the different roles and relations that principals, vice principals and teachers experience within the school and with upper management, each had a story to tell. Even though for example 'experiencing a negative environment' was common among all, principals had specific experiences attributed to their constant contact with upper management. The constant comparing and contrasting brought attention to these specifics and led to subcategorising codes according to the participants' role in the school. It is important to mention here that having only two principals and two vice principals to interview would not give equal time as with 20 teachers to look for emerging ideas or compare data during the interview phase. Two major things were done to partially overcome this situation: first was the initial informal interviews with the principals and vice principals, and second was the longer interview time spent with them, some of the interviews took up to two hours.

Though the definition of coding seems to be simple, the actual process is not a straightforward one, especially in developing the theoretical categories, for several reasons. First and foremost, the researcher kept in mind the concept of emergence in grounded theory, or generally in social constructivism for that matter, which meant that it was not a mechanical process of completing interviews, transcribing and then initiate coding of transcribed text. This process was gradual, not only for the sake of looking for emerging events or themes but also to feel what the

participants are conveying and reaching to a level as if one is living the experience with them. Another reason is that “words are fatter than numbers” (Miles & Huberman 1994, p.56) and can hold several meanings. So, the question here is, which meaning is selected? From this point rises the issue of selectivity that Miles and Huberman refer to and believe that it is affected by the researcher’s approach and intention of the research. For this study, in addition to the conceptual framework, the line by initial coding guided the researcher into selecting codes with a content as close as possible to the participants’ views. During the second phase of coding, selective codes were chosen based on the most salient initial codes and therefore kept the content of the codes once again as close as possible to the participants’ views. This is what Charmaz advises in the coding process, “make your codes fit the data you have rather than forcing the data to fit them” (Charmaz 2006, p.49).

Theoretical Categories

The primary purpose of grounded theory is to generate theory instead of verifying one. In developing the theoretical categories, it can be presumed that the words used for this level of coding are a pure representation of the participant’s reality, but in fact these words or expressions are chosen by the researcher in a way that reflects his or her interpretation of the selected codes. As mentioned above, neither selectivity can be completely avoided, nor can the researcher’s effect be completely confined. This was avoided as much as possible by using memos and notes, comparing and linking certain expressions the participants used within one school and between the two schools and then attempting to use a code that is as close as possible to reflecting the participants’ feelings and experiences. This basically represents an example of the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss 1967, p.102), which was used throughout the different stages of the interview. The researcher experienced its importance as an analytical tool not only to keep her analysis close to data, but also to separate her interpretations from the participants. Charmaz (2006) notes that the researcher’s ideas and observations shouldn’t be neglected even if they do not comply with the participants’ as they may be a source for further themes to emerge. It is worth mentioning here that the supporting question ‘what made you say that’ or ‘how does that make you feel?’ during interviews helped the researcher to elaborate on the participants’ point of

view and gaining an in-depth understanding not only about these views but what made them feel that way. After several interviews, a pattern started to build among participants, which indicated that they were experiencing the same symptoms.

Symbolic interactionism was used as a guiding theory to build the theoretical categories. “Symbolic interactionism is a dynamic theoretical perspective that views human actions as constructing self, situation, and society” (Charmaz 2014, p.262). This theory was used as a perspective to generate the theoretical categories. Initially, it was not part of the plan to use this theory, but the constant comparison of results led to revealing that participants are speaking about a specific phenomenon, which in its essence represents the organisational culture. They all shared a common feeling, interactions and described similar events happening from working in the school and this was greatly related to their interaction with leadership.

Figure 3.4 below demonstrates a segment from the gradual coding process that leads to the development of a theoretical category.

The boxes under ‘initial coding’ represent line by line coding from three leaders, two principals and one vice principal. The shaded text in the middle box was considered an important feeling by one of the principals, yet it was not included in the selective codes, and the theoretical category for that matter. This was for two reasons, the first is that it was exclusive to one principal in one school and not common among the two. Second, though it is a result of experiencing a limited leadership role, it does not belong to the same theoretical category. It is an expected implication of having a limited leadership role. Therefore, it was included as a separate code under specific for each school which represented those codes that were exclusive to one school. In other words, organisational culture specific to each school.

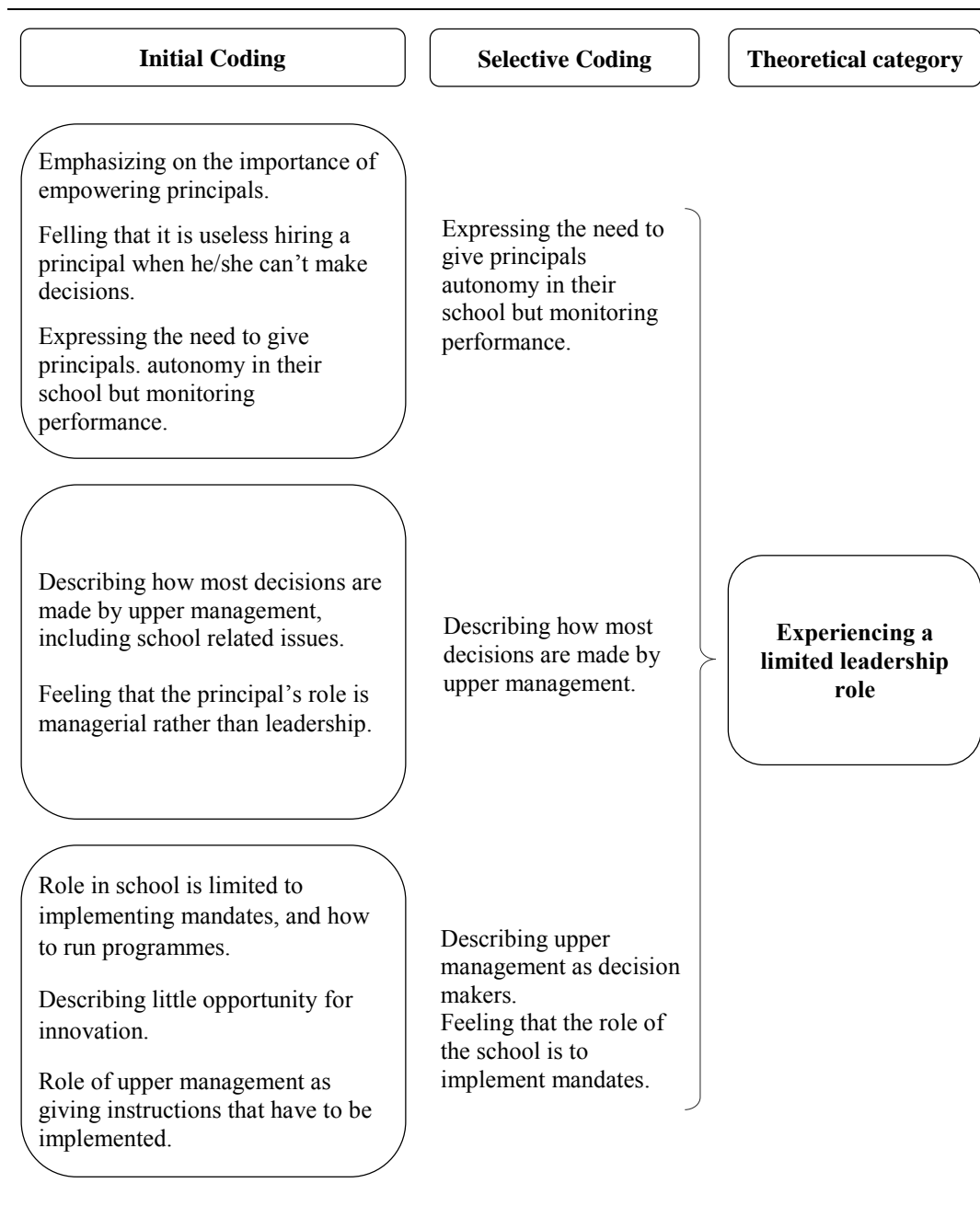


Figure 3.4: A segment from a two phase coding leading to a theoretical category.

The researcher's heart and mind was functioning during this coding process. It can probably be considered another form of 'theoretical sensitivity', given it is a personal quality, where Glaser (1978) believes that experience plays an important role in. The researcher adds the ability to combine one's heart and mind at the same time as a source of theoretical sensitivity, the mind for logic and the heart to feel and live the experience with the participant.

As a further step and to support that these theoretical categories represent actual experiences, random teachers that did not participate in interviews were asked about their experiences in the school. They were provided with the theoretical categories and asked whether they are representative of how they feel working in the school. The responses came positive and therefore gave the researcher more confidence in her attempt to separate her own interpretations from the actual reality of the participants. The researcher reminded herself again that in grounded theory, the aim is neither to look for confirmation nor to look for generalizable data. The idea of asking other teachers was that organisational culture in its own right is a collective phenomenon, shared among members of an organisation, or more precisely created among. Checking whether other teachers felt the same way was within this domain. It did not mean that individual feelings or experiences were neglected, it was a process of comparing and looking for similarities and differences within data. After all, the aim of grounded theory is “to look for individual and collective actions” (Thornberg & Charmaz 2014, p.154).

3.3.2 Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics

As mentioned earlier, the developed theoretical categories revealed that communication played an important role in the organisational culture of the schools. In addition to this, initial informal and formal interviews showed that there was an external negative effect influencing the school organisational culture. School staff, however, were coping with this effect through several ways, one of which was the principal's and vice principal's way of communicating with staff. This required further elaboration on the language that leaders of the school use with their staff, which led to the development of discourse completion tasks termed 'leadership scenarios' in this research and where used as the instrument to collect data related to communication from principals and vice principals. The following sections will explain in detail what discourse completion tasks are and what were the leadership scenarios about.

3.3.2.1 Speech acts and pragmatic analysis

According to Schiffrin (1994, in LoCastro 2012) there are two perspectives of language, the functional and the formalist. The first, concentrates on the social functions of language, how language is used within a society. This is different

from focusing on words themselves, or sentences or clauses and how they are constructed. Such focus lends itself to the formalist perspective of language where the aim is to produce a theory “as a mental phenomenon” (p.37), which is not the focus of this research.

Therefore, a functional perspective was adopted, and the focus was on the ‘utterances’, “instances of language use” (LoCastro 2012, p.18), where interlocutors communicate and ascribe meanings to this communication. It was mentioned earlier that pragmatic analysis emphasises on the speaker’s intention and how that intention is perceived by the listener. A more important focus for this research was how these utterances are used to perform a social action such as apologising, requesting and refusing. This represents the core concept of the Speech Act Theory (Austin 1962; Searle 1969).

According to Austin (1962), there are cases in which saying something implies doing something. This represents the very basic meaning of a speech act, a sentence or an utterance used to produce an action of any kind, such as those mentioned above. In other words, the act that is performed when people ‘issue the utterance’, and therefore Austin described such sentences as a ‘performative’, which is derived from the verb ‘perform’ and the noun ‘action’ (p.6). Austin categorised speech acts into three different types according to the meaning, force and effect of the utterance:

- 1) Locutionary act: The meaning of the utterance itself regardless of the context. Therefore, Austin added context to the meaning by referring to it within an ‘illocutionary force’, hence the second type of speech acts.
- 2) Illocutionary act: The force of the utterance that reveals the speaker’s intention and how listeners should receive it.
- 3) Perlocutionary act: The effect of the utterance on the receiver whether it complies with the speaker’s intention or not.

Pragmatic analysis has less focus on the third type of acts, due to the fact that it is unpredictable. Regardless of the intention of the speaker, such intention might not be received by the listener as the speaker would have thought or wished (see examples in Lo Castro 2012, p.62).

The results of grounded theory have already established that communication, through direct speeches or emails, had a negative effect on staff. Yet still, this cannot be considered an effect of a speech act because the speaker's utterances were not part of this study, therefore, the intention of the speaker is already absent. Instead, the researcher chose to understand how this negative effect was mediated by the positive effect of the principal in each campus and therefore concentrated on the communication within the campus, specifically, how principals and vice principals communicate with their staff.

3.3.2.2 Felicity conditions

There were two main conditions that Austin set for utterances to be considered as performatives, the first being that they are not describing or stating facts and they are neither 'true' nor 'false'. Rather, the circumstances of these utterances have to be appropriate, such as they are either 'happy' or 'unhappy', or felicitous or infelicitous (pp. 8, 14, 132). Austin distinguished this from 'constative utterances', which describe or report something and these can be 'true' or 'false'. The second condition is that issuing the utterance has to denote an action and not just to convey a message or a fact. An action can be either physical, mental or simply making a comment or adding to the utterance. These two conditions, however, require appropriate circumstances in order for performatives to take place. As a very simple example, the researcher cannot ask the supervisor to set a date for the viva when the thesis itself has not been submitted. More complex examples can exist, such utterances related to marriage, in which certain rules or laws regulate such utterances (see examples in Austin 1962, pp.8-14). Another important aspect that Austin added was that while utterances in performatives are neither true nor false, the action they are denoting can either be successfully completed, or things could go wrong and the action does not happen. So, for the viva example above, the thesis maybe submitted, and the date is set but the researcher does not sit for the viva. This would render the performative as

‘unhappy’ rather than ‘false’. Austin called such occasions as the “doctrine of Infelicities” (p.14), or ‘felicity conditions’ (LoCastro 2012). So basically, the action of an utterance can cause someone to be happy or unhappy.

In addition to the appropriate circumstances or the felicity conditions of performatives, according to Austin, the way in which speech acts are performed can be either in a direct or indirect way. Which brings back the concept of the illocutionary force where it reveals the intention of the speaker and how the listener recognises it. Some speech acts can be explicit, for example: “I order you to finish writing your thesis”. Speech acts, however, are generally not explicit and therefore the receiver has to infer the illocutionary force or act (see Clark 1996, p.133; LoCastro 2012, p.62). Accordingly, for the receiver to do the action required from a speech act, he/she must interpret or recognise the illocutionary force.

The receiver of a speech act may or may not perform the act, or respond to it. This would depend, as mentioned previously on how the illocutionary force is recognised by the receiver.

3.3.2.3 Types of illocutionary acts and limitations

There are different types of illocutionary acts such as apologising, demanding, promising, praising, and so many other (Clark 1996). The question here is, how are these different speech acts compared with each other? Initially, Austin classified illocutionary acts into five categories, in which Searle (1976) criticised for having six limitations (See pp.8-9). Accordingly, and building on Austin’s categories, Searle suggested an ‘alternative taxonomy’ that was based on “illocutionary point, direction of fit, and expressed psychological state” (p.1). His categories were:

1. **Representatives or Assertives.** The point of this illocutionary act is to create an obligation that the speaker is actually proposing a truthful utterance.

2. Directives. The point of this illocutionary act is to make or more precisely attempt to make the listener or the receiver of the speak act to do something, 'a future action'.
3. Commissives. The illocutionary point of this category is to obligate the speaker to make a future action.
4. Expressives. As the word indicates, this category consists of illocutionary acts that express the how the speaker feels towards the content of the utterance, which also is an expression of a feeling toward the receiver. Examples include: "I congratulate you", "I apologise", "I thank you" (p.12).
5. Declarations. This illocutionary point changes reality from its existing state. Examples include those speech acts that when enacted, change the position of someone (promotion), change the marital status of someone (marriage or divorce).

Clark (1996) contends that Searle's taxonomy also has some limitations, some of which are related to the fact that it doesn't cover all possible illocutionary acts, and others are related to illocutionary acts belonging to only one type (for a complete discussion on this, see p.136).

Recognising the force of a speech act could be done directly through what is called an 'illocutionary force indicating device' (IFID) (Searle 1969). For example, if one would say: "I order you to complete writing this thesis", then it means that this request is imperative and the receiver can directly identify the force through the semantic notion of 'I order'. There are, however, researchers who believe that the presence of a semantic indicator is not necessary to indicate the force of the illocutionary act, and that the meaning, or the locution, of the performative itself is sufficient to indicate that force (see Cohen 1964). The concept of meaning has some of its roots in Grice's work (1957) where he defined two types of meaning, natural and non-natural (See p.378 for details and LoCastro 2012, p.50 for limitations of Grice's model). Cohen's argument was specifically on the category of promises, and that saying "I promise" before a sentence does not change the meaning of what will be done should the sentence be uttered without I promise". For example, if one uses a performative sentence to say: "I

promise to publish this article”, it means that there is a commitment from the speaker to do so. However, if the sentence is uttered without a performative: “I will publish this article”, it would still have the same meaning, and the meaning here is indicative of the illocutionary force. Also, whether a sentence is performative or nonperformative, there still is a possibility of not publishing the article. This brings back the concept of Austin’s felicity conditions that stipulate the rules of how utterances are interpreted.

On the same category of promises, however, Searle (1968, p. 406) challenged Austin’s conditions for a promise to be ‘successful’, or the performative sentence to be successful, when it comes to what he described as ‘serious and literal utterance’ (such as a promise). Searle’s argument lies in the fact that Austin’s types of speech acts, specifically the locutionary act, which denotes the meaning of the sentence (represented by ‘sense and reference’), and the illocutionary act, which describes the force of the act, can actually be the same in certain serious utterances. Therefore, the locutionary act becomes an indicator of the illocutionary force, and so “there are not two different acts but two different labels for the same act” (p.407). Accordingly, Searle (1969) developed a set of rules for using IFIDs for the act of promising (see pp.62-63).

If most illocutionary acts are not explicit, how then does the receiver recognise these different types of speech acts? Clarke (2005, p. 136) suggests a classical approach in which the receivers make a “choice of sentence modality”, where in English, modalities are of five types:

1. Declarative, to state or confirm something: “The interview went really well”.
2. Yes/No interrogative, to ask a question where the answer would be either yes or no: “Have you finished writing your thesis?”.
3. What, who (WH)-Interrogative: “what are you up to?”.
4. Imperative, to demand something: “Print these documents”.
5. Exclamatory, for exclamation: “At last I finished writing my thesis!”.

Yet still, this is considered insufficient and there are other complexities associated with the illocutionary force and how it is interpreted by the receiver. These complexities represent a major aspect among researchers in applied linguistics and pragmatics, specifically those specialising in second language acquisition and use of language among learners from different countries. More precisely cross-cultural studies in pragmatics and language use. This is due to the fact that cultural differences play an important role in how illocutionary forces are interpreted. It is therefore important to look at how language is used in context and the speech act rules that guide this process (Levinson 1983). How these rules are applied, and more importantly realised, in each culture represents the major issue of ‘universality’ and the challenges it poses on studies in pragmatics, especially speech act studies (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984). Speech act realisation rules have been identified as a major obstacle behind second language learners who might face challenges in communicating well, despite mastering grammatical and lexical rules of language, this is described as ‘rules of using’ the language and the actual ‘usage’ of language (p.196). The transfer of both ‘use’ and usage’ from first to second language is fundamental for the learner to master the second language (See for example Blum-Kulka 1982; Cohen & Olshtain 1981; Thomas 1983). While second language acquisition, use and usage are outside the scope of this study, the challenges in speech act research were important to mention for two reasons, the first was to illustrate the complexities associated with communication among human beings, whether it is the intention of the speaker, how the receiver interprets utterances, or how this affects both speaker and receiver; all may contribute to shaping organisational culture. Providing these details emphasises the importance of discourse in organisations and its role in the collective concept of organisational culture, especially if a negative element has been identified in the organisation and attributed to communication. The second reason was that these challenges in speech act research are the basis on which Brown and Levinson’s (1987) ‘politeness theory’ was built, and this theory was used in developing the tasks pertaining to different speech acts used in this research.

3.3.2.4 Politeness theory and face threatening acts

Speech acts are enacted and interpreted in different ways depending on the language and culture. Studies in this area lend themselves to ‘language-specific

pragmatics'. This is different from 'universal pragmatics' where there are general aspects of context that apply across languages (Levinson 1983). Politeness theory is based on a universal concept of 'face' which is a 'technical' term for the fact that all human beings would like to preserve and maintain their self-image in public. Though this concept does in fact have some specificity in each culture, Brown and Levinson (1987) contend that the core concept is universal (see p.13 for a complete discussion). In the social world, social actors communicate with each other in such a way that attends to the need to maintain face for both the receiver and the speaker. The cultural specific aspects are related to, for example, the type of speech acts that are a threat to this concept of face, or religious influences as it relates to concepts of morality and honour (Brown and Levinson 1987), which determine and define the boundaries of 'face'. The concept of face, therefore, has both an affective and social dimension (LoCastro 2012), and accordingly, Brown and Levinson divided the concept of face into two aspects: positive and negative face. A positive face represents the need to be accepted and wanted among a group of social actors and to feel that one fits in. Negative face is related to the social actors need to conduct their actions without impositions.

Among the different categories of speech acts, there are those that directly threaten 'face'; and are referred to as face threatening acts (FTA) (Brown and Levinson 1987). Speech acts such as apologies, requests, refusals, compliments, may create a discomfort among the social actors in a conversation, and therefore there is an attempt, or not, to use certain language in a way that mitigates this discomfort. According to Brown and Levinson, people, or "any rational agent" (p.68), engaging in a conversation that involves FTAs will, or will not, use one of the mitigating strategies mentioned in box 3.5 below (see pp.68-71).

