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# **Leadership, emotions and school outcomes in Romania**

**by**

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degree of

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## **Declaration**

**I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted for a degree at another university.**

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## Abstract

Personal and collective emotions play an important role in our private and social lives. Educational research suggests that emotions are powerful motivational forces that can impact upon leadership practices as well as on teaching and learning at individual and classroom level. However, less is known about the role of emotional experiences and displays in relation to leadership practices and school outcomes at organisational level.

In order to develop more substantial knowledge, this mixed method study aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles, emotions and school outcomes from an organisational perspective in several urban schools from Timisoara, Romania. A sample of 408 teaching and non-teaching staff from 18 schools took part in a survey and 14 participants from two selected case study schools took part in semi-structured interviews.

A widely used model of leadership is proposed by Bass & Avolio (1994) who identify transformational, transactional and laissez-faire practices. In this study, the quantitative data analysis using the Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (*ibid*) suggests that a hybrid leadership that combines transformational and transactional elements such as contingent reward, individual consideration and charismatic behaviours is positively associated with positive emotions such as joy, enthusiasm and hope and with better outcomes such as perceived school success. The survey findings identify more variation and subtlety of negative emotions compared to positive emotions and also examine the role of self-other rapport in experiencing and displaying emotion at work.

Secondly, the qualitative data reveal various contextualized meanings of leadership, emotions and school success, provides an integrated perspective of findings and allows for comparison of the overall results with previously published literature.

Furthermore, the thesis presents emergent theoretical models for the study of leadership, emotions and school development and performance. Finally, the implications of the overall findings for policy and practice are discussed by taking into consideration the Romanian cultural and educational context.

## **Abbreviations**

AL – Avoidant leadership

ARACIP – Agency for Quality in Pre-University Education

CFA – Confirmatory factor analysis

CR – Contingent reward

EE – Experienced emotions

ERIC – Education Resources Information Center

IC – Individualized consideration

ICL – Inspirational charismatic leadership

IIA and IIB – Idealized influence attributes and behaviours

IM– Inspirational motivation

IS – Intellectual stimulation

LF – Laissez-faire

LG – Local governments

MBEp and MBEa – Management by exception passive and active

MECTS – Ministry of Education, Research, Youth and Sports

MLQ 5X – The Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire, form 5X

MM – Mixed method

OD – Others’ displays of emotions

OECD - Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PANAS - Positive and Negative Affect Schedule

PC – Principal components extraction

PD – Power distance

PISA – Programme for International Student Assessment

RCL – Rewarding considerate leadership

SAR – Romanian Academic Society

SD – Self-displays of emotions

TF – Transformational

TS – Transactional

UA – Uncertainty Avoidance

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WHO – World Health Organization

# 1. Introduction

Some emotions don't make a lot of noise. It's hard to hear pride. Caring is real faint - like a heartbeat. And pure love - why, some days it's so quiet, you don't even know it's there. (Anonymous writer)

This thesis is about the emotions of staff working in primary and low-secondary schools from the city of Timisoara, Romania and about how these emotions link into leadership practices and school development and performance. The assumptions that motivate this study are that emotions are not only intrinsic to human beings, but they are also intrinsic to any organization (Fineman, 1993); they are as much a part of our private and work lives as they are powerful motivational resources. Studying emotions in connection to leadership could potentially provide insights into how these two key social phenomena influence individual and group work and also the organisation as a whole.

Nevertheless, any project that places emotions at the centre of an exploration of leadership and educational outcomes can be problematic, because of its ethical implications, but also methodologically. Moreover, as James and Vince point out (2001) “emotions and social defenses against them exert a powerful, non-rational and often unconscious influence in organizations” (p. 310). This complex, and sometimes inaccessible, nature of emotions makes them a difficult area to research, especially as most research methods often involve the use of language and rational processes such as reflexivity. However, arguably one of the most straightforward research methods used in the study of emotion, apart

from the specialized techniques used in the neurosciences, have been the self-reported measures which have had a strong tradition in sociology, psychology and psychopathology (e.g. PANAS by Watson & Clarke, 2001; BDI by Beck et al., 1996). Similarly, qualitative methods based on the narrative theory (Fischer, 1984) have been employed in studying emotions from a different perspective suggesting that narrative emotion studies how ‘emoting by proxy’ characterizes the experience of attending to a narrative (Deslandes, 2004).

It seems that there are two main trends in research on emotions in organisations and in education in particular. The first calls for a reconsideration of the rational - emotional divide by putting emotions on the research agenda and by emphasizing their significant impact on work of individuals, teams and organisations. The second signals the danger of abusing emotions, of treating them as commodities, of commercializing them for obtaining profit or other benefits, of educating and training people to fit certain emotional profiles or to acquire desirable or simply more profitable emotional competencies.

Over the last twenty years, more and stronger voices from the neurosciences, as well as from the social sciences and pop culture, have been trying to reclaim emotions not only as an important part of our individual and private lives, but also as important motivational forces for our social lives, including our workplaces. Scientists are trying to address and overcome the rational – emotional divide that has dominated the agenda of organisational studies, partially due to the huge influence of philosophers like Aristotle, Plato, the stoics or Descartes, who believed that emotions make humans weak and

incapable of making good decisions. One of the authors who has offered a different scientific view on the role of emotions in decision making is Damasio who brings evidence from the neurosciences (1994) to suggest that humans are, in fact, unable to make good and coherent decisions without involving their emotions in the process, and that emotionality and rationality cannot be separated in human behaviour.

I find it difficult to place myself in relation to these issues raised in researching emotions, but what I aim to do in this study is to map the terrain of existing experiences and displays of emotions as they are seen and expressed by members of staff working in several Romanian schools. The present thesis also seeks to understand what constitutes the ‘better good’ that makes a school successful in the eyes of the people who work in these schools. Moreover, as organisations are led by individuals and teams and, as research evidence suggests that leadership has a significant impact on school outcomes (Day et al., 2009, Leithwood & Day, 2007), this study explores leadership practices in relationship to emotions and some aspects of school performance. Finally, I see this research as an opportunity to reflect on the working lives of Romanian Headteachers, teachers and other members of staff, as well as on the direction that Romanian education may take in the future.

## **Educational leadership, emotions, school development and performance**

When talking about improving schools and educational systems, Harris & Chrispeels (2009) argue:

The emerging research evidence concerning improving schools in difficult contexts demonstrates quite clearly that a diverse range of school-level factors and characteristics is norm. Each school within this grouping exhibits a unique organizational mix of cultural typology, improvement trajectory and level of effectiveness (p. 10).

Many researchers suggest that improving schools means essentially changing school culture (Harris, 2002; Harris & Chrispeels, 2009), so one of the questions is what type of school culture contributes to the improvement of schools. Some research evidence shows that there is a strong relationship between collegial relationships among teachers and school improvement in which values and goals are shared (Harris, 2003). This approach requires new forms of leadership that take into consideration the social and interpersonal dimension of organisations. The collegial forms of leadership, for instance, were developed as a reaction to the formal theories of leadership (Bush, 2007). Unlike formal models, collegial models of leadership emphasize the importance of sharing power and the responsibility of decision making and are based on reaching a consensus through discussions and common values among members (ibid).