An important question arises here: what determines politeness and on what basis do social actors select a mitigating strategy? The selection of a strategy depends on three main factors (p.15):

1. Power of one conversational partner over the other, and
2. the social distance between them.
3. The ranking of the imposition.

1. Do the FTA on record (the act is actually done), either
 - a) baldly, without redressive action, in which no effort is made to reduce the effect of the act. Or,
 - b) with redressive action, which could be done using
 - i. positive politeness, where the speaker makes an effort to be more friendly. Or,
 - ii. negative politeness, where the speaker is usually of higher social distance than the receiver or vice versa. In other words, little disturbance as possible is sought by the speaker.
2. Do the FTA off record, in which the speaker indirectly reveals his or her intention and therefore dissociate themselves from a direct commitment to what is being said.
3. Don't do the FTA, which means that there is no linguistic action being taken.

Box 3.5: Brown and Levinson's (1987) mitigating strategies for FTAs

According to Harris (2003), placing politeness theory within an institutional or organisational context adds other dimensions to this theory. Specifically, language, politeness and power and how they shape institutional norms. Keeping in mind that there are different approaches to what norms actually mean and how power and politeness are related (see for example Harris 1995; Harris 2003; Chouliaraki & Fairclough 1999; Fairclough 1989, 1992, 1995; Holmes & Meyerhoff 1999; Jorgenson & Phillips 2002; Meir 1995; Van Dijk 2011; Weick 2009). For this part of research, which was based on a social constructionism framework, the norms and what is believed to be appropriate was based on how the 'social actors', the teachers and principals, interpreted them. Questions like "what motivates you and what demotivates you to work here?" helped in further understanding how participants interpreted organisational norms. In an institutional setting, power and internal politics of the organisation may play an important role in shaping the norms of the organisation which can be reflected in different forms of organisational discourse. If a leader in an organisation wishes to instil and maintain power, discourse can be one of the most powerful tools to achieve that. This was evident in some of the results of the interviews in which

participants described how the notion of receiving an email to attend a meeting from Schools Management gave them a negative feeling and made them feel they have done something wrong.

3.3.2.5 Discourse completions tasks

The focus of this study was on school leadership, that is, school principals' leadership and not Schools Management, though results showed it had a major influence on principals themselves. Therefore, and in order to study communication according to politeness theory, one needs be present in the school and attend, for example, meetings, classes, observe how members of the organisation communicate with each other. This option, however, was not possible for the researcher, but also the researcher believes that being present as a researcher might influence participants' natural way of communication. The researcher preferred the use of 'leadership scenarios' that were designed in the form of a 'Discourse Completion Task' (DCT) (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984). These DCTs were developed based on the Speech Act Theory, using Brown and Levinson's (1987) model of Politeness Theory. The use of DCTs was mainly in the area of cross-cultural pragmatics (CCP) in which Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) defined in as "the study of linguistic acts by language users from different cultural backgrounds" (LoCastro 2012, p.80). One of the most important projects in CCP that used DCTs as an instrument for data collection was the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Research Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989), where researchers from various places in Europe studied speech acts of apologies and requests from various countries in order to compare how these speech acts are enacted in different languages and cultures.

3.3.2.6 Leadership Scenarios: request, apology, refusal

DCTs are mostly used in linguistics and sociolinguistics, where many researchers are interested in language learning and use DCTs for understanding and comparing the various realisations of speech acts, specifically FTAs. The concept of DCTs was borrowed for this research but for a different purpose mentioned earlier, and therefore were termed 'leadership scenarios'. Initially, five scenarios, describing a hypothetical situation, were developed to represent five FTAs. These

were request, refusal, complaint, compliment and apology. However, during the course of the analysis, the researcher omitted two of these scenarios, complaint and compliment. This was due to the nature of these two speech acts and the results that showed that a more accurate interpretation would be achieved if the interaction between the speaker and the listener was observed. Not all people, for example, would receive compliments in the same way. Some might acknowledge them, while others might not.

The scenarios included optional questions for some of the FTAs, which is not common in the majority of research that uses DCTs. The researcher chose these optional questions to give the instrument a more open-ended quality, allowing participants to reflect on their own thoughts and not be restricted to the requested action to be taken. This basically meant taking the DCT to another level, where additional data about principals' and vice principals' cognitive decisions in conveying their FTA, can be elicited. Within a pragmatic analysis framework, such decisions would stem from the intention of the person about the message they are conveying through an FTA. In essence, the social action property of principals and vice principals' communication would be examined within a broader level. It also helped in verifying the results of analysing the FTA, in case questions restricted them to responding in a way that was different from how they would have actually wanted. Giving a question as an optional choice might readily be dismissed by a participant who would want to use as less time possible in completing the task. However, should a participant feel that they do not agree with the proposed action, the instrument gave an option of writing an alternative one.

A copy showing the full content of the scenarios may be found in Appendix (3). The copies are in two versions, the researcher's version and the participants' version. The three remaining FTAs request, apology and refusal are described in detail in the following sections. The researcher's version of the leadership scenarios was a blueprint-like version that showed what each scenario represents and the ranking of the person it is addressed to, where part one represented FTA addressed to subordinates, and part two addressed to superiors. Box 3.6 below shows a snapshot of the researcher's version of the leadership scenario.

| Type of Act | PART ONE: With Subordinates | PART TWO: With Superiors |
|-------------|---|---|
| Apology | <p>1. You had a meeting with teachers at a time where you were irritable because of a phone call from Schools Management, criticising you for not performing well on a task that was delegated to you.</p> <p>You realised after the meeting that you were impatient with teachers, might have upset some of them and did not achieve the objectives of the meeting. You decide to write an email to teachers.</p> <p>What would you write?</p> <input type="text"/> <p>What else would you do? (Optional)</p> <input type="text"/> | <p>1. You received an email from the Schools Management asking about why you did not attend the meeting that was arranged for previously. You had totally forgotten about this meeting.</p> <p>Would you talk or write back to Schools Management?</p> <p>What would you say/write?</p> <input type="text"/> <p>What else would you do? (Optional)</p> <input type="text"/> |

Box 3.6: A snapshot of the researcher's version of leadership scenarios

The participants' version included a disclaimer about the hypothetical nature of these scenarios, and neither showed the types of acts nor the rankings. Box 3.7 below shows a snapshot of the leadership scenarios shared with participants.

Leadership Scenarios

The following scenarios are hypothetical. Any resemblance to real situations is coincidental.

The scenarios are in two parts and each part contains five questions representing five different situations. You are kindly requested to answer all questions unless otherwise stated.

PART ONE:

1. You had a meeting with teachers at a time where you were irritable because of a phone call from Schools Management criticising you for not performing well on a task that was delegated to you.

You realised after the meeting that you were impatient with teachers, might have upset some of them and did not achieve the objectives of the meeting. You decide to write an email to teachers.

What would you write?

What else would you do? (Optional)

Box 3.7: A snapshot of the participants version of leadership scenarios

The FTA of Request

The scenario for the speech act of request with subordinates included a situation where the principals or vice principals hypothetically received direct instructions from their superior about a new decision where teachers have to allocate a few hours from their weekend to support students in need. In this scenario, the

principals and vice principals are not convinced with this decision, but must convey it to teachers and make sure that it is implemented. The task to be completed by the principal or vice principal was to first of all think about if they would talk to teachers or send them an email to convey these instructions. Then they would have to write what they would say or write if they chose to write an email. The option of speaking or writing was given to participants to further reflect on the nature of communication and how the leader chooses to convey such a difficult task that can cause teachers to be disturbed. The resulting theoretical category ‘dealing with frustrations’ and the role of principals and vice principals in mediating the negative effect, was kept in mind when giving this option. The researcher assumes that choosing to write an email for such a cause can reflect that the principal is avoiding confrontation. While choosing to speak to teachers would further confirm the supportive nature of school leaders’ relationship with their teachers.

The scenario for a request addressed to a superior included a situation where the principal or vice principal has to ask their superior to change a current arrangement in meeting times. For this situation, there were no options and the participant was asked to write an email.

The FTA of Apology

Participants responding to this scenario were requested to write an email to teachers after a meeting, a hypothetical one, where they were irritable, might have upset some teachers and did not meet the objectives of the meeting. The question given to participants was “what would you write?”, there wasn’t any indication that an apology should be made or a question about how they would apologise. Leading questions for this FTA were especially important to avoid because part of the analysis of results looks at whether an apology was actually made directly, indirectly or not made at all. Participants were also given an option of writing another possible action that they might take, or an alternative to what the question is asking for.

The apology scenario addressed to the superior was about a situation where the principal or vice principal had forgotten about a meeting and received an email

from their superior asking about the reason why they did not attend. The question asks the participant to reply back but gives an option of talking or writing back.

The FTA of refusal

The scenario for this FTA included an email sent by a group of teachers who have requested a change in their workspace. In their email, teachers explained why this change is needed and asked for permission to move to another room. The principal or vice principal, however, had already made a decision about allocating rooms for teachers and does not want to accept their request. The task was to complete the scenario by replying to teachers.

The scenario for the FTA of refusal addressed to a superior, involved a situation where Schools Management requested that the principal or vice principal travels with students during the summer holiday for an internship programme. Plans for the summer have already been made and the principal or vice principal cannot go with students. Given the difficulty of this situation, an option of talking or writing to their superior was given and then write what they would say or write. In case the participant wanted to choose a different course than the proposed one, an optional question was given asking if the participant would do something else or something additional.

3.3.2.7 Revising and piloting the Leadership Scenarios

The leadership scenarios went through several revisions, during the development phase and after the final version was completed. They were reviewed by three experts, two of which are experts in linguistics and discourse analysis. The version before last was piloted by giving it to a principal and asking the principal to complete the tasks and share feedback on the content of the scenarios. Few changes were made after the piloting and mostly were related to the wording of the scenarios. Other changes included adding the optional questions, where the purpose was mentioned at the beginning of this section. The last draft went through a final revision before it was carried out in the two schools.

3.3.2.8 Analysing the Leadership Scenarios

Each FTA was analysed according to a set of strategies used in the most common research analysing the use of the three FTAs across different cultures and language learners. The selection of a strategy was based on those that were applicable to the purpose of this part of the research. For example, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) use a set of strategies as part of the well-known CCSARP for the analysis of realisation patterns of requests among different cultures. These strategies, however, were not chosen despite the extent of the project and the important results it contributed to. This was because it targeted a micro level of language analysis, which as mentioned earlier, is not the focus or purpose of this research. A more general set of strategies were used to provide a more general description of how leaders in the schools, the two principals and vice principals, address their subordinates and their superiors in using such FTAs.

An analysis chart was developed for each FTA. The chart included the type of the FTA, the situations, which were a summary of the scenarios associated with the FTA, to whom they were addressed (Subordinates and Superior), and then finally the set of strategies that were used to analyse the responses. It was also necessary to indicate Brown and Levinson's (1987) three major factors that influence the choice of a strategy to enact an FTA. The three strategies were labelled 'P', 'S' and 'I' to represent power, social distance and the weight of the imposition, respectively. The letters 'H' and 'L' were used to describe the magnitude each of the three factors as high and low, respectively. For example, HP represents 'high power' and means that the speaker has a higher power of the hearer.

For anonymity purposes, the results do not show if the response came from a principal or a vice principal. Instead, the letter 'P', for participant, was used with numbers 1-4 as a designation for each participant. Because there were some differences, in the results of grounded theory between School A and School B, it was necessary to label participants with 'A' or 'B' to study the differences in the ways leaders in each school enacted FTAs.

The analysis was based on identifying which of the strategies were used by participants to enact an FTA. Therefore, the responses were carefully evaluated by reading them and then selecting the strategy, or set of strategies, that apply the

most to each response. The designation for each participant was placed in front of each strategy that was found to be applicable to the response. For example, if participant number one from School A used a negative redressive strategy for a request, the label 'P1_A' was placed in front of the that strategy. This analysis was done twice, one for FTAs addressed to subordinates and the other to the superior, creating two columns of results. The results of the analysis were reviewed by an expert in discourse analysis by comparing participants' responses to the researchers' identification of the type of strategy used. The following sections describe the strategies for each FTA in more detail.

Analysing requests

The analysis chart for this FTA was developed according to Brown & Levinson's (1987) strategies, which depended on choosing one of three main strategies, mentioned in box 3.5 above: do the FTA on record; do the FTA off record; don't do the FTA. This chart is presented in section 4.3.1 of the results chapter.

The first step in the analysis was to understand that the face threatening aspect of requests has a higher imposition on the hearer than the speaker. Therefore, the chart was labelled with 'HI' along with a caption that the imposition is on the hearer. The next step was to look for the main strategy that was used and whether it involved a redressive action or not. If the choice was found to be 'on record', i.e. with redressive action, then the next step was to examine whether it was done with a positive or negative redressive strategy.

Analysing Apologies

The analysis chart for apologies was developed according to Cohen and Olshtain (1981) and Olshtain and Cohen (1983) strategies for apologising. These strategies have been supported by other studies (see Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984; Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989). The chart includes five main semantic formulas that are based on the fact that in situations where the results of an act were not in the interest of the receiver, the speaker either acknowledges this situation or denies it. If the speaker acknowledges this shortcoming and offers an apology, then the researcher would look for the level of intensity of the apology and the associated supportive expressions, referred to as semantic formulas.

The five main semantic formulas are: offering

1. an expression of apology;
2. an explanation of the situation;
3. an acknowledgement of responsibility;
4. to repair the situation;
5. a promise of forbearance.

The first and third formula include subcategories to choose from when analysing responses. The full analysis chart is presented in section 4.3.2 of the results chapter. The FTA of apology has a greater imposition on the speaker than the hearer and therefore the chart was labelled with 'HI' with a caption that the imposition is on the speaker.

Analysing refusals

The analysis chart for this FTA was developed according to Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990, in Ellis 1994), which, like apologies, are based on a set of semantic formulae in which the speaker chooses from. The FTA of apology differs from the two previous FTAs in that it is used as a response to different types of illocutionary acts, such as an invitation or a request (Ellis 1994). The weight of the imposition for this FTA lies on the hearer more than the speaker, in other words, it is more threatening to the face of the hearer. The semantic formula in the analysis chart are divided into two types, direct and indirect ways of refusal. A direct way of refusal included two semantic formula: using a performative statement, for example stating directly: "I refuse", and/or, using a non-performative statement, for example: "I can't". As for the indirect way of refusal, it includes 11 formulae. Participant might choose one strategy or many strategies to express a refusal. All of these strategies were labelled on the chart to examine how many and what type of strategies did the participants use. This chart is presented in section 4.3.3 of the results chapter.

Refusal are also another form of communication that reveals how leaders in an organisation consider refusing their subordinates requests or other acts, especially that refusals threaten the face of the subordinate. Similar to apologies, it is a good indicator of organisational culture resulting from how the leader communicates

with his/her subordinates. An additional dimension to refusals in the case of the schools that was under study, was that school leaders did not have sufficient authority to address all their teachers' needs and requests. Most requests made by teachers had to first be passed by Schools Management and therefore when they are refused, principals had to refuse them too. In this case, refusals do not represent the true intention of the principal, rather they represent a second refusal to a first one expressed by their superior. The refusal here is a twofold type of refusal, both are responses to an illocutionary act, however, one represents a true intention of the speaker, while the other is carrying the refusal to the hearer. This means that the weight of the imposition takes a different approach. Here, the principals are both the speakers and hearers and therefore it is as face threatening to them as to their teachers.

4. Chapter 4: Results

Results will be presented in three main section, results of MLQ, grounded theory and then the leadership scenarios.

4.1 MLQ Results

The format of numbers was reported following the American Psychological Association (APA), i.e., results are rounded to two decimal places (Field & Hole 2003; Field 2009), except for tables that represent direct outputs from SPSS.

4.1.1 Test of Normality and Homogeneity of Variance

Levene's test of variance showed that the variances in MLQ results were roughly equal among all schools, $F(7,88) = 2.09$, ns. This means that the homogeneity of variance for the selected sample was reasonable. This result was further supported through ICC and PCA.

4.1.2 Reliability Analysis of the Original MLQ 5X

Table 4.1 shows the means, standard deviations, reliabilities and the ICC of the nine factors of the original full range leadership scale; the nine factor model (9F) of the MLQ. All items showed high reliability with majority of Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$, except for one item (question 17) within MBE (Passive) where Cronbach's $\alpha = .64$ and $\alpha = .78$ 'If Item Deleted'. Accordingly, question 17 was removed from all subsequent analysis and the reliability test was repeated. Cronbach's α listed in Table 4.1 represent the results of the repeated analysis.

Average measures of ICCs for all nine factors were above 0.7, with Inspirational Motivation factor being the highest of 0.92. ICC is treated similarly to effect size values (Field 2005; Lebreton & Senter 2007; McGraw & Wong 1996) where according to (Cohen 1988, p.83), 0.1, 0.3, or 0.5 represent small, medium and large effects, respectively. This gives an overall picture of the responses to the MLQ categorised according to the assumed factors in the FRL model. The actual extracted factors still need to be analysed and tested for reliability and ICC.

| Leadership Style | N | Mean | SD | α^* | ICC ^a |
|---|-----|------|------|------------|------------------|
| Transformational Leadership (TL) | | | | | |
| Idealized Influence (Behaviours) (II-B) | 148 | 2.51 | 1.20 | .84 | .84 |
| Idealized Influence (Attributes) (II-A) | 151 | 2.46 | 1.33 | .91 | .91 |
| Intellectual Stimulation (IS) | 141 | 2.17 | 1.26 | .88 | .88 |
| Inspirational Motivation (IM) | 150 | 2.58 | 1.24 | .92 | .92 |
| Individual Consideration (IC) | 145 | 1.95 | 1.32 | .83 | .81 |
| Transactional Leadership (TR) | | | | | |
| Contingent Reward (CR) | 149 | 2.42 | 1.23 | .90 | .89 |
| Management-by-Exception (Active) (MBE-A) | 140 | 2.29 | 1.20 | .70 | .70 |
| Passive Avoidant (PA) | | | | | |
| Management-by-Exception (Passive) (MBE-P) | 146 | 1.59 | 1.32 | .78 | .78 |
| Laissez-faire (LF) | 153 | 1.17 | 1.24 | .79 | .79 |
| Outcomes of Leadership | | | | | |
| Effectiveness (EFF) | 147 | 2.43 | 1.26 | .94 | .93 |
| Extra Effort (EE) | 152 | 2.22 | 1.32 | .79 | .79 |
| Satisfaction (SAT) | 155 | 2.56 | 1.29 | .91 | .90 |

* None of the items would increase the reliability coefficient if they were deleted.

a. Intraclass Correlation Coefficients, One-way random, Average Measures, $P < 0.001$ for all variables

Table 4.1: Reliability and one-way random ICC analysis of the 9F MLQ 5X

4.1.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

As mentioned previously, the first step before extracting factors through PCA, is to confirm the adequacy of sampling. The following sections present the results of sample adequacy tests, as well as those of PCA.

4.1.3.1 Adequacy of sampling and test of sphericity

Table 4.2 below shows that KMO value represents a ‘marvellous’ level of acceptance indicating that the sample used was adequate for PCA. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity examined the *R*-matrix and whether it was an identity matrix, where all correlation coefficients would be equal to zero (Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991). Accordingly, and since the test results showed that it is highly significant ($p < 0.001$), the null hypothesis was rejected and the *R*-matrix is an identity matrix, in which variables share certain relationships that can be analysed using PCA.

| | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|----------|
| KMO | | .943 |
| Bartlett's Test | Approx. Chi-Square | 3594.713 |
| | Df | 595 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

Table 4.2: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity

4.1.3.2 Factor extraction

Factor extraction Based on the Kaiser criterion showed that there are five linear components that had eigenvalues above one. Their values along with the total variance before and after rotation are shown in Table 4.3. below.

| Component | Eigenvalues Extraction Sums of Square Loadings | | | Eigenvalues Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|--|------------------|-----------------|---|------------------|-----------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 19.50 | 55.70 | 55.70 | 13.35 | 38.13 | 38.13 |
| 2 | 2.42 | 6.91 | 62.62 | 5.85 | 16.70 | 54.83 |
| 3 | 1.45 | 4.13 | 66.75 | 3.00 | 8.57 | 63.40 |
| 4 | 1.23 | 3.52 | 70.27 | 2.02 | 5.76 | 69.16 |
| 5 | 1.02 | 2.92 | 73.18 | 1.41 | 4.03 | 73.18 |

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 4.3: Total variance explained - MLQ X5 leadership style constructs

A cumulative 63.40 percentage of the variance is attributed to the first three components. After the third component, little differences in percentage of variance were found.

The factor loadings after rotation are shown in the rotated component matrix in Table 4.4 below. Scores for the first factor ranged between (0.81-0.60), for the second (0.82-0.58), for the third (0.77-0.52), and (0.82, 0.57) for the fourth, which included two items only, and the last factor included one item only with a factor score of 0.77. The next step was to evaluate which items loaded on each factor and how many factors should be considered.

| Items | Component ^a | | | | |
|---|------------------------|-------|------|------|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Q32 | .813 | | | | |
| Q30 | .810 | | | | |
| Q31 | .804 | | | | |
| Q21 | .803 | | | | |
| Q10 | .796 | | | | |
| Q9 | .773 | | | | |
| Q18 | .768 | | | | |
| Q16 | .761 | | | | |
| Q11 | .760 | | | | |
| Q2 | .759 | | | | |
| Q15 | .749 | | | | |
| Q36 | .738 | | | | |
| Q23 | .737 | | | | |
| Q14 | .736 | | | | |
| Q13 | .735 | | | | |
| Q29 | .733 | | | | |
| Q35 | .723 | | | | |
| Q1 | .703 | | | | |
| Q19 | .646 | | | | |
| Q27 | .624 | | | | |
| Q25 | .598 | | | | |
| Q26 | .597 | | | | |
| Q33 | | -.819 | | | |
| Q12 | | -.806 | | | |
| Q28 | | -.750 | | | |
| Q7 | | -.712 | | | |
| Q20 | | -.693 | | | |
| Q3 | | -.575 | | | |
| Q6 | | | .765 | | |
| Q8 | .524 | | .594 | | |
| Q34 | .559 | | .561 | | |
| Q22 | | | .516 | | |
| Q24 | | | | .824 | |
| Q5 | | -.570 | | | |
| Q4 | | | | .766 | |
| Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. | | | | | |
| Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. | | | | | |
| a. Rotation converged in 11 iterations. | | | | | |

Table 4.4: SPSS output for rotated component matrix

This led back to the debate about how many factors should be considered in factor analysis. In addition to the initial Kaiser criterion for retaining factors, two aspects were considered for the evaluation of the retained factors, the first was to identify which items loaded on each factor and did they represent the same constructs developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). This questionnaire had already been developed and used in various studies that reported different numbers of extracted factors, their reliability and construct validity. So, the question about how many

factors should be considered, took a different approach because the authors of this questionnaire had already defined the constructs and the items they constitute. The second aspect that was considered was the reliability of each factor, especially that factor number four included two items that belonged to two opposite types of leadership styles.

Table 4.5 below summarises the results of this evaluation. The first factor included a combination of transformational leadership and transactional contingent reward in addition to one item of transactional MBE-A. Two items from transformational II, however, were loaded on factor number three in addition to one item from transformational IS and one item from transactional MBE-A. All passive/avoidant leadership items loaded on factor number two except for item number five, which loaded on factor number four along with one item from transactional MBE-A. Factor number five included one item from transactional MBE-A. Cronbach's α for factors number one, two and three were .98, .88 and .74, respectively. Factor number four violated the reliability model giving a negative Cronbach's α . This result was expected given that the two items have 'reverse phrasings' because they belong to opposite styles of leadership constructs, transactional and passive/avoidant.

Based on these results, factors number one, two and three were the only factors to consider for the next set of analyses. Factors number four and five were discarded and accordingly, items number twenty-four, five, and four were excluded from the analysis. This brings the total number of items that were excluded from the MLQ 5X (including the previously mentioned item number 17) to four. To take a close look at the amount of common variance that is actually present in each variable after factors have been extracted and evaluated (see Field, p.661), communalities for each item was analysed and results are shown in Table 4.6 below. Factor scores are presented again in this table but for the three remaining factors (3F) only. The first factor was labelled Transformational Leadership 3F (TL-3F), the second factor was labelled Passive/Avoidant 3F (PA-3F) and the third factor was labelled Transformational Leadership Special 3F (TLS-3F).

| Original MLQ 5X | | PCA Extracted Factors (Components) ^a | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------|---|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------|
| Leadership Style | Factors | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Transformational Leadership | II-B | II-B (14, 23) | MBE-P LF (7, 28, 33) | II-B (6, 34) MBE-A (22) | MBE-A (24) LF (5) | MBE-A (4) |
| | II-A | II-A | | | | |
| | IS | IS (2, 30, 32) | | | | |
| | IM | IM | | | | |
| | IC | IC | | | | |
| Transactional Leadership | CR | CR | .819-.575 <i>α</i> = .88 | .765-.516 <i>α</i> = .74 | .824, .570 negative <i>α</i> | .766 |
| | MBE-A | MBE-A (27) | | | | |
| Passive/Avoidant | MBE-P | FS*: .813-.597 | | | | |
| | LF | <i>α</i> = .98 | | | | |
| <i>Total Number of items</i> | | 22 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| Outcomes of Leadership | EE | EE EFF | N/A | | | |
| | EFF | SAT | | | | |
| | SAT | FS: .944-.442 <i>α</i> = .96 | | | | |
| <i>Total Number of items</i> | | 9 | | | | |

^a Numbers between brackets represent item (question) numbers
* Factor Scores

Table 4.5: Evaluation of extracted factors

Each item has also been labelled with the type of sub-style leadership it represents. As mentioned previously, the principal diagonal of the *R*-matrix represents the communalities of all variables, or the proportion of common variance, which is equal to one. Therefore the ‘initial’ communalities, i.e. before factor extraction, shown in the original SPSS output were all equal to one. An important note to consider is that the Kaiser criterion is accurate when the sample size is above 250, the numbers of variables are less than thirty, and communalities are above .70. It is noticed that some of the items had communalities that were less than .70. However, average communalities for each of factor one and two were (.73) and for factor three it was (.61). Yet still, this criterion was accepted given that a trial PCA using the Joliffe’s criteria (Eigenvalues were set to > .7) gave almost similar results. From the average communalities, it was found that 73% of the variance associated with TL-3F and PA-3F was common, and that associated with TLS-3F was 61%.

| Item | F1 | F2 | F3 | Communality |
|----------------------|-----|------|-----|-------------|
| <i>TL-3F</i> | | | | |
| II-B (14) | .81 | | | .81 |
| II-B (23) | .81 | | | .83 |
| II-A (10) | .80 | | | .82 |
| II-A (18) | .80 | | | .83 |
| II-A (21) | .80 | | | .84 |
| II-A (25) | .77 | | | .66 |
| IS (2) | .77 | | | .84 |
| IS (30) | .76 | | | .77 |
| IS (32) | .76 | | | .84 |
| IM (9) | .76 | | | .79 |
| IM (13) | .75 | | | .79 |
| IM (26) | .74 | | | .81 |
| IM (36) | .74 | | | .80 |
| IC (15) | .74 | | | .64 |
| IC (19) | .74 | | | .63 |
| IC (29) | .73 | | | .63 |
| IC (31) | .72 | | | .82 |
| CR (1) | .70 | | | .69 |
| CR (11) | .65 | | | .74 |
| CR (16) | .62 | | | .74 |
| CR (35) | .60 | | | .78 |
| MBE-A (27) | .60 | | | .64 |
| <i>PA-3F</i> | | | | |
| MBE-P (3) | | -.82 | | .47 |
| MBE-P (12) | | -.81 | | .80 |
| MBE-P (20) | | -.75 | | .63 |
| LF (7) | | -.71 | | .68 |
| LF (28) | | -.69 | | .68 |
| LF (33) | | -.58 | | .75 |
| <i>TLS-3F</i> | | | | |
| II-B (6) | | | .77 | .70 |
| II-B (8) | | | .59 | .67 |
| II-B (34) | | | .56 | .76 |
| MBE-A (22) | | | .52 | .48 |

Table 4.6: Factor scores and communalities for the remaining factors

4.1.3.3 Reliability analysis of the MLQ 5X retained factors

Table 4.7 below shows that average measures of ICCs for all three factors were above 0.7, with Factor 1 being 0.98. The significance of this result is treated similarly to effect size values (Field 2005; Lebreton & Senter 2007; McGraw & Wong 1996) where according to (Cohen 1988, p.83), 0.1, 0.3, or 0.5 represent small, medium and large effects, respectively. Accordingly, the effect size was large for all three factors. The large effect combined with the significant value of

the F-Test score shown in Table 4.8, ($p < 0.001$), indicated an absolute agreement among the averages (of leadership styles in each factor) between schools. This agreement combined with the consistency reflected in Cronbach's alpha, provides enough justification for data aggregation into level 3 (in Figure 3.3).

| Leadership Style | N | Mean | SD | α^* | CITC** | SMC [§] | IIC [†] | ICC ^a | ICC ^b 95% CI |
|--------------------|-----|------|------|------------|-----------|------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| TL-3F | | | | | | | | | |
| Factor 1 | 116 | 2.34 | 1.30 | .98 | 0.58-0.91 | 0.5-0.93 | 0.68 | .98 | .97-.98 |
| PA-3F | | | | | | | | | |
| Factor 2 | 149 | 1.29 | 1.29 | .88 | 0.59-0.81 | 0.40-0.68 | 0.54 | .87 | .84-.90 |
| TLS-3F | | | | | | | | | |
| Factor 3 | 145 | 2.39 | 1.19 | .74 | 0.46-0.63 | 0.21-0.28 | 0.42 | .73 | .65-.88 |
| Outcomes-3F | | | | | | | | | |
| Factor 1 | 141 | 2.40 | 1.28 | .96 | 0.39-0.92 | 0.24-0.87 | 0.71 | .96 | .94-.97 |

* None of the items would increase the reliability coefficient if they were deleted.

** Corrected Item-Total Correlations. A result is considered good if above 0.3.

§ Squared Multiple Correlation

† Inter-Item Correlations.

a. Intraclass Correlation Coefficient type ICC (1,1), One-way random, Average Measures, $p < 0.001$ for all variables.

b. 95% confidence interval of ICC (1,1), Average Measures.

Table 4.7: Reliability and one-way random ICC analysis of the retained 3F MLQ 5X

| Leadership Styles | F ^a Test with true value 0 |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Factor 1 | 41.34, df(115, 2436) |
| Factor 2 | 7.74, df(148,745) |
| Factor 3 | 3.74, df(144,432) |
| Outcomes of Leadership | 22.02, df(140,1128) |

^a $p < 0.001$

Table: 4.8: F test for one-way random ICC analysis

4.1.4 Multiple Regression Analysis

The enter method was used to conduct a multiple regression analysis for the three retained factors, the independent variables, and the outcomes of leadership, the dependent variable. Table 4.9 below provides a summary of descriptive statistics for this analysis.

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|-------------------------------|------|----------------|-----|
| Outcomes of Leadership | 2.44 | 1.167 | 100 |
| TL-3F | 3.08 | 1.046 | 100 |
| PA-3F | 1.31 | 1.054 | 100 |
| TLS-3F | 2.41 | .950 | 100 |

Table 4.9: Multiple regression summary descriptive statistics

Correlations between all three factors were significant ($p < .001$) and ranged between moderate to strong. Table 4.10 below summarises the correlation analysis.

| | | Outcomes of Leadership | TL-3F | PA-3F | TLS-3F |
|----------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------|-------|--------|
| Pearson Correlation | Outcomes of Leadership | 1.000 | .951 | -.665 | .667 |
| | TL-3F | .951 | 1.000 | -.678 | .745 |
| | PA-3F | -.665 | -.678 | 1.000 | -.484 |
| | TLS-3F | .667 | .745 | -.484 | 1.000 |
| Sig. (1-tailed) | Outcomes of Leadership | | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| | TL-3F | .000 | | .000 | .000 |
| | PA-3F | .000 | .000 | | .000 |
| | TLS-3F | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| N | Outcomes of Leadership | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| | TL-3F | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| | PA-3F | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| | TLS-3F | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Table 4.10: Correlations between the retained 3F and outcomes of leadership

A negative correlation was found between PA-3F and each of the outcomes of leadership, TL-3F and TLS-3F.

Results of regression models showed that significant models were produced for all three factors. For the first model, TL-3F: $F(1, 98) = 917.52, p < .001$. This model (the predictor variable model) explained 90.3 % of the variance in the outcomes of leadership (Adjusted $R^2 = .903$). Adding the second model, PA-3F: $F(2, 97) = 458.44, p < .001$, explained 90.2 % of the variance in the outcomes of leadership (Adjusted $R^2 = .902$). Adding the third model, TLS-3F: $F(3, 96) = 315.64, p < .001$, explained 90.5 % of the variance in the outcomes of leadership (Adjusted R^2

= .905). Entering the predictor variables TL-3F, PA-3F and TLS-3F into each of the first, second and third models, respectively, showed both PA-3F and TLS-3F were not significant predictors of the outcomes of leadership, but TL-3F was. Table 4.11 below summarises these results.

| Factor | <i>B</i> | <i>SE B</i> | <i>β</i> |
|---------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Constant | -.66 | .20 | |
| TL-3F | 1.12 | .06 | .99*** |
| PA-3F | -.04 | .05 | -.04 |
| TLS-3F | -.11 | .06 | -.09 |

Table 4.11: Multiple regression coefficients

This means that the first model, TL-3F is the only model that can be generalised for the entire population.

4.2 Grounded Theory

The results of coding led to the development of seven theoretical categories that represented organisational culture in the two schools. Five of the theoretical categories were interpreted as shared among the two schools and were labelled ‘common in two schools’, and two were interpreted as exclusive to each school separately and were labelled ‘specific for each school’. The five common theoretical categories were:

- 1) Working with a limited leadership role.
- 2) Experiencing a negative environment.
- 3) Dealing with frustrations.
- 4) Abiding by the rules of the game.
- 5) Reminiscing the past.

The two theoretical categories exclusive to each individual school were:

- 1) Passing on the rituals. This was specific for school A.
- 2) The leader image at stakes. This was specific for school B.

According to symbolic interactionism (Blumer 1969; Mead 1934), meanings are constructed as a result of social actors interacting with the object. In other words, it is through practice that meaning is developed, and this practice can include social interaction with individuals, society or the environment. When people are experiencing the same actions, there is a likelihood that they will form a shared meaning about these actions (Blumer 1969; Charmaz 2014). In the two schools, the participants or the 'social actors' described a set of shared actions, practices and experience and therefore formed shared meanings of the objects they interacted with.

Participants in both schools, A and B, described and felt similar experiences from working in the school. Principals, vice principals, heads of departments and teachers, each had a story to tell based on their different experiences that were a result of interacting with different levels of management within the school and outside the school. Teachers mainly work within the boundaries of the school, with their head of department and other teachers. In certain and limited occasions, they meet with Schools Management. Unlike heads of departments and vice principals who are working directly and regularly with the principal of the school and less regularly with the Schools Management. Principals, however, are much more frequently in contact with Schools Management and executive management, which from the results of the interview and coding seemed to have a strong influence on the way things work in the schools. All of the theoretical categories were interpreted to have a direct link with Schools Management. Whether participants were frequently and directly working Schools Management or indirectly, its influence was felt by all. According to the participants, it was not a favourable influence.

To start with, participants felt that the role of school leadership is not evident. In the past, the leader of a school had more freedom to manage and lead the school, this had changed to 'working with a limited leadership role', the first theoretical category. This theoretical category was interpreted by the researcher from two perspectives, the principals' and vice principals' as one, and the teachers' and heads of departments as another perspective. The latter shows how teachers and

heads of department viewed leadership practices as well as their own experience in whether they feel they are participating in a leadership role.

Principals and vice principals felt they are micromanaged even with the most particular school related decisions. Their role in decision making is limited to what they described as ‘minor’ and limited to simple school operational matters. Principals in particular expressed how this negatively affected them, especially when it comes to teachers approaching them for some concerns and principals do not have an immediate capacity to address these concerns. It made them feel that they had no power to address their team’s needs. This was because everything had to be referred back to Schools Management before providing teachers with a solution. Principals and vice principals had different feelings towards this centralised decision making, some expressed concerns about how staff might view them as weak leaders, or how the school may be viewed in the eyes of the public: “Making decisions on the ground quickly is really what helps to define a school and how it’s viewed in the public side and parents’ side.” (Participant 1). Others felt that their role in the school was a ‘do as your told role’ and would be one of the first things they would change if they were in a position to do so:

“The first thing I would change is empowering principals in the schools..., I will empower principals, I will let them act as real leaders not as followers because if your principal is a follower, what’s the point of appointing [them]? [He/she] needs to take decisions, needs to be responsible for [these] decisions, needs to have autonomy in [his/her] school.” (Participant 2)

This limited leadership role extends to meetings with the Schools Management where the principals are there to receive instructions and implement them in their schools. Not only did they feel their feedback or insights in such meetings were not welcome, but they also felt undermined because decisions had already been made prior to the meeting: “The meeting comes, the meeting is done with the outcome of it already taken and decided.” (Participant 2). Principals experienced a different situation in meetings with executive management where feedback and opinions were welcomed: “In these kinds of meetings, you have more freedom to say what you want because you will be listened to.” (Participant 2).

With this limited leadership role, principals and vice principals felt that there was no room for innovation and making improvements. Some felt a decline in their achievements when they compared their role as leaders in previous places they worked in, and how they and their staff were dynamic, taking initiative and working as a team in the school. When asked about how does this make them feel, Participant 1 replied:

“I could do an awful lot more.... it’s gone from being very dynamic, very forward thinking and having staff becoming very forward thinking, and feeling they are becoming a part of something, and it’s really gone to the way where it’s really stagnated.”

Heads of departments and teachers felt that their principals and vice principals had no authority in their school. They also described decision making as limited to school operational issues. Some viewed the role of a leader in their school as already ‘established by policies’ and that new principals would only have to ‘mould’ themselves into that role: “I think the way we work is governed broadly by the policies set by the organisation and some way or another the principals mould themselves into it.” (Participant 3). So, for example, all principals must have a set of meetings with their staff. The frequency of these meetings and who attends is set by the organisation. Heads of departments and teachers did not feel that they had a leadership role in the school. The researcher received an instantaneous response from one of the staff members for a comment made about their role as leaders in the school: “[We] don’t [have a leadership role], nor does the principal.” (Participant 4). The response was made with unpleasantness, with a feeling that despite being in a leadership role, they were not practicing leadership but rather following instructions. They also described a ‘do as you are told’ environment and felt that they were not heard by Schools Management when providing suggestions or recommendations that they believe may work in favour of students. Their frustrations mainly come from their feeling that they were the experts on ground, who were in direct contact with students and would have a better insight as to what would work well for them. They felt that their voices were undermined and therefore did not feel a true leadership role or even participating in developing the schools, even though they wished they had:

“...the teachers’ feedback is not taken seriously. They ask us for feedback but it looks like it goes in the junk... I believe that you must keep giving your feedback, because for me as long as I am [working here], I belong to [this place], I care for [it] and I want it to improve. But they don’t care about the feedback we send, they may ask [for feedback], I do send my feedback, ... but they don’t give it serious thought.” (Participant 5)

Heads of departments and teachers also described a similar meeting environment with Schools Management where the purpose of such meetings was to convey a set of instructions that had to be followed.

Comparing the feelings of principals, vice principals, heads of departments and teachers, they all experienced similar symptoms of limited leadership roles, a culture of following instructions and addressing tasks, with little room to express opinions and share insights with Schools Management. Within the school boundaries, however, the principals listened to their staff and gave more room to share opinions and make recommendations during meetings. As a matter of fact, during meetings with heads of departments, each head of department described how they would be given time to talk about any issues they might have. However, the researcher interpreted a difference in the level of openness and comfort of staff members in speaking with their respective principal. This was attributed to the principals themselves and their personality. Nevertheless, the influence of the Schools Management on schools seemed to be greater than it created a negative feeling among staff. This led to the second theoretical code ‘experiencing a negative influence’.

Similar to the first theoretical category, the second one ‘experiencing a negative influence’ was also interpreted by the researcher from two perspectives, however, this time from principals’ perspective as one, and vice principals, heads of departments and teachers as another. As mentioned previously, principals are in direct and frequent contact with Schools Management, in person and through emails, and their feeling of a negative influence working in the school had its specifics when compared with the rest of the participants.

Being a principal in the school meant a struggle to balance between the demands and decisions from Schools Management and maintaining stability among teachers and heads of departments within the school that are directly affected by such decisions. Some decisions, which were described as “not logical”, cause the principal to find ways to reduce the effect of them on staff, especially that the principal was working with a limited leadership role. The researcher interpreted the negative influence as a situation where there are constant issues coming from outside the school and the principal receives them, examines them, and then devises the best possible way to reduce the negative effect. The core of the struggle exists in the principals’ own beliefs and their perception of right and wrong, and what they have to do as a duty towards their superior. This is where a difference among principals was found and was strongly dependant on the principals’ beliefs about their role as leaders and their moral and ethical value systems. A difference existed in how such issues were dealt with by each principal and conveyed to schools. The theoretical categories under ‘specific for each school’ further elaborates on how each principal’s belief played a role in addressing an existing dilemma, and how each principal felt and reacted to this negative influence. The discourse analysis section of this research further shows how each principal communicates with their superior to fulfil their duties and how they convey the message to their staff in such dilemmas.