This form of leadership takes into account the importance of school and classroom social conditions that were found essential to school improvement. At school level, *trust* among school staff, the possibility for them to take part and to affirm their ideas and opportunities for them to be innovative and take risks is essential (Harris, 2003). Authentic relationships characterized by “quality, openness and congruence of relationships” (ibid, p.52) are also crucial at classroom level. Overall, existing research evidence suggests that at school

level, staff commitment, practical efforts to include staff, transformational leadership and collaborative planning are essential ingredients for school improvement (ibid).

The factors that were found to significantly contribute to school improvement are, in addition to building personal capacity, social factors such as building interpersonal and organisational capacity (Harris & Chrispeels, 2006). In order to achieve these, collegial forms of leadership are found more useful. Harris (2003) argues:

Teacher leadership is premised upon a power redistribution within the school, moving from hierarchical control to peer control. In this leadership model, the power base is diffuse and the authority dispersed within the teaching community. An important dimension of this leadership approach is the emphasis upon collegial ways of working (p. 77).

Nevertheless, these forms of leadership come with some inevitable weaknesses that need to be acknowledged. It has been suggested that collegial models and transformational leadership, participative and interpersonal leadership are normative, rather than descriptive, and their approach to decision-making is “slow and cumbersome” (Bush, 2003, p.81). Other authors argue that although distributed leadership, for instance, is both a normative and a descriptive concept, it is necessary to be informed by a normative theory grounded in the conditions that teachers require to improve teaching and learning (Robinson, 2008). Bush (2003) also suggests that consensus is more difficult to reach where collegial models are applied, and this form of leadership depends on the attitudes of staff, and accountability is difficult to establish. Another drawback

of these leadership forms pointed out by Bush (ibid) is the potential manipulative aspect of transformational leadership.

The evidence from the school improvement field, and especially from schools in difficult circumstances, may prove useful for Romania which, according to the 2004 PPP GNP per capita in international is one of the poorest European countries (World Bank, 2006). The effect of the ‘social mix’ (Thrupp, 1999) is more powerful than the one of the individuals’ characteristics alone, as Harris and Chrispeels note (2006). This means that one the most significant difficulties that disadvantaged schools face is the ‘social mix’ of students coming from low socio-economic backgrounds (Harris, 2009). The difficulties that disadvantaged schools from UK face seem very similar to difficulties that schools from Romania experience: staff turnover (OECD Pisa, 2006), lack of resources, falling pupil numbers, and constant streams of supply teachers (Harris & Chrispeels, 2006, p.139).

A second area of literature relevant to this study is that of emotions and educational leadership. This field has recently developed in generic organisational studies with the publication of the seminal book of Hochschild on emotional labour (1983), who is one of the first authors to look into the role of emotion at work.

In education, major contributions to the field of emotions and educational leadership have been made by Crawford (2009, 2007); Leithwood and Beatty (2008); Beatty (2000, 2004), Harris (2004, 2007); Blasé and Blasé (2004). As Bush notes in a review of Crawford’s most recent book on emotions in



educational leadership, one of the author's main contributions is to bring emotional leadership to the forefront (Bush, 2010, p. 136).

Harris (2007), like Bush (2003), reaches the conclusion that the hierarchical model of leadership “simply ‘cannot hold’ in the 21<sup>st</sup> century school. Effective leaders are ‘attuned to their own feelings and able to emotionally attune others’” (p. 172).

The implications of emotions are important not only for leadership effectiveness, but for school effectiveness as a whole (Harris, 2007):

A healthy emotional context allows schools to progress more effectively, and with less emotional labour from the Headteacher (p. 161).

Furthermore, the claim that Harris (2007) makes in linking leadership practices to ‘organisational emotions’ and eventually to learning outcomes is one that I was interested to test in my thesis:

Leaders understand their role and responsibility for establishing and reinforcing an upward spiral of emotional experience in school. They recognize that positive emotions lead to positive cognitions, positive behaviours and increased learning capability (p. 173).

Emotions have a significant impact on several areas highlighted by Leithwood & Beatty (2008): teachers’ classroom practices or performance, teachers’ school wide practices or performance, engagement in the profession, student learning

The negative effects of emotions expressed in too much stress in school organisations are also important as Crawford (2009) points out that “poor

concentration and difficulty in making decision, effects of too little stress people don't perform at their best" (p. 104).

Crawford (2009) also suggests that dealing effectively with too much stress in schools involves a long-term cultural change:

Effective stress management that pervades the culture of the organization follows from managers adopting a specifically organization focus. The direct strategy is particularly relevant to those involved in management as it focuses on what can be done to prevent or alleviate stress in institutions (p. 106).

There is no doubt that emotions are "powerful essences of organisations" (Crawford, 2009, p. 24), but they are as important and powerful expressed as they are unexpressed (ibid).

The key message coming from the school improvement research is that of the importance of interpersonal relationships, trust and collegial forms of leadership, therefore I found that it would be appropriate to explore the social nature of emotions, the fact that they involve relationships, as Crawford (ibid) suggests. However, there is often a tension between the private and social dimensions of emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Crawford, 2009), so it is arguably useful to explore how subjective emotional experiences compare to self-displays and to perceptions of others' emotional display. More details about the theoretical framework which constitutes the basis for study emotions in school will be presented in a following chapter.

Most of the literature on leadership and emotions draws on evidence from developed societies, but these theories may be less helpful for other contexts and

cultures. In order to better understand the context where these issues will be explored, the following section will provide an insight into some of the cultural characteristics of the country under study and of its educational system.

### **Study context: Romania, Eastern Europe and the ‘Bloc culture’**

A recent report by Deaton (2008) on income and life *satisfaction* around the world, summarizes findings regarding life expectancy and *satisfaction* in countries from Eastern Europe (ibid). These are summarized in an intriguing conclusion: people living in Eastern European and the former Soviet Union countries have one of the lowest levels of life *satisfaction* in the world and seem to be less satisfied with their lives than people from African countries affected by HIV/AIDS and extreme poverty. The surprising detail is that these levels are much lower than is warranted by their measured incomes (ibid).

As was the case for life *satisfaction*, recent economic growth is *negatively* associated with health *satisfaction* conditional on the level of GDP per capita; once again, the countries of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union drive much of this result (p. 10).

This finding leads to the question of the nature of the economic, political, social and cultural reality of countries such as Romania that affect people’s optimism and love for life in such a dramatic manner. Being a Romanian myself and an educationalist, these questions are indeed daunting. I searched for some satisfactory answers in the evidence that already exists from the published literature and I also set myself the goal to find some answers for myself by conducting an investigation into the lives of school staff from my home city,

Timisoara. Some partial answers might be provided by very scarce evidence gathered from published studies which will be briefly presented below. This chapter will further present a set of research questions for this study and the following chapters will answer these questions.

### **Romania: economy, social reality and culture**

Rohozinska (1999) characterised Romania as the former “pearl of Eastern Europe”, using its Latin roots to emphasize the country’s Western orientation and its strategic geographical and political position at the border between Western and Eastern Europe.

Covering a total of 237,500 sq km, Romania is the largest country in the Balkans. The country's current population of 22.3m is predominantly Romanian (89%). Ethnic minorities include Hungarians (7%), Roma (Gypsy) (2%), and small populations of Germans, Slovaks, Turks, Russians, Bulgarians, Croats, Tartars, Czechs, Greeks, Armenians, Poles and Albanians. Most Romanians are Orthodox Christians (87%); Catholics of the Oriental and Roman rites are well represented with 5.6%. Reformed Lutheran, Unitarian, Protestant, Armenian, Muslim and Jewish communities comprise the rest (Oxford Business Group, 2009).