Being a principal also meant that one has to endure a negative style of communication from Schools Management. It meant that one has to work without being recognised, or rewarded for their effort. Ironically, principals found that the best reward was when a principal does not receive a phone call or an email that criticises him/her:

"What happens is that if you are not receiving a call or an email describing how bad you are, how you’re not doing your job properly, this is a reward by itself ... I’m not joking, maybe you feel I’m exaggerating but you can ask other principals they will tell you the same." (Participant 2)

As mentioned in the previous theoretical category, working in the school as a principal meant that you don’t share your opinion in meetings with Schools

Management, unless you have the courage to talk about what you believe is right or wrong. This depended solely on the principal and this is where a difference among principals occurred:

“I don’t take orders that are not logical and follow them to the end, I always argue and give [reasons why], and [place] my teachers’ wellbeing over any other irrational decision taken.” (Participant 2)

The struggle the principals were experiencing extended beyond balancing between duties towards their superior and their staff. Experiencing this negative influence also meant a struggle or a conflict between the Schools Management’s values and the principal’s own values. The principal’s self-values are evidently reflected in the quote above, unaffected by the influence of the Schools Management and clearly controlling the way this principal is leading the school and shaping its organisational culture. But that was limited to one of the principals and not both.

This negative influence, paradoxically, held within a positive influence, it reminded principals how to be better leaders. Principals considered this unpleasant experience, specifically the communication style of their superior, as a reminder of how their staff might feel if they were to communicate with them in the same negative way. It was a reminder not to repeat the same during their meetings with heads of departments and teachers. Because being a principal in this school meant that one’s work is not recognised, principals made sure to recognise and reward their staff, each in their own way in spite of the limited role each had.

Vice principals, heads of departments and teachers experienced this negative effect on two levels. First, they understand what is going on with principals simply because when they approach principals for a solution to a problem caused by one of the Schools Management decisions, the principal stands powerless. The second is the direct consequences of decisions that impact them.

Working in the school gave an ambivalent feeling of liking to work there and not. There is a dynamic environment, which one would like to work in, but at the same time it was not a positive type of dynamism. The feeling was described as

confusing. It was feeling like everything would have been fine if it wasn't for this negative influence from "up there", if it wasn't for the frustration from the inability to plan ahead of time, if it wasn't for the absence of clear criteria on how teachers are evaluated, if it wasn't for the feeling that teachers are not priority in the organisation.

Vice principals, heads of departments and teachers were experiencing job instability while working very hard throughout the days and weeks, which were loaded with all sorts of tasks and duties. Some were part of the weekly routine and others were instantaneous and required immediate action. Such immediate actions meant that it had to be accomplished regardless of whether the given time was sufficient or not. It became known to all that when instructions came from Schools Management, they have to be obeyed within the timeframes given because meeting a deadline and following instructions were more important than providing quality work.

Similar to principals, they also felt that good work was not recognised by Schools Management. Recognition meant encouraging creativity and those that went the extra mile. They were however, recognised inside the school, with certificates of appreciation, which meant a great deal but still they wished if there were more incentives to celebrate outstanding contributions.

A more serious negative feeling was that 'culture' of blame. This was more evident among teachers and heads of departments. Not that principals and vice principals didn't have their share, but because teachers and heads of departments were in direct contact with students, they were constantly being criticised by Schools Management and blamed for not performing well. Heads of departments receive this blame directly during meetings with Schools Management. Being blamed for everything and experiencing this negative influence became so engraved in staff's mind that just an invitation to a meeting with Schools Management signals pessimism:

“[when receiving the invitation to the meeting you] get the feeling that a disaster is going to happen ..., I don't know why, but when we are called for such meetings

... we assume something's wrong"...From these meetings, what I get and I think many others [share this] that we are not doing our job properly, we don't know how to handle minor things, we get the feeling that we are not effective enough to stay in the school." (Participant 6)

On top of being blamed, there was 'zero tolerance' for making mistakes when working with Schools Management. Little room was there to defend oneself, and therefore this was very much dependant on principals and their willingness to support teachers and help in giving a window for explanation, apology or even an assurance that this mistake will not happen again. One can go through distress and a feeling of bitterness and unfairness, as one staff member who went through such an experience explained. This staff member experienced the zero tolerance environment for a mistake that was not an actual mistake but basically a mere misunderstanding that developed into a problem with no room for clarification.

In essence, working in the school meant that staff members would be constantly blamed and not tolerated should one mistake happen. On the other hand, being loyal, dedicated and voluntarily working extra hours did not mean anything to Schools Management. On top of that, staff felt that 'connections and who you know' were more important than how hard one works. It reminded the researcher of the famous quote "When I'm right, no one remembers, when I'm wrong, no one forgets". It also led the researcher to interpret that all staff including principals, wouldn't have really felt the need for recognition if it wasn't for that negative environment. As if all participants were those types of dedicated people who were willing to work hard and contribute without the need to be recognised.

In an informal conversation with a staff member, it was mentioned that this staff member was willing to voluntarily help Schools Management with any type of work or provide solutions to some of the existing problems, but "nobody wants". Such incidents strengthened the feeling of the 'do as your told environment' and caused a reaction among teachers where leaving exactly on time replaced wanting to go the extra mile. This supported the previously mentioned feeling of not having room for creativity and innovation in the first theoretical category 'working with a limited leadership role'. It became just a job, 'a nine to five job',

nothing more. The researcher felt that this was the opposite of what is known about the teaching profession where one is bound by students and what is best for them. In fact, such a belief did exist but was destroyed by that negative influence.

The researcher also interpreted a feeling among staff that they wished things were different. There was a sense of appreciation from staff to the good things the school had offered, but at the same time this feeling had been distorted by the negative effect of Schools Management.

All teachers looked at this situation as a given and did not see a solution to overcome this negative influence, except for one teacher from the total of 20. This teacher believed that such a dilemma can be surmounted by practicing “smart leadership” within the schools. This teacher saw that with such leadership, even if a principal was powerless, he/she can maintain a good working environment for teachers.

With this negative environment that staff are working in, a question emerged about how then are they continuing with their work and how they are ‘dealing with frustrations’ the third theoretical category. This category was elaborated on by asking the question ‘what motivates you to work here?’. The importance of this question was not in its content as much as the timing of asking it, which was after teachers expressed their frustrations and feeling a negative influence. This helped in providing an answer that came right after thinking about their frustrations and therefore allowed for an immediate connection to be made by the participants as to how are they coping and surviving this negative influence.

Participants shared common indications about how frustrations are dealt with or how the negative effect is alleviated. There were, however, specifics in which participants differed in the way they dealt with frustration, depending on their situation. These specific ways categorised participants into three main modes:

1. Those who found their consolation and reward in students’ and their appreciation of their teachers’ hard work. At the same time, making a difference in students’ lives was rewarding enough to keep them going.

2. Those who needed the job and needed to isolate themselves from such frustrations in order to continue work and support their family.
3. Very few who have come from a completely different school environment that offered less salary and no high-tech supporting instructional resources. They found school facilities and resources, both technological and financial, fascinating and did not mind the negative influence, except when it affected these resources.

As for the common indications, specifically for teachers, their frustrations were shielded by the principal's presence and their heads of departments who listened to them and supported them whenever needed. There was always an opportunity to speak to the principal whenever a concern arises. In one of the schools, teachers felt that the principal sincerely cared about them and would do the best that can be done when it comes to solving a problem or reducing the effect of a decision that has negatively impacted them. Some of the heads of departments played a bigger role in alleviating teachers' frustrations by a process that they described as 'trying to make sense of things themselves' and then try to find ways to convince the team so that when it comes to a mandate that must be implemented, it would be smoother for teachers to achieve. In this way, the head of department described that this was the best possible way to balance between what must be done and teachers wellbeing, and at the same time maintaining respect to decisions regardless of whether one is convinced or not.

The researcher interpreted that among each department, depending on the dynamics among the team, there was a solidarity. As a matter of fact, the solidarity was within the whole school, but the strength of it depended on the principal. This was interpreted from the responses of teachers, heads of departments and vice principals and comparing one school with the other, where school A had a somewhat stronger coping mechanisms and felt a greater shielding effect not only by the principal, but also by the vice principal and heads of departments whom among themselves also had a greater solidarity also. This solidarity meant that staff members had a subtle agreement, a shared understanding of how to work in the school. This lead to the fourth theoretical category 'abiding by the rules of the game'. This category was a reflection or an

outcome of shared meaning among participants. The most substantial rule of the game was, as the title of the category suggests, abiding by the rules and instructions received from Schools Management without any kind of objection, comment or discussion. According to teachers' sense of working in the school, instructions must be obeyed and principals have no saying in them.

The fear of 'being labelled' as being uncooperative and having a negative attitude was among the main reasons that was behind this shared understanding. The researcher believed that it is only normal, it is part of human nature not wanting to be labelled. Other reasons that were described were the fear of being scrutinised the moment one starts to ask too many questions. There was a feeling among participants that staying silent and 'keeping your head down' were essential rules of the game. Indirectly, old staff 'educate' new joining staff about these rules of working in the school.

Experiencing these symptoms caused staff to develop new skills that did not exist before. One of them was being able to multitask, but not in the positive meaning of it. It was addressing the demands of Schools Management on the account of a teacher's duty. Despite that it made teachers feel that they can give much more than what they are giving, but rules had to be obeyed. The teaching profession to them had moved to a different level, where they had started to question whether students' wellbeing was considered or not. Teachers time was being consumed in administrative work and other tasks when time could be save to develop and create ideas that are beneficial for students. The other skill that was gained was 'flexibility', becoming flexible and letting go of some of the beliefs that one might have. Holding on to values subtly meant that one might lose their job and so flexibility was an answer to this dilemma.

These shared meanings did not exist before in these schools, but is a product of participants, the social actors, interacting with the object, which in the case of the two schools is leadership within the schools' boundaries, and outside those boundaries with Schools Management, at a defined time. In the past things were different, as described by old staff who have been in the school for more than five years. Their descriptions of how it was working in the school was significant that

it led to the fifth theoretical category ‘Reminiscing the past’ where those staff described a different meaning of working in the school and how leadership was different. The whole culture of the organisation had changed, there was more team spirit among staff and teaching used to be enjoyable but:

“now people find out that they are more of like an office worker; far more bureaucratic tasks. It’s more of they want teachers and students to be like robots follow a rigid set of outcomes. [...]. The human side of being a teacher is disappearing.” (Participant 7)

Before, old staff felt that there was more focus on students’ performance, more attention and appreciation for teachers. Now, they are experiencing a change in what they described as ‘status of a teacher’. This status had dropped over time and that was very disappointing, because they felt they were no longer appreciated, when in fact, teachers should be highly valued given they are in class teaching future generations: “It’s a shame, because if you are valued you want to give more back.” (Participant 7). Old staff were reminiscing ‘back then’ when working extra hours did not matter, it was done with pleasure. Teachers felt a sense of belonging to the school, especially that many of the old staff were present at the very early stages of establishing the organisation and were part of a team that started the schools. They were involved in all the work that came with the commencement of a school. Gradually, this enthusiasm of working and giving one’s best disappeared, and was replaced by low morale and loss of interest for giving anything extra than what is required to do within the exact school timing.

One of the greatest things that old staff missed was their relation with leadership, and on two levels. The first was within the school, where the principal had more authority to make decisions, and more time to spend with teachers. Now, they were too consumed with Schools Management’s tasks and little time was left to spend on school matters and be among staff. The other level was with executive management which again were more present among teachers in the past than present day. There was more transparency, more room to express concerns, and opinions were listened to and considered. Now, the voices have become silent and old staff work with bitterness of how their hard work and achievements are no

longer valued, or more precisely no longer important, no longer needed. Now they had to follow instructions and do as required. The blame culture, described earlier, did not exist before, there was a more constructive approach to how things were dealt with, instead of the constant criticism and blaming that teachers were facing.

Listening to how old staff were reminiscing the past gave the researcher an immediate insight that this was a clear case of a change in the image of leadership in the organisation which consequently changed the whole culture of work and discouraged staff to maintain their interest and passion. Motivating staff does not necessarily require financial incentives. If an organisation is lucky to have self-motivated staff, then all it needs is to maintain their enthusiasm. Listening, appreciating, recognising the work of teachers would have been quite enough to keep their enthusiasm. But then this would depend on the type of leader in charge. Everything changes if that leader left, which means that this organisation can never have a stable organisational culture that becomes its identity. At the time of data collection, all the previously described theoretical categories can disappear and be replaced by, for example, 'experiencing a positive influence'. Or, the opposite of that could happen and things become more demotivating. This does not represent a healthy situation neither for teachers, nor for students.

The five aforementioned theoretical categories were common among the two schools, and the following two theoretical categories, despite being specific for each school, were consistent with the previous five. They were mostly related to the first and second theoretical category where School A and B differed in either the principal's approach and reaction to the limited authority, or in some of the incidents that were related to the history of leadership in the school. Also, there were specific 'rituals' in one school that were created in the past and continued despite the changes in school principals. There were other aspects that were specific for each school, but these two were the most significant and had the most impact on both staff members and the general organisational culture for each school.

These rituals existed in School A only, and therefore the theoretical category 'passing on the rituals' was exclusive to this school. When teachers in School A

were reminiscing the past, almost all of them referred to a point in time where they had an excellent principal that created an atmosphere where all felt that they were 'working as a team, as a family'. When asked about a role model of a leader within the organisation, the majority of the teachers in this school referred to this principal. Unlike School B, there was no mentioning of a principal as a role model, except for very few. This principal had greatly influenced and inspired all staff members and was a true leader in their eyes. The most significant element that teachers described was being a great listener and supporter, knew how to deal with the different situations and how to balance and manage upper management requirements along with maintaining an excellent working environment. Staff members who had little confidence in their ability to lead teams were encouraged, trained and supported by this principal to become, not only confident, but to thrive in what they were hesitant to achieve. For that reason, participants pointed out that the success of their school was attributed to that principal.

To the researcher, it seemed like this principal had created a set of rules and rituals in the school, a way of working in harmony and as a team. Heads of departments mastered these rituals and it became engraved in an unwritten rules and regulations manual. This hypothetical manual was shared with any new staff that joined, and so even though many of the old staff left, the remaining kept 'using' this manual. When that principal left, the rituals were passed on to the new principal. Staff members orient the new principal on how things are done in the school and so the rituals carry on. This orientation, however, is not a formal one. It is basically the influence of the remaining team working together in such a cohesion that anyone new who joins the school, subconsciously tones with the team.

The researcher compared notes on interviews for both schools and noticed that despite the resemblance of symptoms in both schools, the five common theoretical categories for both schools, School A staff seemed to be in better harmony than School B. They had the same frustrations but supported each other at a stronger level than School A. They also expressed more confidence in their principal when compared to School B. Once again this is a matter of coincidence that this school had a team and a leader that established and maintained the rituals in this school.

It cannot be generalised and it can change anytime a new principal comes in and decides to not accept these rituals. A school needs stability in its way of leadership. One cannot control the personal side or the character of the leader, but a set of ‘rituals’ do need to be practiced in order to maintain stability for teachers and consequently students.

In the first of the five common theoretical categories ‘working with a limited leadership role’, it was mentioned that some of the principals and vice principals expressed concerns about how staff might view them when they do not have authority to address some of the immediate needs of teachers. The theoretical code ‘the leader image at stakes’ further elaborates on this matter. This code was exclusive to School B, where the principal had a greater concern about how staff view this limited leadership role and feared that in time, teachers will not approach this principal because it would be pointless.

This principal saw that the role was more of a manager executing tasks than a leader. It was different from the previous experience the principal had where there was more authority and therefore a more effective relationship with teachers. To this principal, the position and the presence of authority were important to practice leadership. They had to be granted in order to maintain the leader’s image in front of their subordinates. Because this was absent in the school, the principal felt an obstacle in front teachers to view him/her as a true leader: “Unfortunately, that limits, it changes the dynamic, and it changes the dynamic even how staff view a principal as well.” (Participant 1).

The principal also felt that his/her role was to inspire teachers and bring out the best in them, but because this authority was taken away from him/her, it was not possible to achieve that anymore:

“The amount of growth that you can promote in the staff is reduced. [...]. You can help staff develop, but to bring about the passion amongst the staff you have to be able to really drive them, and you can’t have that unless you are a leader. As a manager, you’re restricted.” (Participant 1)

This issue was raised several times by the principal, including a response to the question ‘what demotivates you to work here?’, where the response was: “The difference between management and leadership, I recognise it, I see it. That’s a shame”. The fear of losing the leadership image extended to how parents and students viewed the principal. That also caused disappointment to the principal and added to the problem of lack of authority within the school he/she is in charge of.

This fear of losing the leadership image was not evident in School A, which shows that leaders have different ways of responding and reacting to external influences and limitations to their role as leaders in the school. The principal of School B had outstanding achievements in the previous school that he/she worked in. But in this school things were different, those outstanding achievements were not possible, simply because the authority was not there. If the researcher wanted to analyse the style of leadership of this principal in the schools the principal worked in using the MLQ, for example, it would be assumed that she would obtain two different results. So, the question here is, what is the actual reflection of a school leader’s image?

4.3 Leadership Scenarios

The results of this section represent a discourse analysis of the DCTs for three FTAs: requests, apologies, refusals. The findings are presented in a chart that includes the various strategies and semantic formulas revealed in participants’ responses to hypothetical scenarios. Each section will start with describing the results of the scenarios with subordinates, and then with superiors. As mentioned earlier, the letter ‘P’, for participant, was used as a designation to the four leaders (two principals and two vice principals) in the two schools A and B. For example, the label ‘P1_A’ refers to a leader in school A, without identifying if the leader is a principal or vice principal. The presence of the label ‘P’ in front of a strategy means that the participant used this strategy for the corresponding FTA. Where a label is repeated more than once in one chart, it indicates that the participant used more than one strategy to mitigate an FTA.

4.3.1 Request

Table 4.12 below shows that the four school leaders, P1, P2, P3 and P4 in both schools used almost the exact same strategies in the two situations and with both subordinates and superiors. The only exception was one leader in School A who chose to convey the request to subordinates baldly without the need of a mitigating strategy.

| Type of Speech Act | | REQUEST | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|--|---|
| Situation | | Conveying an obligatory task* | Allocating a fixed day for a meeting ^w |
| Addressed to | | Subordinates (HP/HSD/HI) ^a | Superior (LP/HSD/HI) ^b |
| Choice of FTA | Strategy | | |
| Baldly, on record | | P2 _A ^w | |
| Redressive action | Positive politeness redress | P1 _A ^s , P3 _B ^s , P4 _B ^s | |
| | Negative politeness redress | P1 _A , P2 _A , P3 _B , P4 _B | |
| Off the record | | | |
| No linguistic action | | | |

* Upper management made a decision and school leaders have to implement it by requesting from teachers

^a HP: High Power (from high power to low power), HSD: High Social Distance, HI: High Imposition (on the hearer)

^b LP: Low Power (from low power to high power)

^s Spoken (For this situation, the leader had the option to choose between talking or writing an email)

^w written (email)

Table 4.12: Speech act strategies for requests
(Adapted from Brown & Levinson 1987)

The results of the scenario with subordinates show that the majority of leaders chose the option of speaking to their subordinates rather than conveying the request through an email. Except for P2_A, all leaders chose a positive politeness redressive strategy to save the face of the hearer. The choice to speak to teachers shows that leaders respected their teachers feeling and preferred a face to face conversation to explain and show support. In their written responses, leaders described how they would balance Schools Management request, in the hypothetical scenario, with its impact on teachers. Their responses showed that they would convey this request in a way that maintains respect to Schools Management and, at the same time, maintain their face in front of teachers. One

leader wrote: “I will never mention that it is a decision imposed by the [Schools Management].” (Participant 2). Instead, the leader tried to win teachers’ support and empathy towards students who need help to succeed:

“I realized lately that we have a lot of students who are not performing well and need our support. We need to do something about it, maybe we can have some remedial sessions on Saturday. I am hoping that we can all work together to achieve this task.” (Participant 8)

The leader here is suggesting rather than imposing, asking teachers in a polite way and counting on them to understand and join that leader in feeling the need to support students. Other leaders felt that a solution must be found before conveying this request to teachers, such as finding ways to compensate them:

“The issue in all its complexities would need to be dealt with at the [Schools Management] meeting, however if it did go to the wire, I would seek a method where by staff time at weekends is compensated for, thereby enabling staff to agree to management requests.” (Participant 2)

4.3.2 Apology

Table 4.13 below shows that more than one semantic formula was used by each of the four leaders to express an apology to both subordinates and superiors.