Romania joined the European Union on 1 January 2007 and began the transition from Communism to a market economy in 1989 with a largely obsolete industrial base and a pattern of output unsuited to the country's needs. Education expenditures were 3.5% GDP in 2005 (CIA, 2009) and for the first time in 2008 the Education budget was over 5% of GDP.

According to the World Bank (2009), Romania's economic performance has been remarkable in recent years, although important vulnerabilities remain. The country steadily converges in income, competitiveness and living standards towards the EU average, but the gap remains large. In 2008, income per capita was around 44% of the EU 27 average (ibid). Also, an independent research organisation looking at nations' prosperity based on two criteria: Economic Competitiveness (economic aspect) and Comparative Liveability (social aspect) classed Romania 47<sup>th</sup> out of 102 countries. Having good educational attainment, Romania faces one of the biggest gaps between sub-index economic competitiveness in which Romania ranks 31<sup>st</sup> in the world, and social dimensions including family life where Romania ranks only 65<sup>th</sup> (Prosperity, 2009).

Despite notable improvements in the economy, the social and cultural realities of Romanians are far from satisfactory. As Grancelli (1995) suggests, Romania shares similar institutional and organizational forms, similar life-ways, similar ideologies with several countries from Eastern and Central Europe, and points out that their enforcement for several generations was enabled by the Communist system and resulted in a common cultural framework which stands over and above the distinct national cultures, but which is at the same time relatively differentiated from the wider global culture. Granicelli (ibid) calls this unique set of values, rules, norms, codes, standards that typify the bloc as a whole "bloc culture". In Romania, the Communist heritage has left some particularly long-lasting and mutilating effects on the society (UNESCO, 2007).

One of the characteristics of this 'bloc culture' in Romania is one of the lowest *social trust* scores in the world (under 10%) which leaves a vacuum in the civil society (Littrel, 2005; Prosperity, 2009). This might be one of the effects of a long and debilitating dictatorship on society which may include negative attitudes towards its more vulnerable members: children, elders, people with disabilities and the ethnic and religious minorities (UNESCO, 2007).

Romania's reputation in the world is not particularly honourable. Apart from Dracula's myth - not a local myth, but a story made famous by the Irish author Bram Stoker - Romania is mostly known for its institutionalized children (BBC, 2007) while still having one of the highest abortion rates in the world (WHO, 2007).

The effects of one particular Decree 770 from 1966 imposed by Ceausescu, the Communist dictator, in which all contraception methods and abortion were to be banned with the purpose of increasing the population by 50% in one decade and thus raising productivity (Iepan, 2005) are still haunting the country's social existence 20 years after Ceausescu's death. In this decision, some (e.g. Iepan, 2005) see the seeds of what was to be found around the world (BBC News, 12 July 2005) about the children in Romanian orphanages and about the lives of millions of women and *Decretei* children, the children 'born at command'. A very recent and much acclaimed film by Cristian Mungiu called *4 Months, 3 Weeks and 2 Days* provides a sad, yet realistic account of the lives of women in Communist Romania before the fall of the Communist bloc in 1989 and of the social implications of Ceausescu's 770 decree from 1966. Documentaries were also made about the *Decretei children* showing that 10.000 women (only the

official number) died as a consequence of Ceausescu's infamous Decree. Many of the women living in those days resorted to dangerous back-street practices to get abortions, or ended up with more children than they could feed, especially when the State started to pay off the external debt in the 1980s, leading to great shortages at home (Iepan, 2005; BBC News 12<sup>th</sup> July 2005). As mentioned already, Romania still has one of the highest rates of abortion in the world and the situation of institutionalized children, although much improved by foreign support, remains problematic (UNESCO, 2007) in a society with low interpersonal trust and one of the lowest levels of life *satisfaction* in the world. These are some significant social and economic parameters that define Romania as it is now with obvious effects on all levels, including the educational system which will be briefly described next.

### **Romania: The education system**

The academic performance of Romanian pupils is yet another contested area. Romania produces exceptional results in international student competitions in science and mathematics, ranking first in the world in Mathematics International Olympiad in 1996, 1987, 1985, 1978 and being in the top 10 out of 94 countries 18 times from 1978 to 2008 (IMO, 2010). Similar results are obtained in Physics and Chemistry. The country also takes awards in Invention Fairs (Geneva Invention fair, 2009), and the Romanian language is one of the most spoken language after English in well-established and successful companies such as Microsoft (Gates, 2007). However, as PISA (OECD, 2006) reports, the Romanian educational system as a whole produces very different results.

Overall scores in science, reading and mathematics for pre-university education are among the lowest in Europe (ibid).

Romania has low levels of educational achievement, school autonomy and students' self-efficacy when compared with other countries of the world with more than 40% of 15-year-old students performing at Level 1 or below (ibid).

Romania also saw a decline in its reading performance between PISA 2000 and PISA 2006. Also, the same study highlights PISA shows, for example, that in Romania, like in Japan, Korea and Italy, Indonesia and Azerbaijan and Romania, self-efficacy is considerably lower than the international average (at least 0.2 standard deviations below the country mean), this suggesting that the country needs to build the confidence of their students in their ability to tackle scientific problems. Also, Romania's scores are negative and different from almost all the other European countries in terms of schools responsibility and autonomy for appointing teachers with the lowest percentage of 15-year-old enrolled in such schools (below 10%). While the OECD average percentage (84%) of 15-year old students enrolled in schools which hold considerable responsibility for decisions concerning how money is spent, Romania is again a negative exception with very few schools that have this financial autonomy (OECD, 2003).

On the positive side, the PISA study shows (OECD, 2006) that in Romania the academic performance is a high priority when evaluating teachers, in deciding school admissions, and also it is one of the better countries where Headteachers report students' results to their parents. Moreover, the percentage of students



coming from schools where principals report that the academic record was a prerequisite or at least of high priority when deciding on school admittance, was higher than 90%, much higher than the OECD countries average. Moreover, 90% of the 15-year-old students attend schools where Headteachers report that they evaluate teachers' performance based on students' achievement data. This high percentage is, again, significantly higher than the average of the OECD countries (43 %). Romania has very good self-reported results for the feedback Headteachers give to parents in relation to their children's academic performance, 90% of the 15-year-old students being enrolled in such schools, compared with the 54% which is the average for the OECD countries and below 20% in Finland and Sweden (OECD, 2006).

The combined gross enrolment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary education is almost 80%, and almost all pupils who enter primary school also finish secondary school, providing Romania with a strong ranking in terms of mass education (OECD, 2006; World Bank, 2009). An average worker has almost 4.5 years of secondary education, which is on a par with the richer EU members. More about the educational structure and level of governance will follow in the next sections.

### **Educational structures and levels of governance**

Romania is among the first countries in Europe to make education free and compulsory for all children and education of the people has always represented a national priority (OECD, 2003). The difficulties met by the education system under the budgetary constraints that have affected public spending patterns have

left the government open to the criticism that this principle has been abandoned (ibid, p.269).

Decentralisation has been debated since 2001, but there has been little progress. A strong paternalist tradition reflected in social and organisational habits discourages the public from becoming involved in public service governance (ibid). It is debatable whether the devolution of power to local communities can go forward without a change in this cultural legacy.

### **Levels of Education and Governance**

The structure of the governance levels, and the way they function and interrelate, is important for understanding the system's implications for leadership practices at school level.