For the scenario with subordinates, participants were only given the option of writing an email to respond. In total, School A leaders used four semantic formulas with six strategies for expressing the FTA of apology with their subordinates, while School B leaders used only two semantic formulas and four strategies. School A leaders differed from School B in that both leaders used a direct expression of apology where one leader specifically wrote: “Let me start first by apologising to you for my inappropriate behaviour earlier today”, and the other leader wrote: “I would like to apologise for my inappropriate behaviour, especially to those whom I upset during the meeting”. Only one leader from School A used the strategy of explaining the situation: “I really thank you for your

patience as it doesn't matter what I was going through, I should definitely not take it out on you".

| Type of Speech Act | | APOLOGY | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|
| Situation | | Upsetting teachers in a meeting ^w | Forgetting a meeting with boss |
| Addressed to | | Subordinates (HP/HSD/HI) ^a | Superior (LP/HSD/HI) ^b |
| Semantic Formula | Strategy | | |
| Expression of apology | Expression of regret | | P4 _B ^s |
| | An offer of apology | P1 _A , P2 _A | P1 _A ^s , P2 _A ^w |
| | A request for forgiveness | | |
| Explanation of the situation | | P2 _A | P1 _A ^s , P2 _A ^w , P3 _B ^s , P4 _B ^s |
| Acknowledgment of responsibility | Accepting the blame | P2 _A , P4 _B | P3 _B ^s |
| | Expressing self-deficiency | | P3 _B ^s |
| | Recognising the other person as deserving apology | P1 _A , P3 _B | |
| | Expressing lack of intent | P1 _A , P2 _A , P4 _B | P4 _B ^s |
| An offer to repair | | P1 _A , P3 _B , P4 _B | P1 _A ^s , P4 _B ^s |
| A promise of forbearance | | | P2 _A ^w |

^a HP: High Power (from high power to low power), HSD: High Social Distance, HI: High Imposition (on the speaker)

^b LP: Low Power (from low power to high power)

^s Spoken (For this situation, leader had the option to choose between talking or writing an email)

^w Written (email)

Table 4.13: Speech act strategies for apology
(Adapted from Cohen & Olshtain 1981; Cohen & Olshtain (1983)
(Also in Ellis 1994)

All leaders used semantic formulas that express their acknowledgement of responsibility. Both School A and School B leaders used three strategies all together, out of the four, for acknowledging responsibility. Both leaders in School A explained that it was not in their intention to disturb teachers, while only one leader used this strategy in School B. On the other hand, both of School B leaders offered to repair the situation while only one leader in school A used this strategy. None of the leaders in both schools used the semantic formula 'a promise of

forbearance'. This strategy was used by one leader in School A and with a superior.

With their superior, participants were given the option of writing an email or speaking to their superior. All leaders chose to speak to their boss rather than written an email to apologise, except for one leader in School A who chose to write the apology. Leaders in all schools used strategies from all five semantic formula, with school A using four strategies in total and School B using six. None of the leaders however, used the strategy of 'recognising the other person as deserving an apology'. All four leaders offered an explanation of the situation in which they, hypothetically, forgot to attend a meeting with their superior.

The researcher linked the FTA of apology to the quality of the leader and subsequently organisational culture, through some major concept about this FTA. Searle (1969) believes that a person would not utter any expression of apology unless that person actually regretted an action taken, at a time preceding the act of apology, towards a receiver and which resulted in a disturbance. Fraser (1981) adds to that with an offer to take responsibility of the action that disturbed the receiver. While an offer of a sincere apology would save face for the hearer and threaten the face of the speaker (Brown & Levinson 1987), the actual effect of it is that it clears negative feelings, cultivates positive communication and strengthens social relations. If a leader apologises to a subordinate, the effect of the aforementioned consequences of an apology would double, if not triple. Simin et al. (2014, p.73) suggest that apologising can reduce tension and friction and strengthen interpersonal communication.

4.3.3 Refusal

In the FTA of refusal, none of the leaders used a direct semantic formula such as "I refuse" or "I do not accept". Instead, leaders used indirect strategies to express a refusal with both subordinates and superiors. Table 4.14 summarises the results of the strategies used to refuse a request.

| Type of Speech Act | | REFUSAL | |
|--------------------|---|---|--|
| Situation | | Change of workspace ^w | Traveling with student for internship |
| Addressed to | | Subordinates (HP/HSD/HI) ^a | Superior (LP/HSD/HI) ^b |
| Form | Semantic Formula | | |
| Direct | Performative | | |
| | Non-performative statement | | |
| Indirect | Statement of regret | | P2 _A ^w , P3 _B ^{s+w} |
| | Wish | | P1 _A ^s , P4 _B ^s |
| | Excuse, reason, explanation | P1 _A , P3 _B | P2 _A ^w , P3 _B ^{s+w} , P4 _B ^s |
| | Statement of alternative | | P1 _A ^s , P4 _B ^s |
| | Set condition for past or future acceptance | P1 _A , P2 _A , P4 _B | P1 _A ^s |
| | Promise of future acceptance | | P1 _A ^s |
| | Statement of principle | | |
| | Statement of philosophy | | |
| | Attempt to dissuade interlocutor | | |
| | Acceptance that functions as refusal | P3 _B , P4 _B | |
| | Avoidance | | |

^a HP: High Power (from high power to low power), HSD: High Social Distance, HI: High Imposition (on the hearer)

^b LP: Low Power (from low power to high power)

^s Spoken (For this situation, leader had the option to choose between talking or writing an email)

^w Written (email)

Table 4.14: Speech act strategies for refusal

(Adapted from Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz 1990, in Ellis 1994)

With subordinates, participant had only one option writing to their subordinates. School A used a total of two strategies altogether, while School B used three. At least one leader from each school gave either an excuse or explanation why they refused. Two leaders from School A expressed their intention to consider the request in the future, while only one leader from School B demonstrated that. However, only School B leaders used the semantic formula ‘acceptance that functions as refusal’, for example: “...please let me know exactly what your concerns are along with any specific requirements. If they are valid and doable, then I will try my best to address them”.

With their superior, leaders were given the option of either speaking or sending an email. Two of the leaders, one from each school, chose to speak to their boss. The other two leaders, one chose to write an email, while the other chose to both speak and write to their boss. At least one leader from each school expressed a regret that they are unable to respond to their boss's request and that they wished they could. This is shown in their choice of strategy 'statement of regret' and 'wish', respectively. For example, one of the leaders stated: "I would like to apologize for not being able to travel as I have already made plans to travel with my family". Here an explanation is also given. Three of the leaders gave an explanation why they were not able to accept the request, but only one leader promised that they would accept in the future: "I would really appreciate if you can send someone else for now and I promise you I will take the second one on me". In total, School A leaders used six indirect strategies, while School B leaders used four.

5. Chapter 5: Discussion

The methods and results of the quantitative and qualitative strands of this research were presented separately in the previous two chapters. In this chapter, inferences of each strand will first be presented, followed by mixing the two into a meta-inference. Quantitative results will be discussed first, followed by the qualitative. The discussion of each will be done within two main levels, the first is the interpretation of results and how they relate to similar research in the literature. The second level will be the theoretical and methodological implication of this study. After the two strands are discussed, a third level of discussion will be added to emphasise the core limitation of this study.

5.1 Quantitative Strand Inferences

The results of the quantitative strand show that the style of leadership in the eleven selected schools, has combined transactional and transformational characteristics. This leadership style, however, is not an exact match of that defined in the FRL theory. It is a partial blend of the five factors of transformational leadership with the two factors of transactional leadership. The combination is partial because only three factors from transformational leadership and one factor of transactional were fully loaded, with each of the four questions that define these factors. These were: idealised influence (attributes), inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and contingent reward, respectively. As for idealised influence (behaviours), intellectual stimulation and management-by-exception (active), the questions that define them were only partially loaded. The resultant style of leadership will therefore be called ‘enhanced transforming leadership’, based on Burns (2003) new vision of transforming leadership, but with a modified connotation that will be explained in the meta-inference part of this chapter. By identifying the style of leadership, the first research question has been answered.

The blend between transformational and transactional constructs, specifically contingent reward, has been found in various studies that contributed to the development of the MLQ, and therefore is in line with what literature has found. As mentioned previously, part of the criticism of MLQ which Avolio and Bass

(2004, p. 47) themselves have identified, is the high correlations between transformational leadership scales and contingent reward. Additionally, this result concurs with other studies (e.g. Bass 1985; Chaplin 2005; Hunt 1991; Kanste, Miettunen & Kynga 2006; Smith & Peterson 1988; Yukl 1994 1999) which show a variation in the psychometric properties of the MLQ; another point of criticism that scholars have recognised in the literature. Therefore, provided that the collected data are parametric and supported by adequacy of sampling and test of sphericity (section 4.1.3.3), reliability and ICC analysis were important to conduct before and after PCA (see Ramchunder & Martins 2014, for non-parametric correlation analysis of MLQ).

The result of PCA in this study reduced the nine-factor model of the MLQ into three main factors, which include: the transforming leadership mentioned above (referred to as TL-3F in Table 4.6), partial passive/avoidant leadership (PA-3F) and partial transactional leadership (TLS-3F). This reduction is in line with published research on PCA, and factor analysis in general, of MLQ (Kanste, Miettunen & Kynga 2006; Notgrass 2014; Tuna et al. 2011). As a matter of fact, Antonakis et al. (2003) demonstrated that only their study and few others, specifically Avolio et al. (1995) and Bass and Avolio (1997), supported the nine-factor scale of the MLQ. Reliability and ICC analysis verified the internal consistency and strong correlations between the three extracted factors. Yet still, this was not enough to conclude the analysis. The ‘augmentation hypothesis’ (Avolio & Bass 2004) in the FRL needs to be considered to test the three factors for their correlation with the ‘outcomes of leadership’ construct. This is where multiple regression analysis was conducted and showed that only the TL-3F model was a significant predictor of ‘outcomes of leadership’. As for PA-3F and TLS-3F models, they were not significant predictors and therefore excluded. Statistically, only the first model TL-3F, i.e., transforming leadership style, can be generalised for the entire population.

The researcher wishes, at this point, to mention that while the decision to accept and exclude factors might seem to be a simple and direct process, the actual experience was not. During the factor extraction phase, the researcher developed a need to pause for a while and ask a question: To extract or not to extract, this is a

confusion! The various approaches described in sections 3.2.3.5 and 3.2.3.6 were within a context of quantitative research methods. Describing factor analysis within a mixed method context was found to be deficient in the literature.

Another question that was asked by the researcher was related to whether PCA is a sound method for data reduction or not, and what are the criteria for deciding what is sound and what is not. The answer to that depends on the phenomena being studied in a specific field. The important consideration for this research is that the MLQ had already been developed and evaluated by the designers themselves and other researchers. Therefore, PCA can be considered a good method for comparing extracted factors, their convergence and divergence from the original model and underlying theory. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) would be a more accurate method to test a theory for its constructs (Antonakis 2003), but requires a much larger sample than the one achieved for this study. At the same time, it was important that the overall analysis is not confined within factor extraction and considers concepts and meanings beyond direct statistical implications. The next sections further elaborate on this discussion.

In spite of excluding both PA-3F and TLS-3F from generalisability of leadership styles, their high ICC, large effect size and significant value of the F-Test score, combined with the consistency reflected in Cronbach's alpha (see Tables 4.7 & 4.8), brings an important finding, along with TL-3F. It was discussed earlier that these measures together show interrater agreeability and consistency. A high ICC along with the aforementioned measures, indicate that teachers' ratings of these three factors, i.e., leadership styles, were agreed upon among all schools. It also means that any school of the eleven can be a predictor of ratings for the rest. Translating this into a qualitative inference means that all schools were pointing to an agreed upon leadership phenomena, regardless of the exact style, which the statistical model helped in refining and thereby reducing error. This inference, however, would need further confirmation from interviews with teachers, and will be revealed in the qualitative strand of this chapter.

Another inference that can be made, in spite of excluding two factors, is that multiple regression revealed a negative correlation between PA-3F and each of the

outcomes of leadership, TL-3F and TLS-3F. This further supports the concept of Bass's leadership continuum where transformational leadership and passive/avoidant leadership styles are at opposite ends of this continuum. It also supports the logical approach of validating data, i.e., to negate a null hypothesis (see Pedhazur & Schmelkin 1991 for logical approaches of factor analysis). Qualitatively this can be explained as an agreement among teachers that their principals fulfil the descriptions inferred from questions related to transformational and transactional constructs, but do not conform to those related to passive/avoidant leadership. In other words, as if teachers are saying "our principals are not passive/avoidant leaders. If this is confirmed through interviews, it would provide further justification for excluding passive/avoidant as a leadership style

In line with the literature review about the importance of identifying the level in which leadership is measured, multilevel analysis of MLQ leadership styles and the use of various models for data aggregation, shaped the inferences of teachers' ratings of the MLQ across all schools. Thereby leading to the above mentioned finding about the agreement on leadership styles. This was an important turning point in the results of this study pertaining the first research question. It would not be enough to descriptively identify leadership styles among schools. The questionnaire depended on ratings and therefore required an analysis of inter-rater agreements and consistencies. This supports the importance of statistical models in providing the finest details. Despite the aggregation of data into one level of analysis and confirming agreement and consistency of results among schools, two of the three extracted factors were excluded from the generalisability of leadership styles, because statistically they were not related to the outcomes of leadership.

5.2 Qualitative Strand Inferences

5.2.1 Grounded Theory

One of the most interesting interpretations of grounded theory results, is the considerable emphasis, made by participants, on leadership, both principals' and upper management's (referred to as Schools Management throughout the results chapter). This was not speculated when the researcher selected grounded theory to

interpret the organisational culture of the school. However, it added value to both the initial purpose of research questions and leadership styles interpreted in the quantitative strand. While the latter findings revealed an 'enhanced transforming leadership' style, a major resultant theoretical category revealed 'working with a limited leadership role'. School leaders, both principals and vice principals, perceived their role as managers of school operations rather than being involved in the major school decision making processes. The same was perceived by their followers who had an understanding that their leaders were carrying out their superiors' instructions. Initially, the comparison with the resultant transforming leadership seemed like a contradiction, but the development of the second theoretical category: 'experiencing a negative environment', explained this discrepancy.

Taking the principals', and the vice principals' and teachers' perspectives was important for understanding the differences between the struggles of leaders with what followers perceive. Some of the negative experiences were common among all members, i.e. shared meaning. Others were exclusive to principals given their direct contact with Schools Management, which the source of negative influence was attributed to. Some of the main common contributors to this negative environment were constant criticism and blame for unfavourable outcomes, lack of recognition when due, job instability that was mostly related to the ambiguity in teacher evaluations, and zero tolerance for mistakes.

As for those exclusive to the principal, they mainly included the situations where principals were caught between carrying out what they described as 'orders' that were not logical, and directly affected teachers. This was interpreted as one of the main differences found between the two leadership practices. It actually related to the two theoretical categories that were specific to each school. The researcher finds this negative effect to be a major precursor for the development of conflicting identities among leaders. The closest definition of identity conflict for this situation is "an inconsistency between the contents of two or more identities, such as a clash of values, goals, or norms" (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley 2008, p. 354. Also, Figure 1, p. 330). Managing multiple identities has become a common practice in modern organisations (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley 2008; Cheney

1991; Gioia & Thomas 1996; Pratt & Foreman 2000). Therefore, it could be used as an alternative approach to describing this conflict. The researcher, however, chose pragmatics of language through leadership scenarios, to understand some of these struggles. For example, by focusing on how principals would request a demanding task from teachers when they themselves were not convinced. Communication is one of the areas that are studied in research on identification. (Ashforth, Harrison & Corley 2008). Within a symbolic interaction concept, significant communication becomes “the organising process in the community” (Mead 1934, p. 327).

Principals had a major role in shielding teachers from this external negative influence. It therefore contributed to a similar effect that would be generated when leaders empower their subordinates and raise their morale in difficult situations. Except that here, it was making the environment somehow a ‘lesser of two evils’. The shielding effect of principals was found to be an important contribution to the researcher’s brain storming questions and comments mentioned in the literature review. Specifically, those related to the inner-self challenges that leaders face and struggle with. The difference in the shielding effects between the two schools captured the researcher’s attention. Results clearly showed that school A had a greater shielding effect from their principal in comparison to school B. The difference was attributed to school A principal who had the ‘courage to speak’, not for the purpose of merely objecting to the ideas of their superior, but for what the principal ‘believed’ would be better for the school, teachers and students. Adopting symbolic interactionism to develop the theoretical categories, helped in elaborating on this finding. Specifically, the difference between self-concept and self as a process in constructing meaning, which will be elaborated on in the meta-inference part.

The shielding effect was one of the main mechanisms for how teachers were ‘dealing with frustrations’; the third theoretical category. This demonstrated the nature of interaction between leader and follower, where principals’ efforts in protecting staff were perceptible. Additionally, the shared aspects of the negative environment among teachers and their leaders, coupled with principals shielding effect, created organisational symbols that signalled a solidarity among all, and

reduced, to an extent, the negative external impact. This is supported by Weick (1995) who believes that feelings of uncertainty and ambivalence can be moderated within a collective meaning among a group. The shared aspects also created an understanding that principals were following instructions and that decisions were not in their hands. This unity among members of the organisation, the school, was interpreted by the researcher as collective meaning and shared understanding; a major aspect in organisational culture (Hatch & Schultz 2004; Smircich 1983; Van Maanen & Barley 1983; Weick & Sutcliffe 2001).

The literature conveys two perspectives regarding the influence of leadership on individual and collective or group understandings. The first is related to the importance of leadership in maintaining both individual and collective identities, confidence and commitment in the school (e.g. Day & Leithwood 2007; Day et al. 2003; Fullan 2003; Hallinger & Heck 1996). The second perspective takes a psychological approach to group dynamics and questions whether individual and group processes actually occur (Obholzer 2016). This perspective views the creation of reality within a “concrete (outer world) and a symbolic (inner world) group setting” and therefore “[g]roup processes depend on past experience and have a positive, negative, or ambivalent influence on the interpretation and management of current situations” (p. 31). Accordingly, this concept applies to both leader and follower, and therefore is influenced by both leadership and followership roles. The researcher concurs with the second more comprehensive perspective in explaining the solidarity among principals and teachers. Especially given that the extent of this solidarity in each school was interpreted to be subject to the principal.

The shared understanding among leaders and followers in the schools created yet another shared understanding about how to work in the organisation. The fourth theoretical category ‘abiding by the rules of the game’, represented this understanding. Interestingly, the literature has identified ‘rules of the game’ as one of the main constituents of organisational culture. They represent “the implicit, unwritten rules for getting along in the organization” (Schein 2016, p. 4). It is not a new concept and has been mentioned across major scholarly work on organisational culture (e.g. Deal & Kennedy 1999; Schein 1968, 1978; Van

Maanen 1976, in Schein 2016). These shared understandings were interpreted by the researcher as recent school cultural components that did not exist in the past.

The last theoretical category ‘reminiscing the past’ clearly identified an organisational culture change that happened throughout the history of these schools. Participants who witnessed these changes, those that were referred to as ‘old staff’, clearly attributed the differences to changes in management on both school and upper management levels. This finding has an important implication in its contribution to the concept of organisational culture as a dynamic process (Fullan 2001; Hatch 2004) as opposed to the static perceptions that have been criticised (see Connolly, Chris & Beales 2011). Thus, the construction and reconstruction of culture is not restricted to a present time of an organisation’s life but rather extends across its lifetimes.

Figure 5.1 below summarises the interpreted organisational culture through the five emergent theoretical categories, and demonstrates their relation or connection with cultural concepts in the literature (outer circle).

The changes that happened in the two schools, however, were different in some aspects. School A witnessed a change in its organisational culture but at the same time maintained other aspects. Hatch (2004) identified such an occurrence within the dynamic cultural processes of an organisation: “cultures change but they also stay the same” (p.190). This was represented by the theoretical category exclusive to school A: ‘Passing on the rituals’. There are various reasons why certain aspects of culture stay the same. However, for school A, most teachers referred to one of the principals, in the past, as having a major role in establishing some of the main practices, ‘rituals’, in the school. Accordingly, the researcher attributed the transfer of rituals to the influential leadership practices of that principal. Despite the absence of the leader, the traditions of the organisation remained. In school B on the other hand, ‘the leadership image’ was ‘at stakes’. The principal of this school felt that the negative external influence was a threat to leadership value in the school, as if it was outside the control of the leader.

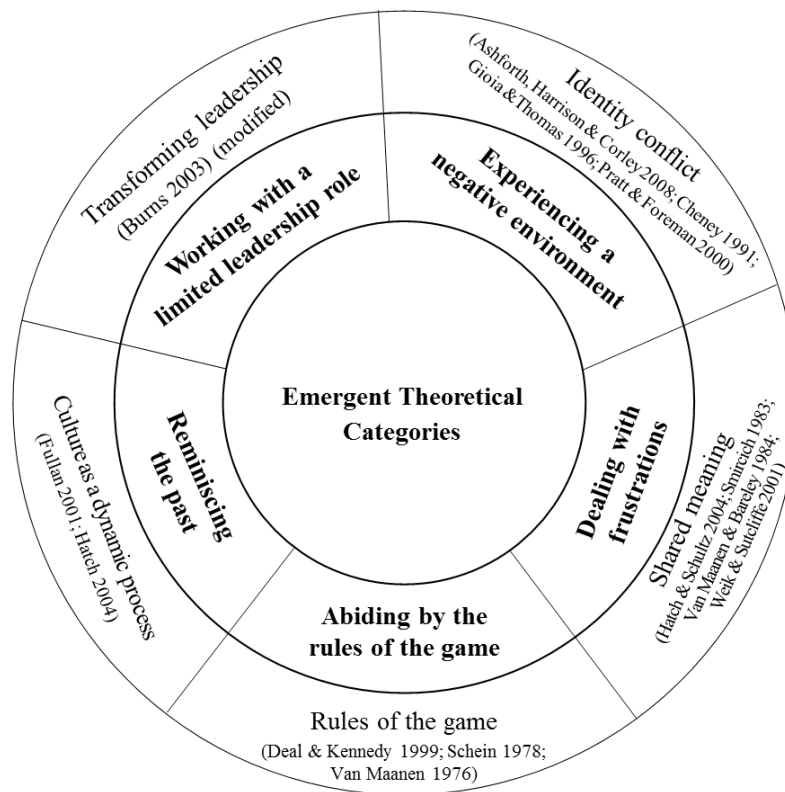


Figure 5.1: The five theoretical categories and their relevance with literature

This matter raised an important question: what is the actual reflection of a school leader's image? This question is found to be more important than 'what is the style of leadership?' Leadership in an organisation does not necessarily reflect the actual leader's style. This is well established in leadership research literature, in both education and business sectors, specifically that leadership depends on various and different contexts (for example: Bruch & Walter 2007; English 2008; Hallinger & Ko 2015; Leithwood 2001; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins 2008, Ogawa 2005; Pfeffer & Salancik 1978; Yukl 1999). The findings of this research look at leadership from a different perspective and not context. How subordinates view their leader might be a different image than what the leader sees him/herself.

Leaders in these schools did have an influence, even though the effect of Schools Management was prevailing. Principals and vice principals made their own cognitive decisions about how to lead despite being shorthanded. Therefore, their leadership is not completely symbolic as Pfeffer and Salancik (2003) suggested,

though it was greatly contained by the prevailing leadership from a higher level of management. Even though working in the organisation was literally described as a ‘do as you are told environment’. How the image of leadership is viewed is a sole decision of the leader regardless of the organisation and any negative influence. Whether it actually represents the true qualities of the leader is in fact another perspective, which can be explained within ethical leadership theories (for example, MacIntyre 2007; Shils 1997; Starratt 1991). Contingency theory of leadership also does not apply here, because leaders made their choices, solely, on how to communicate with their subordinates, regardless of the conditions that were prevailing. In fact, contingency theory and many of the major theories and definitions of leadership have fallen short in one aspect or another (Ogawa 2005). Especially the leader-follower interaction. Meanings and shared understandings were as seen through the previous discussion, were created through leader-follower interaction, but more importantly they were manifested through language.

5.2.2 Leadership Scenarios

Through the results of leadership scenarios, the researcher was able to make sense of why the way teachers were spoken to had a great effect on them, negative and positive. It also explained the shielding effect and reflected on the decisions that principals were making about their communication with their subordinates. One of the interesting insights made by some participants about how an email from Schools Management calling for a meeting, would create a negative feeling. Not only did this ‘speech act’ of requesting a meeting cause discomfort, it signalled, or more precisely, symbolised a special type of FTA of request, which the researcher interpreted as a ‘harbinger of doom’.

Interpreting leadership scenarios for the speech act of request was guided by Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 71) payoffs. These are a set of descriptions related with the main strategies for making a request (see Table 4.12).

Almost all leaders, principals and vice principals, chose a positive politeness redressive strategy. This strategy signals mutual respect and appreciation. One leader in School A, came as an exception to the majority choices of a strategy.

The researcher attributed this exception to a specific understanding relationship with teachers, which was spoken about during the interview with this leader. This leader was part of the team that have worked for a long time and established and maintained the rituals of School A. The researcher observed how staff communicated with this leader in particular while in office and interpreted a high level of understanding between them. This leader also mentioned that when teachers receive emails they know that this “has come from top” and nothing can be done. The focus for this leader was to convey the message without having to consider other aspects, or as Brown and Levinson (1987) refer to it as absence of fear of ‘retribution’ from the hearer because both hearer and speaker have an understanding about the urgency of the request.

The choice of a positive redressive action with subordinates implied a focus on the positive face of the hearer, which meant that the speaker is treating the hearer as a member of a team and that the consequences of this request is shared among all the team including the speaker (the school leader). This was especially evident in the leadership scenario accounts where a leader uses ‘we’ and not ‘you’, “we need to do something...” and “...maybe we can have remedial...”. Despite the high social distance between school leaders and teachers, it showed that they are a team that need to work together rather than the leader speaking from a position of authority. Positive politeness is used within a friendlier context in comparison to negative politeness, which focuses more on the negative face of the hearer, causing less disturbance as possible (Brown and Levinson 1987). Which means that a negative redressive strategy would more likely be used in a formal context where the relationship with the hearer is more formal and reserved. This was the exact result of the scenario with superiors where a negative redressive strategy was used to mitigate for the FTA of request. All leaders used the same strategy with their superior, which can show a degree of resemblance in their qualities of leadership, especially those related to politeness.

Requests were of particular importance for this research because of the results of grounded theory, which revealed the existence of a negative environment influenced by management from outside the school. Much of this negativity was attributed to how teachers were asked or ‘requested’ to do certain task, not being

appreciated for completing these tasks, or any hard work for that matter, and feeling that they were not important in the school. While analysing the results of the leadership scenarios, the researcher connected these grounded theory results with the concept of FTAs, and interpreted that if mitigating strategies were used in 'requests' to teachers, this negative environment might have been avoided. This is supported by the fact that in the theoretical category 'dealing with frustrations', the major factor that mediated the negative influence was the principal of the school.

In their written responses to the difficult situation represented in the first scenario with subordinates, most leaders chose to speak rather than write to teachers. Their description of how they would speak to them was suggesting and not imposing. Other leaders explained that they would seek solutions and options prior to requesting from teachers. These results also supported those from grounded theory, where principals expressed the challenges they face trying to balance between their duties towards their superior and those towards their teachers. The politeness of leaders with their superior and subordinates was further supported by the way they express their apologies to teachers.

The responses to the scenario for apology showed that leaders used expressions that acknowledge their responsibility. The researcher linked the FTA of apology to the quality of the leader and subsequently organisational culture, through major concepts related to this FTA. Searle (1969) believes that a person would not utter any expression of apology unless that person actually regretted an action taken, at a time preceding the act of apology, towards a receiver and which resulted in a disturbance. Fraser (1981) adds to that with an offer to take responsibility of the action that disturbed the receiver. While an offer of a sincere apology would save face for the hearer and threaten the face of the speaker (Brown and Levinson, 1987), the actual effect of it is that it clears negative feelings, cultivates positive communication and strengthens social relations. If a leader apologises to a subordinate, the effect of the aforementioned consequences of an apology would double, if not triple. Simin et al. (2014) suggest that apologising can reduce tension and friction and strengthen interpersonal communication (p. 73).

Leaders' politeness was also demonstrated in the scenario for refusing a request from their subordinates and their superior. All leaders chose indirect ways of refusing combined with proving and explanation, statements of regrets, suggesting alternatives and providing an opportunity for future acceptance. Some of the responses showed that the strategy was an acceptance that actually serves as refusal; a politeness strategy that attends to the face of the requester.

The overall inference from the results of leadership scenarios, is that despite the negative influences, leaders of these schools have maintained their professionalism and did their best in serving their teachers, and mainly showed true respect in communicating with them. The strategies with teachers showed a rapport between school leaders and their teachers. This was interpreted to be more supporting evidence for the theme 'dealing with frustrations' and how the negative effect was mediated by the 'perlocutionary effect' of principals' speech acts. Literature provides some evidence on the effect of speech acts on reducing bureaucratic and hierarchical rigidity among leaders and followers, but attribute it to the illocutionary force rather than the perlocutionary (Morrison, 2011).

It was previously mentioned that speech acts depend on how the receiver infers the illocutionary force (Clark 1996; LoCastro 2012) within, and therefore must recognise it first. This process of recognition and interpretation will influence the way the receiver will respond to the act. Placing this in an organisational culture context, the way members of an organisation respond to certain illocutionary acts would strongly depend on the culture in that organisation. It was found from the results of grounded theory that in meetings with Schools Management, staff would not comment or share opinions. Their presence in such meetings was to receive instructions, illocutionary acts, and 'obey' them. In Austin's terms, the obedience of staff to the illocutionary act is a 'perlocutionary effect' resulting from an interpretation of Schools Management intended force of the utterance. Having staff members perform this act, is referred to as a 'perlocutionary act' (Clark 1996, p. 133). This effect is mainly directed by the organisational culture in the school, specifically 'Abiding by the rules of the game', and therefore, it is generalised among staff that such speech acts must be obeyed. Here the intention of the speech act is realised through the existing organisational culture which

encompasses the intention of the speaker, i.e., Schools Management. Pratt (1986, p. 68) contends that

[a]n account of linguistic interaction based on the idea of exchange glosses over the very basic facts that, to put it crudely, some people get to do more talking than others, some are supposed to do more listening, and not everybody's words are worth the same.

Indirectly, and ironically, certain speech acts silenced principals and teachers despite the act itself was enacted. In meetings with their principals, heads of departments recognised the illocutionary acts of their principals in a different way, and the evidence for that was how they felt that opinions can be expressed in such meetings, unlike meetings with Schools Management. The question here is, can this be considered as a violation to the felicity conditions? Or is it a shortcoming of Austin and Searle's speech act theory, where the receiver has no choice but to enact the speech act? In one way or another, and within the rules and regulations that an organisation functions, staff must have a level of freedom to perform a speech act. As mentioned previously, speech acts are not necessarily physical actions.

Part of what social interactionism takes into consideration, is the difference between the 'self-concept' and the 'self as a process'. In forming meanings, such as those about leadership, this concept can be projected on the social actors' perceptions of the leader, where one would be created as a result of the existing practices within and outside the school. The other would be created based on one's own understanding of leadership, i.e., the subjective reality. To separate the two meanings, when participants were asked about who was their role model of a leader, they were requested to provide two answers, one outside the organisation, and the other from within. For the former, they were describing leadership as an object; their self-concept was reflecting on this meaning and therefore defining how they feel a leader should be. In other words, they painted an image of a leader. This is different from the 'leader in process' which the researcher here is using as an expression of the existing school leadership practices as described by

the participants (leaders and followers). It is therefore, a meaning tied to their practices and interaction in the school; the social reality. In such a case, organisational culture would be manifested in school leadership and leaders become symbols of this culture. Alvesson (2002, p. 95) describes this as:

Leaders and leadership can then be seen as organisational symbols, the orientations towards them are then not treated as ‘facts’ about leadership ‘as such’, but more as clues to understand organisational cultures.

Analysis within a symbolic interactionism perspective helped in understanding some of the complexities of describing the school leadership image. One approach was to explain the difference in how the leader reacts and responds to the external negative influence, and consequently is viewed among subordinates. The idea is, there are sets of values that a person has. These values can either be the prevailing force that drives the leader to make decisions about the way he/she wants to lead, or it can still be there but the leader does not act on them. In these schools, the external influence is prevailing, and so to maintain one’s own ‘sensemaking’ (Weick, 1995), stability, and job for that matter, the leader responded to this external influence by accepting and subduing his/her style of leadership to that influence. This subjugation, however, happens at different intensities and for specific reasons that the leader solely decides on, regardless of any influence from other management levels.

5.2.3 The Meta-Inference

Considering the multilevel management structure of the schools, where each principal reports to Schools Management, the influence of leadership on organisational culture shapes itself into a ‘three dimensional’ phenomena. The first dimension is the external influence of Schools Management leadership practices. The second dimension represents the influence of the principals’ self as a process. As for the third, it is a conditional dimension that reflects the influence of the leader’s self-concept on leadership practices. The dotted lines in the corresponding label are a symbol of the conditional aspect. The effect of the third dimension depends on whether the principal actually works according to his/her beliefs of how a leader should be, or whether beliefs remain unpractised and the

‘leader in process’ prevails. The meaning of leadership here becomes complex. Not only is it a reflection of the organisational culture, but the leaders themselves are fully practicing leadership according to hidden rules set by their superior. Figure 5.2, explains the interplay of the three dimensions through a conceptual model.

The model demonstrates how the leader is under an external influence, represented by the dark circle around the shaded area labelled ‘the organisation’. This area is the periphery of the sphere which symbolises the school as an organisation. The two leadership dimensions, indicated by the two lighter colour circles, is the school leadership. The two circles are placed under the darker one to show the shielding effect of principals and not to confine school leadership within the school periphery. As a matter of fact, the latter was chosen as a shaded area to demonstrate the openness of a school to the external world.

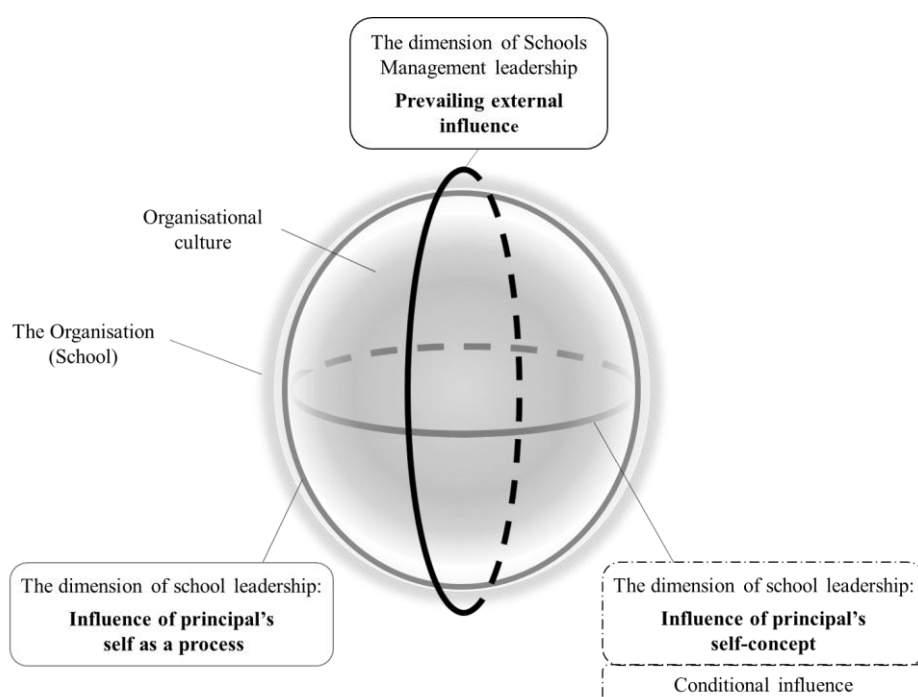
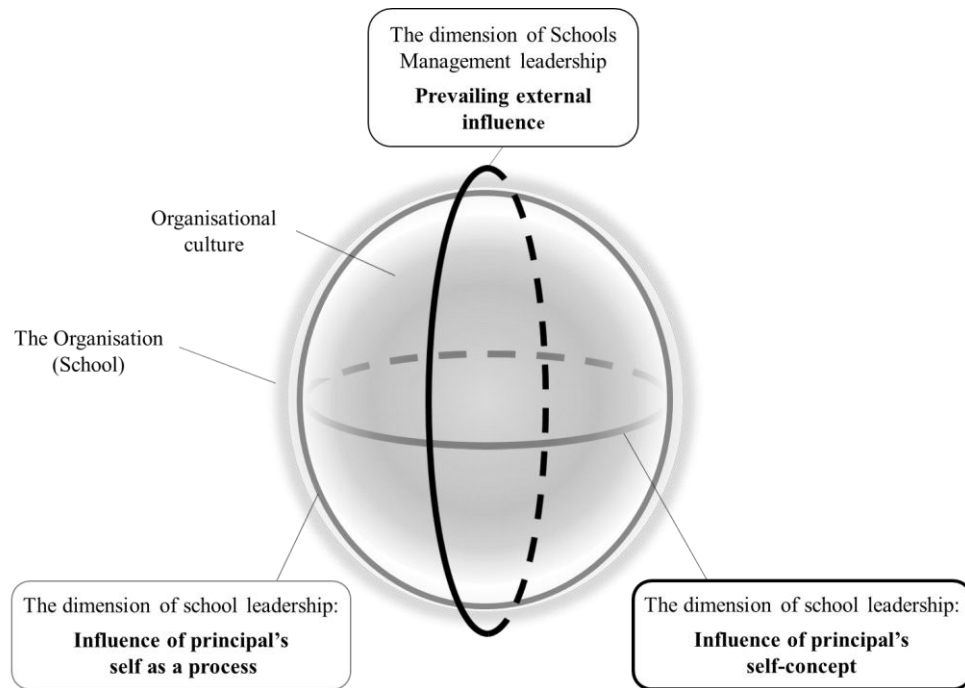


Figure 5.2: A conceptual model of leadership influence on the interpreted organisational culture through a symbolic interactionist lens

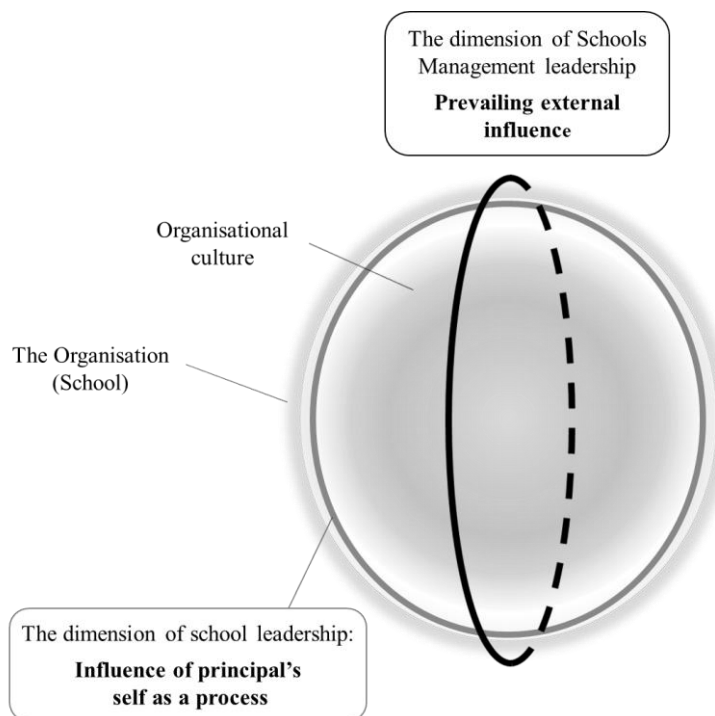
Figure 5.3. below further elaborates on the application of this model by showing a comparison between the influence of leadership on organisational culture in the two schools. School A principal's self-concept and self as a process are functioning together. This is represented by the presence of the two circles denoting the dimensions of school leadership. Despite that the self-concept of leadership was present within School B principal's subjective reality, it was not fully acted on, and self as a process was the prevailing dimension. This is shown by the absence of the circle that was designated for the self-concept dimension of leadership.

Alvesson's view of leaders as organisation symbols would be more applicable in school B rather than A. Leadership becomes symbolic only if the leader allowed the self-as a process to prevail. While both leaders shielded the negative effect, followers in school A, realised the inner 'self-concept' in school A principal and therefore the shielding had a stronger effect. This also explained the observation that school A teachers expressed higher levels of team spirit and cohesion among staff in comparison to school B.

Going back to the identity conflict discussions, which were theoretically linked with the emergent theme 'experiencing a negative environment', the two leadership dimensions can be viewed as two conflicting identities. They can therefore be explained through Identity Process Theory (IPT) (Breakwell 1986, 1988, 1992, 1993, 2001, in Jaspal & Breakwell 2014), specifically the psychological coherence principle (Jaspal & Cinnirella 2010, in Jaspal & Breakwell 2014), which describes the drive to bridge two conflicting identities so that they become compatible or 'interconnected'. IPT includes four major universal processes: continuity across time and situation; distinctiveness from others; self-efficacy, feeling confident and in control of one's life; self-esteem, feelings of personal worth (Jaspal & Breakwell 2014, p. 4). Jaspal and Breakwell illustrate an important prediction of IPT universal processes being compliant or non-compliant with the motivational principal identity. Non-compliance is anticipated to result in a threatened identity, thereby resorting to 'coping' mechanisms, which can be just thought of or acted on, to either remove or change the threat itself (Jaspal & Breakwell 2014).



School A



School B

Figure 5.3: A comparison between school A and B leadership influence on organisational culture

The presence of the two dimensions of leadership in school A, is interpreted as a compatible identity. The leader was comfortable and confident in practicing his own beliefs as well as doing what is right toward superiors and subordinates, even though the external influence prevailed. The absence of the self-concept dimension of leadership in school B, may predict the use of a coping mechanism which resulted in letting go, partially, of one's own beliefs, in this case of leadership, to obtain a sense of continuity with any of the four universal processes. This would need further examination in a separate study. However, such discussions are important to understand the inner struggles of leaders and the three-dimensional conceptual model can be one way of looking into the complications associated with leadership in multilevel management educational organisations.

Both principals of schools A and B spoke about their role with teachers, students and parents and their ethical responsibility towards them. This adds to the complexity of identity conflict, because self-esteem would be linked to this responsibility. The use of polite speech act strategies with subordinates reflects on this sense, but more importantly it explains how the absence of leadership as a self-concept dimension was mediated by communication. School B principal's values and authentic meanings of leadership were transformed from being acted on, to being expressed through 'speech acts'. Thereby demonstrating the previously mentioned notion of 'expressions of leadership', which has become a literal concept, i.e., "leaders are what they say and how they say it" (see literature review p. 56). Holmes, Mara and Vine (2011, p. 7) refer to this as a "discursive performance that integrates the achievement of transactional objectives with the more relational aspects of workplace integration". This further explains why there still was a shielding effect from school B principal, though to a lesser extent than school A. Placing this into symbolic interactionist theory (Blumer 1969; Mead 1932) the social interaction between leaders and their subordinates, maintained the leaders' identity and image among them. This discussion provides some answers to the previous question about the actual reflection of a leader's image.