The Romanian educational system is structured at several levels as shown in Table 1.1. The table also indicates the equivalent levels according to UNESCO's ISCED which is the International Standards Classification of Education (UNESCO, 1997).

The Ministry reports that the number of schools has been around 29,000 for the past 20 years, with only small variations from year to year (OECD, 2003). As in some other countries of the region, the Romanian education system is still rather centralised (ibid). At national level, the Ministry (MECTS) is ultimately responsible for school governance. It ensures general education administration and sets national education policy: main goals, national curriculum, national statute of teachers, etc.

**Table 1.1** Levels of education in Romania

Age	Form/Group	ISCED	Romanian Educational levels (MECTS, 2007)			
>19		6 & 5 First & second stage of tertiary education	Higher education			
		4 Post-secondary non-tertiary education	Pre-university and post-high school education Tertiary non-higher education			
18	XIII	3 Upper secondary				Technologic high-school
17	XII		Academic High-school	Vocational high-school (arts, sport, theology)	Technologic high-school	Intermediary year
16	XI					Arts and crafts school
15	X	2 Lower secondary or second stage of basic education	Academic education	Vocational education	Technologic education	
14	IX					
13	VIII					
12	VII					
11	VI					
10	V					
9	IV					1 Primary education or first stage of basic education
8	III					
7	II					
6	I					
5	Upper	0	Pre-primary education			
4	Middle					
3	Lower					

### School directors (Headteachers)

In the governance and leadership hierarchy, school Headteachers known as ‘directors’, assisted by deputy directors, manage the pre-tertiary and vocational public education units together with teachers’ boards (Consiliu Profesor) and administrative councils which they chair and to whom they report. Secondary and post-secondary school directors are proposed by the general school inspector, selected and named by the MECTS (OECD, 2000). Directors

represent the school to the local administration and local community, determine the use of school facilities, equipment, and other material resources, and co-ordinate all expenses.

Directors adopt and apply provisions for financial and accounting regulations at school unit level (OECD, 2000). They identify and monitor investments for school infrastructure, for expenses, and for annual maintenance; justify projects and submit them for approval to the school inspectorate and local and/or county councils; develop and apply strategies for raising extra-budgetary revenues; approve expenditure after an internal audit; implement financial procedures for purchasing goods and services, and involve the school unit in patrimonial activities with the chief accountant (Contabil Sef) (OECD, 2003).

Headteachers (Directors) co-ordinate and monitor activities for developing, upgrading, and maintaining school infrastructure. They are responsible for all personnel issues, but not selection; they define staff duties within the school, and write contracts and job descriptions under central guidance (OECD, 2003).

The only autonomy Headteachers have is in recruiting non-teaching staff such as cleaners, librarians, secretaries, administrators etc. In the Teachers' Board, Directors evaluate teacher performance, design academic staff qualifications for merit increases, verify and sign payrolls, resolve staff issues, and apply curricular, finance, and management reform programmes (ibid).

Despite far-ranging responsibilities, a school director is simply a recognized teacher who continues to teach while being principal and is paid a supplement for temporary managerial tasks (ibid, p. 19).

There is very little published research evidence on educational leadership practices in Romania. A search in ERIC database - the largest educational electronic database for published educational literature - on school leadership in Romania, retrieved only one paper reporting on technical and vocational education and therefore not relevant for this study as it refers to a different level of education. The results of the very few studies conducted on Romanian educational practices at school level will be further described in brief. Chapter 2 will contain a more comprehensive review of the published literature on education in Romania.

In a national mixed-method study on organizational culture (Iosifescu et al., 2001), the findings identify the main features of the school cultures in Romania, based on Hofstede's theory (1980, 2001). Hofstede (ibid) defines Power Distance (PD) as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. In cultures with large differences in power between individuals, organizations will typically have more layers and the chain of command is felt to be more important. In Romanian schools there is a high Power Distance which leads to a tendency for centralization, authoritative leadership styles, excessive need for order, uniformity and lack of initiative. A high Power Distance culture also suggests that school leaders are oriented on short-term objectives and do not have the ability to plan organizational development. The GLOBE (Dickson et al., 2003) data also demonstrate that PD impacts the endorsement of participative leadership.

Another finding from Iosifescu's study reveals that Uncertainty Avoidance (UA) (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) which refers to the degree to which members in a society feel uncomfortable with ambiguous and uncertain situations, and take steps to avoid them, is dominant for Romanian school cultures. This situation also suggests that schools tend to be closed to the community and promote less creative leadership styles (Dickson et al., 2003).

According to a recent study by the Romanian Academic Society (SAR, 2008), Romanian Headteachers are still using old leadership practices by relying on central directives in order to make decisions, have low management capacity and low negotiation skills in relationship with the central, regional and local. The capacity to generate community support in extracurricular programmes is also low, and the lobby channels are insufficiently or totally ignored. The national curriculum is not great either, being still too rigid and centralized (ibid). There are very few adjustments required by the local needs that are allowed and the opening towards social partners – parents, firms, and civil society – is very low. On the other hand, it must be said, the SAR study argues, that the indifference and lack of implication from the community is evident and omnipresent (ibid).

The SAR study also shows that the mechanisms through which schools are financed lack transparency, although the decentralization of financial management of schools means that the schools budget are allocated from the local authorities. Also, the SAR study finds no correlation between the budget level and organisational needs (e.g. geographical isolation, ethnic minorities,

and areas with high social and economic deprivation or performance). The “historical factor” continues to be the main criteria by which financial resources are allocated to schools, thus reducing the pressure of rationalizing resources (ibid).

Nevertheless, a proposal for school decentralisation, concerning Headteachers’ appointments and teachers’ recruitment, has been made by the Minister in power, Ecaterina Andronescu (Andronescu, 2009). The new system will allow schools to select their staff and Local Authorities, through their Mayors, will appoint the Headteachers.

Following this, a very recent event concerned with decentralizing education in Romania was jointly organized by The World Bank and the Ministry of Education and took place in Bucharest on 9 April, 2009. Rosalind Levacic, a World Bank International Consultant and well-known British researcher has made a presentation called *Research and Youth have jointly organized the workshop Decentralising Education: Experience from other countries and its relevance for Romania* suggesting some ways forward for the Romanian educational systems.

For Romania, according to Levacic (2009, p. 9), reducing central fiscal burdens by requiring increased local funding may have been a priority in the past, but at present the priorities, should be:

1. Improving **quality** by local management & stronger local accountability
2. Improving **efficiency** by better cost control
3. **Local democratic decision** making (emphasis in the original).

A positive sign for the potential improvement of the educational system in Romania is a very recent proposal for school decentralisation concerning the appointment of Headteachers' and teachers' recruitment system which is currently made by the Minister in power, Ecaterina Andronescu (2009). The new system aims to allow schools to select their staff and local authorities through their mayor will appoint the Headteachers:

Each school needs to take responsibility for the quality of their teachers (...). The school Inspectorates do not have to oversee all the administrative activities and should only have monitoring and evaluation roles (ibid).

### **Study location: Timisoara, Romania**

The following paragraphs will describe the city where the research took place and some background on my professional experience. I come from a city called Timisoara in the Western Romania near the border with Hungary. It is one of the bigger cities and a “developed economic centre that holds over 95% of the economy in the area” (Timisoara City Council, 2009). Also known as ‘Little Vienna’, Timisoara was once a fortress belonging to the Habsburg Empire and is now a multicultural city once inhabited predominantly by Germans (90% in 1850, approx 35% in 1930), Hungarians (approx 30% in 1932) and Romanian (approx 28% in 1930) (ibid). In 2002, the total population was 317,660, out of which 270,487 were Romanians. Other ethnicities living in Timisoara are, in order of their demographics: Hungarians (25.131), Germans (7.142), and Serbians (6.271).