The conceptual three-dimensional model is not in agreement with Bass's linear leadership continuum. A linear model cannot be applied in studying the

relationship between leadership and organisational culture through a symbolic interactionist lens. This is due to the fact that the linear model neglects the collective and shared meanings that are associated with both leadership and organisational culture, it also neglects the individuals' own self-concept and cannot elicit whether the leader is acting on his values or being influenced by the external world around them. For that reason, the resulting leadership style referred to as transforming leadership, was modified to give an expanded connotation.

The statistical analysis of MLQ result were important for providing a holistic view of leadership practices in the eleven schools. It was equally important in the identification of 'transforming' leadership as the predominating practice. While the analysis itself did not take the external influences into consideration, the result itself was in line with previously mentioned literature on transformational leadership in times of crises. In a recent study, Perko, Kinnuened and Feldt (2014) conducted structural equation modelling analysis of transformational leadership and its mediating effect on depressive symptoms in organisations. This was found to be similar to the negative environment symptoms that school teachers were experiencing. Therefore, MLQ results, the quantitative strand, provided a consequential aspect of leadership, and the qualitative strand enhanced the meaning of this aspect. Accordingly, the resultant transforming leadership style held a different connotation from its original Burns (2003) concept, because principals in the two researched schools were found to have a major role in shielding or partially shielding, the negative effects in the schools. The transforming aspect is not directly linked to the transcendence of personal interests into the greater organisational goals or empowering followers to lead social changes. It is more related to managing the negative environment and transform it into one that has less undesirable effects on followers. Therefore, 'empowering' them to function within the best interest of the school, in spite of the challenges surrounding them. This brings the researcher to the initial discussions in the literature review about transformational leadership being a prevailing style in times of difficulty and challenging situations. Recent literature from various countries supports these findings and emphasises the role of leadership in such situations and attributes the success of a school to overcome external influences to the role of the leader (Ahumada, Galdames & Clarke 2015;

Jones 2011; Smith and Riley 2012; Smith and Stevenson 2017). Analysis of leadership scenarios further emphasised the empowerment and transcendence aspects, and the level at which they happen.

The management literature provides examples of differences between leadership styles reported from MLQ surveys in comparison to those interpreted from a grounded theory approach. The most interesting is Kan and Parry's (2004) study about nursing leadership in a hospital setting experiencing major organisational changes. In their findings, nurses demonstrated a transformational leadership style according to their MLQ analysis. Their qualitative results of grounded theory, however, showed additional aspects of leadership that played an important role in the change process the hospital was going through. This brings in the previous discussion about limitation of leadership theories in describing complex phenomena. The researcher concurs with Kan and Parry's view on the importance of triangulation, (referred to in this thesis research as complementarity and confirmation). Also, the researcher contends that the interpretation of MLQ factor analysis could be better supported by mixed method approaches. Selecting the type of factor analysis, the method of rotation and cut-off values would be one criteria for data reduction, but a qualitative conceptual criterion can further contribute to the overall meaning of the phenomena being studied using factor analysis.

So, leadership in the two selected schools was not fully enacted as practices, but distributed between actions and speech acts. Their authentic leadership, one they would want to fully practice, is suppressed on the account of the influences of Schools Management. These findings question the effect of national culture on leadership style. The researcher argues that it has become irrelevant at the principal level of management in these schools. This however, should not be confused with 'pseudotransformational leadership or inauthentic transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio 2006). Originally, Burns's concept of a transforming leader was conditional to the leader being "morally uplifting" (p. 12). Literature has actually provided evidence that supports the researcher's need to modify and elaborate on the meaning of transforming leadership. Especially if the organisation is within a public sector and under the influence of external regulations. Currie and Lockett

(2007) critiqued transformational leadership as being limited and contend that there could be hidden dimensions of leadership that are less observable when it comes to dealing with external influences. These limitations, however, have been addressed in this study through the mixed methods approach.

Using mixed methods for studying school organisational culture and leadership was of great importance to understand what teachers and leaders are experiencing. This study showed that depending on quantitative data exclusively, would have been misleading and would have left the study without the social realities that were created from teachers' and principals' experiences in these schools. At the same time, depending on qualitative data by itself would have also caused the study to neglect an important conclusion regarding principals' leadership styles across all schools.

Mixed methods bring in additional dimensions to research findings in leadership studies. It combines perceptions of leaders and followers with the actual leadership effects and then seeks for commonalities among the findings. This can lead to more insights on effective school leadership when compared to results based on using one method such as questionnaires or interviews.

Multiple realities in the social world represent the basic assumption of qualitative research. The results of this research, however, showed that most teachers were describing a common reality in relation to organisational culture. This is consistent with the core characterisations of organisational culture, its different approaches and underpinning concepts. The multiple realities were evident in the level of sense making and coping. Some of the teachers, for example, were comparing their previous experience in a different school, which wasn't technologically advanced compared to the current one they are in, but had a similar negative environment. Another example was some teachers who have been in the school for a long time and used past experiences to justify, i.e., making sense of, decisions that did not seem logical. As if the mind does not want to accept that after all these years of being loyal and committed to the school, that certain decisions actually happened and lead to the feeling that one deserves better.

Looking into specific cases like these, brings in the discussion on the importance of interpretive frameworks, where despite the majority are describing some common experiences of working in a setting and what it meant to them, others felt a different experience. Those that felt differently had worked in undesirable conditions before coming to this setting, and therefore it seemed like a sanctuary for them. It reminded the researcher of the Arabic proverb [translated to meaning not literal]: ‘A cake in a poor man’s hand’. The way we experience frustrations depend on our former experiences and the extent to which we can endure difficulties. This can, however, cause an undesirable effect when it comes to the education sector where both teachers and students are the priority and maintaining a positive organisational culture is fundamental. Transforming a school’s organisational culture to ‘a lesser of two evils’ can lead to the acceptance of lowering moral principles in the school. Teachers would become silent, accept and endure, instead of feeling the positive energy of working in a school which receives hundreds of students every day, and those students consciously and subconsciously need to see and feel enthusiastic teachers and principals.

5.2.4 Limitations

The limitations of this study may be summarised in four main areas:

1. Its reliance on models such as the full range leadership theory and speech act language theory, which tends to limit other perspectives. The use of mixed methods approach provided complementarity and enhancement of views and thereby partially addresses this issue.
2. Setting appointments with school staff was limited and therefore only one interview was conducted. Consequently, the time of the interview was extended and supported by informal interviews and sending recordings to participants for confirmation. However, more data could have been generated through second and third interviews.
3. The research did not take the perceptions of Schools Management, school administrative staff and students. Organisational culture encompasses

holistic interactions among all its members which this research did not include.

4. Leadership scenarios represent descriptions of what leaders will say and how they will say it. It does not show the leader communication in action. That on the other hand might not bring accurate results because of the intrusion of external observation and its effect on participants.

6. Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

This research represents a breakthrough in methodologies for leadership research through the introduction of ‘leadership scenarios’, a form of discourse completion tasks which are situated within sociolinguistics. It is the first of its kind throughout the history of leadership studies in general, and specifically in TVET schools on both an international and Gulf region level. It opens the door for similar thinking across a multiplicity of disciplines in the social sciences and sociolinguistics on leadership and organisational research. Each of the three main results brought a new contribution and the combination of all three provided an enhanced inference. The research questions, therefore, were not only answered but complemented and strengthened the overall conclusion made in this study.

The first result concludes that an enhanced transforming leadership style was practiced by principals in schools that were characterised by a multilevel management structure. Statistical models helped in organising data from the quantitative multifactor leadership questionnaire into the proper level of analysis, and provided specificity and accuracy to results. At the same time, interviews and leadership scenarios gave an in-depth understanding of the leadership phenomenon and how it influenced organisational culture.

The second result was the emergence of five common themes that described organisational culture in the two selected schools, and two themes specific for each. The common themes were: working with a limited leadership role; experiencing a negative environment; dealing with frustrations; abiding by the rules of the game; reminiscing the past. These themes were related to five main concepts or incidents in organisational culture in the literature, these were: transforming leadership, identity conflict, shared meaning, rules of the game, and culture as a dynamic process, respectively. The results of grounded theory further enhanced the understanding of the resulting leadership style, hence the naming of enhanced transforming leadership.

The overall leadership style was affected by practices from a higher level of schools’ management and therefore influenced the organisational culture of schools according to a three-dimensional perspective. One is related to the higher

level of management, and the other two are related to the conflicting identities of leaders. These findings supported the evidence available in the literature that leadership style and organisational culture can neither be defined by one theory, nor can they be defined within particular classifications. The nature of communication and interaction between leaders and followers is inseparable.

In the third main result, pragmatics of language, contributed to answering the question about the leader's image in an organisation and thereby contributed to further enhancing the meaning of leadership and the ways it influenced organisational culture. Through the theory of speech acts, the decision-making process and the choices that school leaders made in conveying requests, apologies and refusals, were examined. School leaders made rational decisions by communicating in a way that attend to the impositions of each face threatening act on their subordinates. They were in full control over their style of communication, and chose strategies of communication that were in favour of their teachers, despite the controlling external influence. This is an important facet that needs to be considered in research on educational leadership, and for a better and thorough understanding, it needs to be coupled with other research methodologies.

In cases where the principal's values and beliefs of right and wrong were challenged, principals chose the wellbeing of the team members over a complete and blind subservience to their superiors. The negative effects of the organisational culture were substantially shielded by the principal in one school, but to a lesser extent in the other. When looking at this situation from an educational system level, it indicates a lack of stability in how a school as an organisation might be functioning. The principal who had a greater shielding effect might not always be there. Would a new principal have the same set of values and deal with the negative influence in a similar way? Does that mean that organisational culture will remain open to changes depending on who is in charge of the school? A more important question is, how is that management dynamic impacting on teachers and consequently students?

Leadership can influence subordinates' own assumptions and can change the focus and concerns from job security, as found in this research, to concerns of

achieving better and being distinguished, resulting in a better performing organisation. This is particularly important for the UAE, as it is moving in the direction of future innovations and advancements. Such direction requires creativity to be encouraged in every organisation especially in educational settings like schools and universities. If job security becomes the major priority in achieving a task, creative thinking will less likely occur.

The mixed method approach amalgamated with pragmatics of language created a new lens to examine the image of leadership and understand its influence on organisational culture. The use of grounded theory and the borrowing of symbolic interactionism to develop the theoretical categories, gave a new dimension to the study of leadership and organisational culture. The construction of social reality within a symbolic perspective is associated with communication (Harris & Nelson 2008; Cheney & Christenson 2000; Putnam, Phillips & Chapman 1996). This contributed to understanding the nature of the interaction between leaders and followers. Denzin (1992, p. 95) argues that communication is culture, and contends that the missing link between ‘symbolic’ and ‘interaction’ is in fact communication. The negative environment in the two schools was saved by how the principals related to their teachers and politely communicated with them. This, however, would not have been possible to realise if this study relied exclusively on a quantitative analysis of the MLQ, or the qualitative analysis of grounded theory. Figure 6.1 summarises the discussion above.

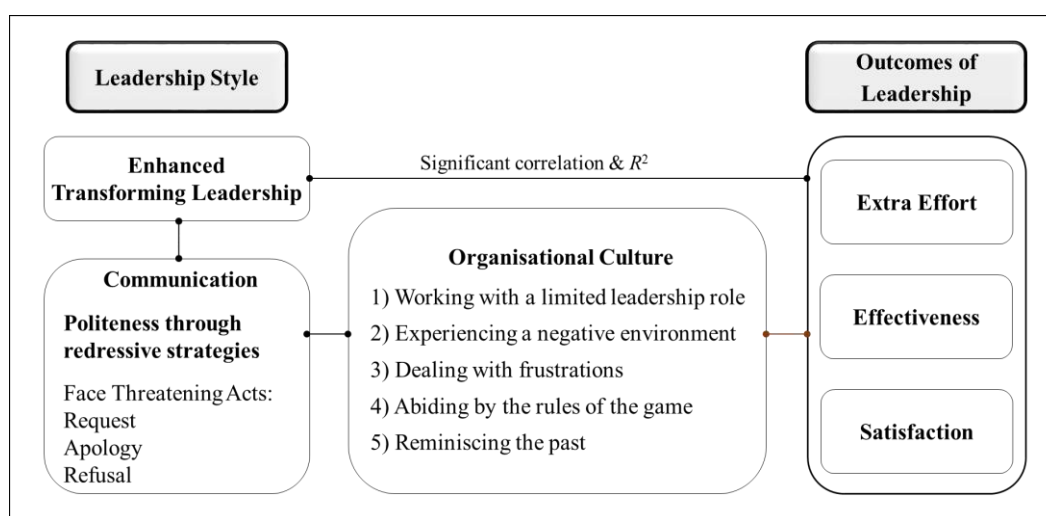


Figure 6.1: Mapping the quantitative and qualitative results

It is recommended that more research into leadership communication using speech act theory and speech act schematics is done. As a matter of fact, the researcher suggests that the ‘perlocutionary effect’ of speech acts is considered as an indicator of organisational culture, and research in this area can be focused to reveal various hidden aspects of organisational culture. Leadership scenarios was one way for collecting data, another suggestion would be to record leaders in action, during meetings for example and conduct a discourse analysis.

Another recommendation for future research would be to develop a questionnaire that builds on the important findings and developments of the MLQ throughout the past twenty years, but focuses on a symbolic interactionist framework that reveals the inner struggles of leaders and the associated conflicting identities. Some of the findings in this study can be used to brainstorm some new research directions.

A multi-perspective understanding of leadership and organisational culture would bring more importance to this research, which focused on school leaders and teachers only. Examining the perspectives of administrative staff, students and parents would be a third recommendation. Additionally, and to complete the picture, perceptions of higher level management compared with principals and teachers would provide more insights to the applicability of the three-dimensional model proposed in this thesis.

Research on leadership styles seems to be under the effect of a rotational force, i.e., torque, that might set its direction on a cyclical path, as more and more styles are added to the list. A possible future direction could be to replace leadership style with the image of a leader in an organisation. Thereby, expanding the phenomenon to include leadership, followership and organisational culture. Some insights on the image of a leader and what it means, have been provided in this study. However, such insights were only possible after combining the aforementioned aspects. At the same time, the combination itself required mixing two research methods and three disciplines: pure science, social sciences and sociolinguistics. In educational leadership, the more open researchers are to

breaking barriers between confined spaces of exploration and investigation, the more successful our educational organisations become.

The results of this thesis can be used to inform policy and decision makers, school leaders and teachers on specific practices in TVET schools. TVET national policies can be developed to ensure an institutional system that is characterised by stability of leadership practices and a productive organisational culture. Special attention should be paid to schools with a multi-level management structure where all levels need to be in consonance. If a manager or a principal of a school changes, the school needs to maintain its stability and its positive teaching and learning environment. Specific interventions for TVET school educational leadership, such as leadership training programmes can benefit from the results of this research with its particular focus on communication strategies. A crucial recommendation is made in this study on the importance of teachers' and leaders' motivation for improving school organisational culture. Many examples have been given in this study demonstrating that teachers need to feel they have a leadership role, and they need to feel appreciated and valued. However, government schools, in particular, need a system that is governed by policies rather than individuals who over time are bound to change, thereby affecting certain aspects such as motivation and job satisfaction. Ensuring a positive organisational culture therefore means creating more room for innovation and advanced thinking for leaders, teachers and students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix (1): A List of Disciplines and Related Database Resources Informing the Review of the Literature

| University of Glasgow | | |
|-----------------------|-----|---|
| Discipline | | Databases |
| EDUCATION | 1. | Atla Religion Database (EBSCOhost) |
| | 2. | Australian Education Index (ProQuest) |
| | 3. | British Education Index (EBSCOhost) |
| | 4. | <u>Child Development and Adolescent Studies (EBSCOhost)</u> |
| | 5. | EdResearch Online |
| | 6. | Education Abstracts (EBSCOhost) |
| | 7. | EDUCATION-LINE |
| | 8. | Educational Administration Abstracts (EBSCOhost) |
| | 9. | ERIC |
| | 10. | ERIC (EBSCOhost) |
| | 11. | Financial Times Historical Archive |
| | 12. | Higher Education Empirical research (HEER) |
| | 13. | International Encyclopedia of Education |
| | 14. | Nexis |
| | 15. | Open Grey |
| | 16. | Professional Development Collection (EBSCOhost) |
| | 17. | ProQuest Academic |
| | 18. | PsycBOOKS (EBSCOhost) |
| | 19. | PsycINFO (EBSCOhost) |
| | 20. | Sage Research Methods Cases |
| | 21. | Teacher Reference Center (EBSCOhost) |
| | 22. | Teacher's TV (Education in Video) |
| SOCIOLOGY | 1. | Anthropology Plus (EBSCOhost) |
| | 2. | ASSIA: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 3. | EBSCOhost |
| | 4. | Expanded Academic ASAP |

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| | 5. | International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (ProQuest) |
| | 6. | Linguistics & Language Behavior Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 7. | National Criminal Justice Reference Service Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 8. | Nexis |
| | 9. | Open Grey |
| | 10. | Oxford Bibliographies Online: Anthropology |
| | 11. | Oxford Bibliographies Online: Islamic Studies |
| | 12. | Oxford Bibliographies Online: Sociology |
| | 13. | ProQuest Academic |
| | 14. | Sage Research Methods Cases |
| | 15. | Social Services Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 16. | SocINDEX with Full Text (EBSCOhost) |
| | 17. | Sociological Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 18. | UK Data Service |
| | 19. | Worldwide Political Science Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | | |
| ENGLISH LANGUAGE/ LINGUISTICS | 1. | Annual Bibliography of English Language and Literature (ABELL) (LION) |
| | 2. | British and Irish Women's Letters and Diaries (Alexander Street Press) |
| | 3. | British Periodicals Collection (Proquest) |
| | 4. | Corpus.byu.edu |
| | 5. | Dictionary of Medieval Latin of British Sources |
| | 6. | Dictionary of Old English: A to H Online |
| | 7. | Dictionary of Old English, Old English Corpus |
| | 8. | Early English Books Online (EEBO) |
| | 9. | Historical Abstracts (EBSCOhost) |
| | 10. | JSTOR |
| | 11. | Lexicons of Early Modern English |
| | 12. | Linguistics & Language Behavior Abstracts (Proquest) |
| | 13. | LION (Literature Online) (Proquest) |
| | 14. | Middle English Compendium |
| | 15. | MLA International Bibliography (Proquest) |
| | 16. | Oxford Bibliographies Online: Linguistics |

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| | 17. | Oxford Dictionary of National Biography |
| | 18. | Oxford English Dictionary |
| | 19. | Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Linguistics |
| | 20. | Oxford Scholarship Online (Linguistics) |
| | 21. | Perdita Manuscripts |
| | 22. | Periodicals Archive Online (Proquest) |
| | 23. | Periodicals Index Online (Proquest) |
| | 24. | ProQuest Academic |
| | 25. | Romanticism: Life, Literature and Landscape |
| | 26. | Scottish Women Poets of the Romantic Period (Alexander Street Press) |
| | 27. | Translation Studies Bibliography |
| | 28. | Victorian Popular Culture |
| | 29. | Wiley-Blackwell Encyclopedia of Literature |

Table 1.A: University of Glasgow databases

| The British University in Dubai | | |
|---|-----|--|
| Discipline | | Databases |
| EDUCATION SOCIOLOGY LANGUAGE | 1. | Academic Search Complete |
| | 2. | British Education Index |
| | 3. | Business Source Complete |
| | 4. | eBook Academic Collection (EBSCOhost) |
| | 5. | eBook Collection (EBSCOhost) |
| | 6. | Education Research Complete |
| | 7. | ERIC |
| | 8. | Professional Development Collection |
| | 9. | Regional Business News |
| | 10. | Teacher Reference Center |
| | 11. | Emerald |
| | 12. | OxfordDictionaries.com |
| | 13. | ProQuest Dissertation & Theses Global |
| | 14. | Sage Journals |
| | 15. | Science Direct Freedom Collection |
| | 16. | Taylor & Francis Humanities & Social Sciences Collection |