In recent history, Timisoara is the place where the so called ‘anti-Communist Revolution’ started in 1989, leading to the change of political regime from Communist dictatorship to democracy under the left-wing Social Democrat Party. Timisoara’s diverse cultural heritage had positive effects both economically and culturally as the main strengths of the educational system lays in the city’s cultural diversity (ibid). The main strengths of the city’s education systems are, according to the City Council (2009):

High education rate (over 99%); highly developed and diverse school education network (classic, alternative, religious education in Romanian, German, Hungarian, Serbian, English, French); diversified university education – 7 universities (4 public and 3 private), highly skilled teaching staff, proper facilities (course halls, amphitheatres, libraries, laboratories, campuses, cafeterias, experimental lands) (p. 20).

On the other hand, there are significant weaknesses identified in the area which are similar to those identified at national level:

Autonomy of the educational organizations is relatively low; School networks lack flexibility; Lack of equipment and materials in educational organizations; Insufficient connection to high technologies; high turnover of teaching staff from education to other industries; School and university educational offers are improperly related to the needs of labour market (p. 20).

## **Aims and research questions**

Although more detail will be provided in a section dedicated to the theoretical framework, a brief overview of how I approached the study is provided here.

The particularities of the Romanian social context, as well as the literature on school leadership and emotions in organisations, have inspired me to look at

transformational and transactional leadership practices and at the collective emotions of school staff from a three-layered lens: a) by exploring emotional experiences; b) emotional self-displays; and c) perceptions of others' emotional display. I will be looking at how these layers balance and contrast in the working life of school staff, but I will also be interested in the implications of leadership styles on these emotional realities of schools.

The broad *aims* and the specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To investigate school leadership practices in 1-8<sup>th</sup> form schools from

Timisoara, Romania:

- By exploring participants' views of what school leadership roles and responsibilities are;
- By identifying the ideal qualities of a school leader as they are described by the study participants;
- By describing the most expected as well as the most common leadership practices;
- By comparing leader's and staff's views of leadership

2. To explore the emotions of teaching and non-teaching staff working in

schools from Timisoara, Romania:

- By looking at meanings and understandings of emotions as they are expressed by participants;
- By examining the types of positive and negative emotions experienced and displayed in schools;
- By analysing aspects of emotion regulation and social comparison processes through comparisons between personal emotional experiences, self-displays and emotional displays perceived in others.

3. To examine several objective and subjective indicators of school

development and performance:

- By exploring participants' understandings of school success;
- By looking into current educational policies regarding institutional evaluation and staff's views relative to these practices;

- By assessing four specific subjective and objective school outcomes: perceived school success, leadership outcomes, graduation rates and rates showing progression to higher levels of education.

4. To describe and analyse the relationships between leadership styles,

emotions and school outcomes in the investigated schools:

- By looking into how leadership practices may link to the assessed school outcomes;
- By examining the relationship between leadership styles and the collective emotions of school staff;
- By looking at the underlying mechanisms that may explain the relationships between leadership styles, collective emotions and school outcomes in the selected schools.

The overarching research question for this study is: *What is the nature of the relationships between leadership styles, emotions and organisational outcomes in 1-8<sup>th</sup> form schools from Timisoara, Romania?* This main research question can be divided into several sub-questions:

*Research question 1: What is (are) the dominant leadership style(s) practiced in schools from Timisoara, Romania?*

Survey and study case methods will be combined in exploring leadership styles and practices which will be assessed using a standardised scale and will be further explored qualitatively based on data collected through in-depth interviews. The triangulation and the integration of the multi-sourced data aim to provide a more comprehensive overview of the dominant or most common leadership practices from the investigated schools.

*Research question 2: What configurations of emotional experiences and displays can be identified overall in the studied schools as well as at individual school level?*

In examining the emotions of school staff, several social processes will be taken into consideration: aspects related to emotion regulation and emotion labour will be investigated by comparing the reported emotional experiences with reported self-displays of emotions; the role played by the self-other relationship in modelling emotional displays at work will be investigated by comparing self-reported displays of emotions with self-reported perceptions of others' displays.

*Research question 3: Are positive emotions 'better', meaning is there a significant and positive connection between positive emotions and better organisational outcomes?*

A possible common sense assumption is that positive emotions link to better outcomes, but is the data collected in this study supportive of this assumption? It is expected that different configurations of emotions will be identified in the data, configurations which will then be linked to different organisational outcomes which will be quantitatively assessed and qualitatively described, drawing on interview data gathered from conversations with members of the school staff.

*Research question 4: How do leadership practices link into different organisational emotions?*

This study aims to determine if there is any significant relationship between certain leadership styles and certain patterns of emotions reported by school staff to be experienced and displayed at work and also attempts to describe the nature of this relationship by looking into how participants understand the role

of the leader in setting the overall emotional tone as well as in affecting individual emotional experiences of staff.

*Research question 5: Is there any significant relationship between certain leadership styles, certain organisational emotions and school development and performance?*

One of the key messages from the leadership research, and also from the organisational and school effectiveness research, seems to be that leadership is central to the organisational development and performance. Nevertheless, reviews of this research (Day et al., 2009; Leithwood et al., 2007a) advise that leadership effects on organisations are rather indirect and mediated by the school conditions and environment which, in turn, affect school outcomes such as student achievement (ibid). This study sets out to reflect on the relationship between different leadership practices and the collective emotions of school staff and on the implications that this relationship has for school development and performance.

## **Summary**

This chapter introduced the research questions that guided this study as well as some of the key areas of literature which will be presented in more detail in the following chapter and which will inform the theoretical framework outlined in Chapter 3.

## 2. Literature review

Good teaching is charged with positive emotion  
(Hargreaves, 1998a p. 835)

There are two points of interest for this study that guided the literature search and review: one refers to leadership practices and their effects on organisational development and performance; and the second is connected to work-related emotions and emerging patterns of collective affect and their role in organisations such as schools. The focus of the literature search was to identify evidence based on an organisational approach to exploring these themes and how they link at organisational level.

### Literature search foci and parameters

Three aspects were taken into consideration in the search strategy for the identification of relevant literature connected to this study which represent inclusion criteria for the literature review: a) most importantly, the *themes* which constitute the focus of this study - leadership and emotions; b) secondly, the *context* in which they were researched or discussed - international, Eastern-European and Romanian on one side, and general organisational and educational on the other side; c) finally, the *method* employed in the empirical papers. In addition, where the themes were discussed from an organisational perspective or in connection to organisational development and performance, the papers were considered highly relevant.

The *aims of this literature review* are twofold: the first aim is to introduce the main theories of leadership and emotion explaining the key concepts of this

research; the second aim is to discuss the empirical evidence provided by research investigating leadership and emotions in organisations in general and in education and schools in particular. Thus, the chapter is divided into two sections: one dedicated to the theoretical literature and one on empirical evidence, both subsections being structured by theme with a focus on education, schooling and teaching.

### **Theoretical literature**

The review of the theoretical literature aims at identifying, describing and discussing the most significant concepts, models and theories of emotions and leadership published in education and outside the educational field, their contribution to knowledge as well as their pitfalls.

### **Leadership: Definitions and theories**

What is leadership? The answer is difficult, because “like all constructs in social sciences, the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective” (Leithwood et al., 1999, p. 5). Some authors associate leadership with change suggesting that “for many the two are simply different sides of the same coin” (Sergiovanni, 2001, p.41). Some researchers define it as ‘path-finding’ and focused on a goal (Hodgson, 1987), others as “doing the right thing” (Bennind & Honus, 1985), or creating a vision (Bryman, 1986).

Though there is no agreed definition of leadership, the concept of (*social*) *influence* appears to be an integrated part of almost all definitions (Punnett, 2004). Still, because this notion is neutral in the sense that it does not explain what needs to be done in this process of influence, theoreticians are taking into

account other concepts such as *values* and *vision* which are equally important when explaining what leadership means (Bush, 2003).

Understanding what leadership stands for means understanding its distinctive characteristics in relation to management. The latter is more concerned with the operational level of day to day activities (Crawford, 2003). In contrast, leadership is concerned with developing a strategy and a vision, with developing the organisation, rather than with maintaining it at a functional level (Davies & West-Burnham, 2003).

Hogg and Terry's approach to leadership (2001) takes into consideration two notions: firstly, the authors argue that leadership is a relational property and therefore, "leaders and followers are interdependent roles embedded within a social system bounded by common group or category membership" (ibid, p. 200); and secondly, "leadership is a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes others in the attainment of collective goals" (ibid, p. 200). These two assumptions are central to the argument that leadership is by essence a social phenomenon, and that the approach in which leadership is seen as a sum of individual characteristics – often assumed to be inherited – may be limited and ignorant of the social realities of an organisation. Moreover, the social nature of leadership seems to be central to any classification or typology of leadership or management models.

According to Leithwood et al. (1999), most of the literature on leadership is, in the end, about certain models of leadership. Grounded in a review of four leadership journals, these authors identified six main approaches to leadership:



*instructional, transformational, moral, participative, managerial* and *contingent*. The *instructional* leader is especially concerned with classroom-based reforms and activities which are directly related to students' achievement.

The *transformational* model of leadership originating in Burns' theory (1978) was later developed by Bass and Avolio (1994, 1997) and was described in opposition with *transactional* leadership. Bass believes that *transformational* leaders are charismatic and have a clear vision for their organisation. *Transformational* leadership always implies empowering others and providing individual consideration. In contrast, the *transactional* leader is focused on task and has a strict system of rewarding and sanctions.

*Moral* leadership is normative and uses moral values to guide the process of decision-making in organisations (Leithwood et al., 1999). A leader who is focused on achieving formal organisational goals, ensures efficiency, and uses policies and procedures as a source of power, is a *managerial* leader. The *contingent* leadership is concerned with solving specific problems and matching behaviour to organisation context.

Finally, in the case of *participative* leadership the power is exerted by a group of people rather than by a single person and the key source of influence is communication. The main advantage of this model of leadership is its capacity of increasing participation in decisions. The concept of shared leadership emphasizes the need to harness the views and behaviours of multiple leaders, through what they term 'polylogues' or multiple dialogues between multiple stakeholders" (Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 2005). Over the last few years there

has been an increased interest in researching the concept of distributed or participative leadership which currently is receiving much attention and empirical support (Harris, 2002).

Yukl (1999) was the one of first to mention the idea of participative leadership, which includes the concept of group, shared or teacher leadership (Leithwood et al., 1999). Distributed leadership needs to be considered a “way of thinking about leadership” rather than a simple technique (Bennett, 2003). “This means relinquishing the idea of structure and control and viewing structure as the vehicle for empowering others” (Harris, 2005, p.14). Distributed leadership is concerned with teachers’ expertise and its democratic nature lies in the involvement of a large number of people in the decision-making process (ibid).

A different theoretical categorisation of leadership models incorporates nine leadership models presented by Bush and Glover (2003) as an expanded version of the typology offered by Leithwood et al. (1999). Moreover, Bush (2008) discriminates between six models of management: *formal*, *collegial*, *political*, *subjective*, *ambiguity* and *cultural* which are described relative to criteria such as: decision process, level of goals and how goals are determined. Finally, Bush (2003) explores the relevance of these management models for certain types of organisation by discussing the main strengths and weaknesses of each model.

The identification of main models of leadership has both a theoretical and practical importance as the leadership theory may be considered irrelevant if it does not take into consideration issues of leadership effectiveness in terms of school development and change. The idea is expressed by Sergiovanni (2001)

who notices that “leaders are considered successful if change succeeds and unsuccessful if change does not succeed” (ibid, p.41). This claim leads to questions about what specific tasks, practices and leadership responsibilities relate to better outcomes. Identifying these tasks and influence processes that are at the heart of leadership is crucial in assessing leaders’ effectiveness (Robinson, 2008).

A review of the research on leadership functions (Firestone, 1996) offers a more detailed look at what leadership implies. The five functions identified by Firestone (ibid) include: providing and sharing a vision, obtaining resources, providing encouragement and recognition, adapting standard operating procedures and monitoring reform. In the context of marketisation, leadership becomes part of “a systemic policy accountability” (Lingard & Christie, 2003, p. 317) in which leadership is defined only in terms of performance and outcomes. The stress is mainly on the principal’s accountability and leadership roles.

### **Educational leadership and management**

Educational management, as a field of study and practice, was derived from management principles first applied to industry and commerce, mainly in the USA (Bush, 2008). The developments in the educational leadership and management theory over the last twenty years are marked by a significant progress becoming an established theoretical and research field with its own (Bush, 2003).

Many of the controversies regarding leadership definitions and models apply to the educational field as well. For instance, the concepts of management and leadership overlap with each other and with the related notion of administration. 'Management' was widely used in Britain, Europe and Africa, for example, while 'administration' is preferred in the USA, Canada and Australia (Bush, 2003).

Dimmock (1999) differentiates between these concepts and also acknowledges that there are competing definitions of leadership, while Cuban (1988) provides a clear distinction between leadership and management. He links leadership with change while management is seen as a maintenance activity. He also stresses the importance of both dimensions of organizational activity (Bush, 2003).

One of the most researched models connecting leadership to organisational change is the transformational - transactional dual model. Despite the significant amount of research supporting its benefits (Arnold et al., 2007; Geijsel et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1994), transformational leadership is criticised for potentially being manipulative and controlling (Bush, 2008). The 'charismatic' features of the transformational leadership make it likely to become 'despotic', as some critics point out (Allix, 2000). In a context in which heroic 'singular' leaders (Harris, 2004) are no longer encouraged, especially in schools and contexts where, in order to be more effective, leadership needs to go beyond the formal roles and draw on a wider range of expertise (ibid).

The idea of *influence* as a social phenomenon explain leadership is present in many educational leadership theories. Nevertheless, recent theories propose a

different approach to the understanding of how influence processes work with an emphasis not necessarily on authoritarian influence imposed by hierarchical status and power, but on influence that can be exercised by groups and not only by individuals (Harris, 2004; Leithwood et al., 2003). Such approaches include theories looking at distributed, participative and teacher leadership.

Distributed leadership is one of the theories 'in vogue', as Harris argues (2004), having a clear potential to impact on schools but which needs the support of the Headteacher 'in fostering and generating' it (ibid, p. 16). It is a form of collective leadership, 'in contrast to the traditional notions of leadership premised upon an individual managing hierarchical systems and structures' Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 28). However, the authors add that 'a singular view of Headship continues to dominate, equating leadership with Headship'.