Table 1.B: The British University in Dubai databases

| University of Toronto | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Discipline | | Databases |
| EDUCATION | 1. | CBCA Education |
| | 2. | Education Source |
| | 3. | ERIC (Proquest) |
| | 4. | PsycINFO (ProQuest) |
| | 5. | JSTOR |
| | 6. | Career Cruising |
| | 7. | Child Development & Adolescent Studies |
| | 8. | Linguistics & Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) |
| | 9. | Physical Education Index |
| | 10. | SPORTDiscus |
| | 11. | FRANCIS (Humanities & Social Sciences) |
| | 12. | Social Sciences Citation Index |
| | Encyclopedias, dictionaries and handbooks | |
| | 1. | International Encyclopedia of Education, 8-Volume Set |
| | 2. | Encyclopedia of Curriculum Studies |
| | 3. | Mental Measurements Yearbook |
| | 4. | Encyclopedia of Language and Education |
| | 5. | Encyclopedia of Distance Learning |
| | 6. | Encyclopedia of Bilingual Education |
| | 7. | Encyclopedia of the Social and Cultural Foundations of Education |
| | 8. | Europa World of Learning |
| | 9. | ODESI: a voyage in data discovery |
| | 10. | Encyclopedia of Education Law |
| | 11. | Oxford Bibliographies Online |
| | 12. | College Blue Book |
| | 13. | CollegeSource Online |
| | 14. | Scholarships, Fellowships, and Loans: A Guide to Education-related Financial Aid Programs for Students and Professionals |
| | | |
| | 1. | Social Sciences Abstracts |

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|----------------------------|-----|---|
| SOCIAL SCIENCES | 2. | International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS) |
| | 3. | FRANCIS (Humanities & Social Sciences) |
| | 4. | Humanities & Social Sciences Index Retrospective: 1907-1984 |
| | 5. | Scopus |
| | 6. | ASSIA: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts |
| | 7. | Periodicals Index Online |
| | 8. | Periodicals Archive Online |
| | 9. | Social Sciences Citation Index |
| | 10. | International Bibliography of Periodical Literature (IBZ) |
| | 11. | ProQuest Research Library |
| | 12. | Essay and General Literature Index |
| | 13. | Web of Science |
| | 14. | Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ) |
| | 15. | Proquest |
| | 16. | Google Scholar |
| | 17. | Academic OneFile |
| | 18. | Alternative Press Index |
| | 19. | Alternative Press Index Archive |
| | 20. | CAB Abstracts |
| | 21. | Ingenta Select |
| | 22. | CBCA Reference |
| | 23. | Child Development & Adolescent Studies |
| | 24. | CINDOC: Centro de Información y Documentación Científica |
| | 25. | Current Index to Statistics |
| | 26. | Digital Library for International Research (DLIR) |
| | 27. | ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global |
| | 28. | E-Journals @ Scholars Portal |
| | 29. | EconLit: Economic Literature Index |
| | 30. | Gender Studies Database |
| | 31. | GEOBASE |
| | 32. | JSTOR |
| | 33. | Left Index |
| | 34. | 19th Century Masterfile |
| | 35. | OpenSIGLE |
| | 36. | PAIS International |

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| | 37. | POPLINE |
| | 38. | Print Measurement Bureau / Vividata |
| | 39. | Project Muse |
| | 40. | PsycINFO (ProQuest) |
| | 41. | PsycINFO (OVID) |
| | 42. | Readers' Guide Retrospective: 1890-1982 |
| | 43. | Sociological Abstracts |
| | Encyclopedias, dictionaries and handbooks | |
| | 1. | Oxford Bibliographies Online |
| | 2. | International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 2nd Edition |
| | 3. | Oxford Reference Online |
| | 4. | Gale Virtual Reference Library |
| | 5. | The SAGE glossary of the social and behavioral sciences |
| | 6. | Dictionary of the Social Sciences |
| | 7. | Cambridge Histories Online |
| | 8. | SAGE |
| | 9. | ABC-CLIO History Reference Online |
| | 10. | ODESI: a voyage in data discovery |
| | 11. | A Dictionary of Statistics |
| | 12. | Encyclopedia of case study research |
| | 13. | Encyclopedia of health & behavior |
| | 14. | Encyclopedia of human development |
| | 15. | Encyclopedia of measurement and statistics |
| | 16. | Encyclopedia of Play in Today's Society |
| | 17. | Encyclopedia of social history |
| | 18. | Encyclopedia of social measurement |
| | 19. | Encyclopedia of social networks |
| | 20. | Encyclopedia of social problems |
| | 21. | Encyclopedia of survey research methods |
| | 22. | Encyclopedia of Violence, Peace, & Conflict (Second Edition) |
| | 23. | Handbook of research on electronic surveys and measurements |
| | 24. | Mental Measurements Yearbook |

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|------------------|-----|--|
| | 25. | Chase's Calendar of Events, 2005 |
| | 26. | A Dictionary of Geography |
| | 27. | A dictionary of sociology |
| | 28. | A Dictionary of Superstitions |
| | 29. | Directories in Print |
| | 30. | Disability through the life course |
| | 31. | Encyclopedia of Associations: International Organizations |
| | 32. | Encyclopedia of Associations: National Organizations of the U.S. |
| | 33. | Encyclopedia of Associations: Regional, State and Local Organizations |
| | 34. | Encyclopedia of Death and Dying |
| | 35. | Encyclopedia of Diasporas: Immigrant and Refugee Cultures around the World |
| | 36. | Encyclopedia of disaster relief |
| | 37. | Encyclopedia of drug policy |
| | 38. | Encyclopedia of Millennialism and Millennial Movements |
| | 39. | Encyclopedia of pain |
| | 40. | Gale's Ready Reference Shelf |
| | 41. | International Research Centers Directory |
| | 42. | NASW Clinical Register |
| | 43. | The Oxford companion to the photograph |
| | 44. | Research Centers Directory |
| | 45. | The social science encyclopedia |
| | | |
| SOCIOLOGY | 1. | Sociological Abstracts |
| | 2. | Social Sciences Abstracts |
| | 3. | International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS) |
| | 4. | FRANCIS (Humanities & Social Sciences) |
| | 5. | Social Sciences Citation Index |
| | 6. | Humanities & Social Sciences Index Retrospective: 1907-1984 |
| | 7. | ASSIA: Applied Social Sciences Index and Abstracts |
| | 8. | AgeLine |
| | 9. | CAB Abstracts |
| | 10. | Criminal Justice Abstracts with Full Text |
| | 11. | Gender Studies Database |
| | 12. | International Bibliography of Periodical Literature (IBZ) |
| | 13. | Left Index |

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| | 14. | NCJRS National Criminal Justice Reference Service |
| | 15. | PAIS International |
| | 16. | Print Measurement Bureau / Vividata |
| | 17. | Scopus |
| | Encyclopedias, dictionaries and handbooks | |
| | 1. | Encyclopedia of sociology |
| | 2. | A Dictionary of Sociology |
| | 3. | A dictionary of sociology |
| | 4. | Oxford Bibliographies Online |
| | 5. | Encyclopedia of social theory |
| | 6. | Encyclopedia of power |
| | 7. | Encyclopedia of interpersonal violence |
| | 8. | Berkshire Encyclopedia of Human-Computer Interaction |
| | 9. | A Dictionary of Superstitions |
| | 10. | Dictionary of the Social Sciences |
| | 11. | Encyclopedia of the city |
| | | |
| ENGLISH LANGUAGE/ LINGUISTICS | 1. | Linguistics & Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) |
| | 2. | MLA International Bibliography (Modern Language Association) |
| | 3. | Bibliography of Linguistic Literature (BLL) / Bibliographie Linguistischer Literatur |
| | 4. | FRANCIS (Humanities & Social Sciences) |
| | 5. | Humanities & Social Sciences Index Retrospective: 1907-1984 |
| | 6. | L'Annee Philologique |
| | 7. | Gnomon Online |
| | 8. | Hispanam |
| | 9. | PsycINFO (ProQuest) |
| | 10. | PsycINFO (OVID) |
| | 11. | Social Sciences Citation Index |
| | 12. | Sociological Abstracts |
| | Encyclopedias, dictionaries and handbooks | |
| | 1. | Encyclopedia of language and linguistics |
| | 2. | International Encyclopedia of Linguistics |
| | 3. | The linguistics encyclopedia |

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|--|-----|--|
| | 4. | Routledge dictionary of language and linguistics |
| | 5. | Oxford Bibliographies Online |
| | 6. | Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning |
| | 7. | Encyclopedia of Language and Education |
| | 8. | The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics |
| | 9. | Concise Oxford Companion to The English Language |
| | 10. | A dictionary of phonetics and phonology |
| | 11. | Language Portal of Canada and TERMIUM Plus |
| | 12. | Comparative Romance Linguistics Bibliographies |
| | 13. | Ethnologue: Languages of the World |
| | 14. | Speech Accent Archive |
| | 15. | iLoveLanguages |

Table 1.C: University of Toronto databases

Main Search Terms and Their Alternatives

Source: ERIC Thesaurus (<https://eric.ed.gov/>)

| KEYWORD | Alternative Phrase | | |
|---|--------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| | Broader terms | Narrower terms | Related terms |
| Leadership style | Behavior | Transformational leadership | Administrator Behavior |
| | | | Leaders |
| | | | Leadership Effectiveness |
| | | | Leadership Role |
| | | | Supervisory Methods |
| | | | Teaching Styles |
| Organisational culture Suggested: Corporate culture | Culture | School Culture | Institutional Environment |
| | | | Organizational Climate |
| | | | Organizational Development |
| | | | Organizational Theories |
| | | | Organizations (Groups) |
| | | | Values |
| | | | Work Environment |
| | | | Workplace Learning |
| Interdisciplinary | Methods | N/A | Adventure Education |
| | | | Area Studies |
| | | | Core Curriculum |
| | | | Cross Cultural Training |
| | | | Curriculum Design |
| | | | Ethnic Studies |
| | | | Fused Curriculum |
| | | | Global Approach |
| | | | Heritage Education |
| | | | Holistic Approach |
| | | | Integrated Activities |
| | | | Intercultural Programs |
| | | | International Studies |
| | | | Multicultural Education |
| | | | Nonmajors |

| | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| | | | Outdoor Education |
| | | | Religion Studies |
| | | | Science and Society |
| | | | Thematic Approach |
| | | | Unified Studies Curriculum |
| | | | Urban Studies |
| | | | Writing Across the Curriculum |
| Technical/Vocational high schools | High Schools Vocational Schools | N/A | Career Academies |
| Perception Alterative: Social cognition | Cognitive processes | N/A | Attribution Theory |
| | | | Audience Awareness |
| | | | Cognitive Ability |
| | | | Communication Skills |
| | | | Conflict Resolution |
| | | | Consciousness Raising |
| | | | Empathy |
| | | | Extraversion Introversion |
| | | | Intention |
| | | | Interpersonal Communication |
| | | | Interpersonal Competence |
| | | | Interpersonal Relationship |
| | | | Metacognition |
| | | | Moral Development |
| | | | Perspective Taking |
| | | | Role Perception |
| | | | Self Concept |
| | | | Social Attitudes |
| | | | Social Development |
| | | | Social Theories |
| | | | Theory of Mind |
| Social theory | Theories | Cultural Capital | Behavior Theories |
| | | | Critical Theory |
| | | Organizational | Ideology |
| | | Theories | Role Theory |

| | | | |
|---|----------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | Social Exchange Theory | Social Change |
| | | | Social Cognition |
| | | | Social Environment |
| | | | Social Influences |
| | | | Social Networks |
| | | | Social Structure |
| | | | Social Systems |
| | | | Socialization |
| | | | Sociocultural Patterns |
| | | | Socioeconomic Influences |
| | | | Sociology |
| Teacher administrator relationship | Interpersonal Relationship | N/A | Administrator Guides |
| | | | Administrators |
| | | | Board Administrator Relationship |
| | | | Employer Employee Relationship |
| | | | Faculty College Relationship |
| | | | Faculty Handbooks |
| | | | Faculty Workload |
| | | | Instructional Leadership |
| | | | Interprofessional Relationship |
| | | | Participative Decision Making |
| | | | Politics of Education |
| | | | School Administration |
| | | | School Policy |
| | | | Teacher Discipline |
| | | | Teacher Evaluation |
| | | | Teacher Militancy |
| | | | Teacher Morale |
| | | | Teacher Rights |
| | | | Teacher Supervision |
| | | | Teacher Welfare |
| | | | Teachers |

| | | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|-----|-----------------------------------|
| | | | Teaching Load |
| Grounded theory | Research methodology theories | N/A | Behavioral Science Research |
| | | | Case Studies |
| | | | Qualitative Research |
| | | | Social Science Research |
| Speech acts | Speech | N/A | Dialogs (Language) |
| | | | Discourse Analysis |
| | | | Language Patterns |
| | | | Mutual Intelligibility |
| | | | Pragmatics |
| Mixed methods | Research methodology | N/A | Evaluation Methods |
| | | | Multitrait Multimethod Techniques |
| | | | Qualitative Research |
| | | | Research Design |
| | | | Statistical Analysis |
| | | | Validity |

Table 2: Keywords and their alternative search terms

Appendix (2): Participant Information and Consent Forms

PARTICIPANTS' INFORMATION SHEET

Respected Teacher,

My name is Senabil Al-Hussaini and I am a Ph.D. student at the British University in Dubai (BUiD) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). I am studying the relationship between organisational culture and leadership style in technical and vocational education.

The purpose of my research is to explore two main aspects:

- 1) Perception of leadership from the leader and followers' views.
- 2) Organisational culture.

A mixed method approach will be used in this research. It commences with a quantitative with a quantitative questionnaire about leadership styles. This is then followed by a set of qualitative methods that include interviews and leadership scenarios. The subjects of this study include:

- 1) Principals
- 2) Vice principals
- 3) A selected sample of teachers.

The questionnaire is based on mainstream concepts of 'transformational' and 'transactional' leadership, and it categorises leadership styles into seven types. The questionnaire is conducted in all schools. The qualitative research will be done in selected schools only. Two to four schools will be selected, depending on the results of the questionnaire.

Interviews will be conducted with principals, vice principals and a selected sample of teachers. These interviews will be recorded and transcribed. Prior to transcribing the conversation, the interviewee will be given a copy of the audio

file to review and comment on their answers. A confidential copy of the transcription will be given to the individual interviewee.

The leadership scenarios will be conducted as part of the analysis for leadership and organisational culture. This requires collecting documents such as those publicly available, policies and procedures, and job descriptions. It will also require that principals and vice principals of the selected schools respond to a task consisting of a set of hypothetical scenarios representing different situations.

Adherence to ethical principles and standards is a major requirement at BUiD and therefore your consent to participate in this research is sought. Your participation will be protected through the following:

1) Your Rights

- You have the right to not participate in the research including interviews.
- You have the right to not answer a question within the interview.
- You have the right to ask for a copy of the transcribed interview.
- You have the right to review and verify your answers in the transcriptions.
- You have the right to withdraw from the study at any stage during data collection. Data collected from you will not be used should you choose to do so.

2) Anonymity and Confidentiality

- a. Transcriptions of interviews will not include the name of the participant, his/her position, the name of the school, the name of the school branch. Therefore, your name, position and location of school will be treated with complete anonymity and confidentiality.
- b. Parts of the interview responses will be used as quotations in the results and will be completely anonymous.
- c. There are codes for the schools that only the researcher has access to identify whether a response is from a principal, a vice principal or a teacher. The school name and branch is also identified through this code. This code is safely saved in my personal computer that is protected by a password.
- d. The results will be used for research purposes only and will be safely saved in my personal computer that is protected by a password.

The final results of this study will be published as a thesis and possible publications in conferences and academic journal. Once again, all information mentioned in any publication will be treated anonymously.

If you agree to participate in this study, I kindly ask you for your signature and date in the attached consent form. If you have any questions regarding this study or require more information, please feel free to send me an e-mail. My supervisor can also be contacted through the following address:

Professor Ashly Pinnington
Dean of Research
The British University in Dubai
e-mail: ashly.pinnington@buid.ac.ae
Tel: 04 279 1452

Yours truly,

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PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Name of the researcher: Senabil Al-Hussaini, Doctor of Philosophy in Education leadership and Management Programme, BUiD, UAE.

Research Title (Title changed)

The relationship between organisational culture and leadership style in technical and vocational schools in the United Arab Emirates.

Consent to participate in this study:

I understand that:

- the study mentioned above includes my participation in a questionnaire, interview and a task that includes hypothetical scenarios representing different situations.
- I will provide accurate responses based on my understanding of questions and according to my beliefs, experiences, and practices in the school.
- the purpose of the study is clear and that I fully understand it.
- the study will be used for research work only.
- my name, position and school name and branch will remain anonymous and will be treated with confidentiality.
- I have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage during the data collection method.
- I have the right to not respond to a certain question within the interview.
- I have the right to review and verify the interview transcriptions and request that certain parts are not included in the results.
- that the results of this study will be used anonymously in the researcher's thesis and possible publication in conferences and academic journals.
- parts of the interview responses will be used as anonymous quotations in the results of the study.
- that the data collected, and the results will be safely stored and protected.

I fully understand the information above and agree to participate in this study.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

Appendix (3): Leadership Scenarios, Researcher and Participant Versions

(A) Researcher Version

| Type of Act | PART ONE: With Subordinates | PART TWO: With Superiors |
|----------------|--|--|
| Request | <p>1. You are in a meeting with the Schools Management along with all principals.</p> <p>Schools Management says: “It has been decided that all teachers must allocate four hours of their time during weekends to help weak students”.</p> <p>You say: “But we can’t ask teachers to work during weekends”.</p> <p>Schools Management says: “This decision is final. Please make sure you convey this to teachers as soon as possible”.</p> <p>Later at that day, you are in your office thinking if you should gather teachers and speak to them or send them an email.</p> <p>You choose to:, and you will be saying/writing:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 40px; width: 100%; margin-top: 10px;"></div> | <p>1. You would like to organise meeting times between the curriculum department and teachers by allocating Tuesdays for such meetings instead of arbitrary times that are affecting teachers’ timetables.</p> <p>To make such a change, you need to write to the Schools Management. So, you write the following:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; height: 40px; width: 100%; margin-top: 10px;"></div> |
| Refusal | <p>2. A group of teachers sent you an email requesting a change in their workspace location. You have already arranged and allocated spaces for teachers and do not want to change that.</p> <p>Teachers write:</p> | <p>2. You receive a request from the Schools Management to travel with students for summer internship programme. You have already made plans for the summer and cannot travel with students.</p> <p>Would you talk or write to Schools Management?</p> |

| | | |
|----------------|--|---|
| | <p><i>Dear Principal,</i></p> <p><i>The current arrangement of teachers in workspaces is not working well for us. We kindly ask you for permission to rearrange our places so that we are together in room X.</i></p> <p><i>Regards,</i> <i>Teachers</i></p> <p>You reply with the following:</p> <div></div> | <p>.....</p> <p>What would you say/write?</p> <div></div> <p>What else would you do? (Optional)</p> <div></div> |
| Apology | <p>3. You had a meeting with teachers at a time where you were irritable because of a phone call from Schools Management criticising you for not performing well on a task that was delegated to you.</p> <p>You realised after the meeting that you were impatient with teachers, might have upset some of them and did not achieve the objectives of the meeting. You decide to write an email to teachers.</p> <p>What would you write?</p> <div></div> <p>What else would you do? (Optional)</p> <div></div> | <p>3. You received an email from the Schools Management asking about why you did not attend the meeting that was arranged for previously. You had totally forgotten about this meeting.</p> <p>Would you talk or write back to Schools Management?</p> <p>What would you say/write?</p> <div></div> <p>What else would you do? (Optional)</p> <div></div> |

(B) Participant Version

The following scenarios are hypothetical. Any resemblance to real situations is coincidental.

The scenarios are in two parts and each part contains five questions representing five different situations. You are kindly requested to answer all questions unless otherwise stated.

PART ONE:

1. You are in a meeting with the Schools Management along with all principals.

Schools Management says: “It has been decided that all teachers must allocate four hours of their time during weekends to help weak students”.

You say: “But we can’t ask teachers to work during weekends”.

Schools Management says: “This decision is final. Please make sure you convey this to teachers as soon as possible”.

Later at that day, you are in your office thinking if you should gather teachers and speak to them or send them an email.

You choose to:, and you will be saying/writing:

| |
|--|
| |
|--|

2. A group of teachers sent you an email requesting a change in their workspace location. You have already arranged and allocated spaces for teachers and do not want to change that.

Teachers write:

Dear Principal,

The current arrangement of teachers in workspaces is not working well for us. We kindly ask you for permission to rearrange our places so that we are together in room X.

*Regards,
Teachers*

You reply with the following:

3. You had a meeting with teachers at a time where you were irritable because of a phone call from Schools Management criticising you for not performing well on a task that was delegated to you.

You realised after the meeting that you were impatient with teachers, might have upset some of them and did not achieve the objectives of the meeting. You decide to write an email to teachers.

What would you write?

What else would you do? (Optional)

PART TWO:

1. You would like to organise meeting times between the curriculum department and teachers by allocating Tuesdays for such meetings instead of arbitrary times that are affecting teachers' timetables.

To make such a change, you need to write to Schools Management. So, you write the following:

2. You receive a request from the Schools Management to travel with students for the summer internship programme. You have already made plans for the summer and cannot travel with students.

Would you talk or write to Schools Management?

.....

What would you say/write?

What else would you do? (Optional)

3. You received an email from the Schools Management asking about why you did not attend the meeting that was arranged for previously. You had totally forgotten about this meeting.

Would you talk or write back to the Schools Management?

What would you say/write?

What else would you do? (Optional)