Implicit within this model of distributed leadership are the leadership practices of teachers, either as informal leaders or in a formal leadership role as a Head of department, subject coordinator or teacher mentor (ibid, p. 27).

In their study on teacher leadership, Leithwood and Riehl (2003) aim to unpack the nature of teacher leadership by identifying certain traits, practices and capacities. Their findings suggest that there are six categories of traits identified in the study data: mood, values, orientation to people, physical characteristics, responsibility and personality. Among various dimensions of teacher leadership, the study found that the mood traits that teachers most commonly associate with leadership are being quiet and positive, having a sense of humour and being even tempered (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). This is an important finding as it

suggests that moods and emotions are important to leadership practice and it also provides some information about teachers' perceptions and expectations regarding leadership emotionality. This issue will be further explored in a section dedicated to emotions and educational leadership.

Recent debate on leadership theory proposes the idea of 'hybrid' leadership (Gronn, 2009) and the need for a new category and revising the unit of analysis in order to contrast the notion of 'one-size-fits-all' (ibid).

The hybridity for which I am arguing is a mixture, in which varying degrees of both tendencies (i.e. focused and distributed) co-exist, with the understanding that within the distributed segment of the mix there are, potentially, a range of plural member formations (ibid, p. 389)

The implications of this new paradigm are for the re-orientation of research towards determining the range of hybrid patterns or configurations of practice (ibid). Although cultures mediate their own definition and reception of leadership, a political agenda is driven by a 'policy-making elite' such as the OECD (ibid, p.312). Such an agenda is susceptible of being "self-referential of the world and to seek confirmation of the positions to which they are already predisposed or committed." (ibid, p. 312). Still, the cultural paradigm is needed in leadership research meaning that culture and context are to be incorporated in the new models of leadership. Dimmock (2002) argues that there is a "need for educational management, leadership, and educational policy at a time of globalization to incorporate societal culture – conceptually, theoretically, and practically – in redefining and refining the field" (ibid, p.33).

Some of the key messages coming from the generic theoretical literature on leadership, and from the educational leadership literature in particular, appear to be the significant role of the relationships between leaders and followers, the importance of influence processes that intervene in this relationship, and the effects that these dynamics have on staff, organisational development and student outcomes. The underlying mechanisms of these dynamic relationships between leader and staff, and of leadership effectiveness, have been sometimes described in terms of trust, collegiality, participation in decision-making, leader charisma, collaboration etc. More recently, the leadership field has started to acknowledge the place of emotions in how these relationships are shaped and in the effectiveness of leadership practices. This following section discusses the contributions made by educational researchers and authors to the understanding of leadership through the lens of emotions.

### **Leadership and emotions**

A growing sub-field in research on educational leadership is looking at the emotional dimension of educational leadership. The need for affective paradigms in the theory and the research of educational leadership has been signaled by prominent educational researchers (Samier & Schmidt, 2009; Crawford, 2009; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008; Crawford, 2007; Harris, 2007; Crawford & James, 2006; Beatty, 2004; Hargreaves, 2001). These authors bring a fresh perspective on leadership theory and practice by looking at how leaders' and teachers' emotional experiences influence their work and suggest that any

conceptualization of leadership as a social phenomenon should take into consideration the emotional dimension.

This message becomes clearer and stronger as it is voiced by authors who support different leadership models. For instance, Harding and Pribram (2004) argue that a sustainable and distributed model of educational leadership cannot be achieved without understanding how both feelings and leadership are ‘constituted and operate interactively at the level of both individual personal experience and wider social formations... [and] power relations’ (idem, p. 863). Furthermore, Zorn and Boler (2007) explain that:

Emotion matters in educational leadership because leaders, teachers and learners understand and enact their roles of subordination and domination significantly through learned emotional expressions and silences. (ibid, p. 148)

This view is supported by Slater (2005) who explores the aspects of leadership for collaboration, which render it an affective process, underpinned by, and linked to, the emotional domain.

Moreover, there are authors who argue that the transformational leadership model is one of the few theoretical models of leadership that incorporates the emotional dimension at the very core of its practices (Bass & Avolio, 1997; Humphrey, 2002), through the influence that transformational leaders have on followers’ emotional states such as employees’ commitment to the organisation (Bycio et al., 1995). This claim is taken further by authors outside the educational field (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000) who claim that transformational leadership is a potential candidate for the integration of emotions into the



extended leadership research. This claim is contested by Kupers and Weibler (2006) who reveal that, although the transformational leadership model covers some emotions, it is nevertheless far away from being a full-range theory. The authors suggest (ibid) that the knowledge of “feelings”, such as *surprise, pleasure, joy, hope, or fear, anxiety, anger, rage, shame, guilt* etc. would enable research to evaluate the emotional quality of transformational leadership more holistically. Taking this assertion a step further, the present thesis will argue that the knowledge of such specific emotions, and the dynamics between them and leadership practices, represent valuable contributions not only to the understanding of leadership, but also to the understanding of the organisation as a whole, and to its development and performance.

In addition to the discussion on how the emotional dimension of leadership is translated into different theoretical models, a number of authors address the emotional impact that educational policies have on leadership practices and on schools. These implications are not a new topic in countries such as the UK, Canada or Australia. As early as 1999, Hartley published a reaction to the British policy of the Labour Government which was based on the slogan 'standards, not structures'. This reaction was equally an analysis of the policy implications for school management in the context of the marketization of school structures. Hartley foresees the danger that schools face due to what Hochschild (1983) called 'the commercialization of feelings', pointing out that, once identified, the emotions or the emotional qualities that could assure management effectiveness can no longer be considered as emotions per se, genuine and immediate, but 'fabrications' to be delivered through training. As

Hartley later writes (2004), the *paradox seems to be that the new* ‘emotional’ discourse has “the attraction of appealing subliminally to those who have become disenchanted with consumerism’s promise that its goods and services will serve” (ibid, p.592).

Like Hartley, Bottery (2003) discusses leadership challenges in what he calls a ‘culture of unhappiness’. This culture, according to the author, is mainly determined by a constellation of forces: global, national and local. At national level, for the UK the political agenda of neo-liberals, the ‘use and abuse of targets’, the excessive focus on performativity, and the so-called ‘cold’ management, have created an environment of low-trust and unhappiness among teachers and educators in general (Bottery, 2003).

The implications of educational policy for schools and educational leadership are also discussed by Hargreaves (2004a), who relates emotions directly to school improvement and educational reform, arguing that the differentiation between successful schools and unsuccessful schools perpetuate an ‘apartheid of improvement’. Hargreaves’ main criticism (ibid) is that these politics of distinction and disgust create and distribute school failure and he recommends that changes are necessary, involving the redefinition of achievement, the abandonment of quota systems, the emphasis on long-term sustainable improvement, avoiding the apartheid of improvement, engage rather than ignore the emotions of ‘minorities and poor’, initiate improvement and eliminate impoverishment. Finally, it is important to make emotions matter in teaching

and learning and treat them as central to the educational process (Hargreaves, 2004a).

Similarly, Blackmore (2004) analyses the emotional impact educational reforms can have on Australian schools. The ‘new managerialism’ was, in Blackmore’s view (ibid) a “period of significant contestation” (ibid, p.441) in which radical changes took place in educational cultures involving strong accountability, audit mechanisms, performance indicators and management associated with them.

One of the conclusions of Blackmore’s work is that both teaching and leading are processes that involve emotional and political work, meaning that leaders have to manage one’s and others’ emotions that have a crucial role in challenging identities and also in the process of change they prove to be forces of transformation but, at the same time, forms of resistance. The emotions felt by leaders and teachers in this period varied from demoralization to anger and frustration, but the core theme was the inner fragmentation due to the emerging dissonance.

These are critical points to be taken into consideration when doing research on emotions in educational leadership, because they draw attention to the dangers of ‘using’ emotions for performance purposes only and also to the conflicting emotions that people might experience, the emotional dissonance between what is expected and what is actual felt. Evidence from research on the personal feelings of Heads and school staff will be presented in the section discussing the empirical literature on emotions and leadership. The following sections will look at the understandings of emotions as subjective and social phenomena as they

are informed by the theoretical literature, from fields such as psychology, sociology neurosciences, and anthropology.

### **Emotions: Definitions and theories**

Emotions are a natural part of being human and people experience a large variety of emotions that are expressed in language through a vast number of differentiating words. Moreover, emotions have been an object of study for philosophy and science for as long as the history of the human thought is recorded. Nevertheless, these facts alone do not make the understanding of emotions easier. On the contrary, the concept of emotions is highly contested and some authors believe that “to search for the definition or the theory of emotion is vain” (Mandler, 1975, p.1).

Some of the controversies surrounding the understanding of emotions in the theoretical literature are related to:

- terminology and distinction issues
- the number of basic emotions
- the universality of emotions
- the social nature of emotions
- the conscious and/or the unconscious nature
- the polarity of emotions (the positive / negative dichotomy)
- the rational– emotional (irrational) divide

Perhaps the longest and most ‘heated’ debate is the one concerning the rational-emotional divide. The view that emotions should be dismissed as irrational because they are the expressions of women’s ‘hysterical’ and ‘dangerous’ desires dates as far back as Plato and was further promoted by Descartes, Kant or Weber who all believed in the superiority of rationality over emotions and desires which are a detrimental influence to human reason. The stoics took the

issue even further by proposing training programmes to achieving dominance over the emotions' potential influences (Birley, 1987).

Recent scientific traditions do not emphasize the rational/emotional as much, but still take into consideration the interplay between the emotions and what is now called the 'cognitive'. Some authors (Turner, 2004) argue that there are two scientific traditions in the study of emotions: a cognitive and a non-cognitive tradition. The cognitive approach claims that emotions cannot be without thought and that emotions are a mixture of cognitive and non-cognitive states. The non-cognitive tradition, whose main representative was William James (1884), argues that emotions are just feelings or subjective states that can exist separately from thoughts and that they are the results of bodily changes (ibid).

Although these controversies make the definitional task concerning emotions extremely complex and contentious (Samier & Shmidt, 2009), there are nevertheless some ways by which we can understand emotions better.

Etymologically, the term 'emotion' (in Romanian *emotie*) comes from the Latin *emovere*, where *e-* (variant of *ex-*) means 'out' and *movere* means 'move' suggesting that emotions mean to move something that is subjective and in the inside to the outside. The related term "motivation" is also derived from *movere*.

Parrott (2001) – one of the authority figures in the field of emotions - argues that the term 'emotion' cannot be defined theoretically, because its origins lay in the everyday language and, thus, it is only the research evidence that can provide us with meaningful understandings of what emotions are for a specific context.

According to Parrott (ibid):

This concept did not originate as scientific term with a precise definition. Rather, the general category of “emotion”, as well as specific emotion words such as “anger” or “embarrassment” has its origins in everyday language and folk psychology. Research on emotions informs us about what people mean when they speak or think of emotions (ibid., p. 21).

A more theoretical approach to emotions is one that advises that any definition of emotion should include (Niedenthal et al., 2006; Scherer, 1984):

- *subjective* feelings or emotional experiences;
- *expressive* motor behaviour such as facial displays;
- *cognitive* appraisals and styles which intervene in processing affective information;
- *physiological* arousal; and
- the readiness to take particular *action*.

The agreement among many theorists seems to be that emotion is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon comprising biological and cultural components and which arises in social and relational contexts (Williams, 2001; Strongman, 1996). There is also a certain degree of agreement that, in terms of emotion terminology, distinctions need to be made between different concepts that refer to the affective states. This discrimination is based on the intensity and duration variance that emotional states have (Turner, 2004) and so three different types of affective states can be identified based on their intensity and duration. These are known as:

- *moods*,
- *emotions*
- *sentiments*

The term *affect* is the most general term that incorporates all three types of emotions listed above. According to Turner (2004), *moods* are “generally treated

as a low intensity, short duration state for the actor and has limited organizing effect on social interaction” (ibid, p.149). In contrast, *emotions*: “are intense and transitory states signified by intense behaviour of actors. They often occur in response to experienced situations or acts of others and are thus instantiated in ongoing interaction” (ibid, p.148). Finally, *sentiments* are “generally conceptualized as of lesser intensity than emotions, but of longer duration” (idem, p.149).

### **The number of emotions**

The issue of what emotions are, and whether they can be understood *in abstracto*, raises another controversy related to the number of emotions.

The sheer number of emotions can be overwhelming, and can obscure similarities and regularities that exist. For this reason psychologists have searched for valid ways if simplifying matters by organizing or structuring the emotions” (Parrott, 2001, p. 9)

Numerous classifications of emotions have been proposed, and several were found more popular for researchers arguably for their generalizability and possibilities of operationalization. Studies exploring the facial expressions suggest that there either five (Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 1987) or six (Ekman, 1972) emotions that can be found in all the cultures. These emotions are adaptive and have a survival function and are: happiness, anxiety, sadness, anger, disgust or, according to Ekman (ibid) these are: happiness, surprise, anger, sadness, fear, disgust /contempt.

### **Polarity: positive and negative emotions**

There have been attempts to address the issue of the number of existing emotions, and one of the simplification methods mentioned by Parrott (2001) involves defining emotions on a two-dimensional space (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) based on two independent types of affect labelled as 'negative' and 'positive' affect. It has been suggested that the positive affect has important benefits leading to greater cognitive flexibility and facilitating creative problem solving across a broad range of settings (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997). The 'dopamine hypothesis of positive affect', proposed by Ashby et al. (1999), assumes that during periods of mild positive affect there is a concomitant increased dopamine release, primarily in the mesocorticolimbic system. The theory further assumes that the resulting elevated dopamine levels in anterior cingulate increase cognitive flexibility and facilitate the selection of cognitive perspective or set, thereby improving creative problem solving ability (ibid). The motivational potential of positive emotions has been studied in groups and organisations by looking at underlying social processes, such as emotional contagion and convergence, intra-group and collective emotions but also at the importance of social rules in regulating and managing emotions. All these suggest that emotions have a profound social nature, idea which will be analysed further in the next section.

### **The emotions and the social**

Emotions are social in many ways: they are responsive to social events, they are regulated by social rules and constraints such as values, rules, morals (Tiedens



& Leach, 2004) and, as some authors would argue, they are socially constituted (Tiedens & Leach, 2004).

*Emotion regulation and emotion management.* Traditionally, psychologists have assumed that people's emotion-regulation efforts serve hedonic needs that are aimed at promoting pleasure and preventing pain (e.g., Larsen, 2000). Negative emotional states are costly, because they mobilise a wide array of mental and physical resources within the individual (Sapolsky, 2007). Need-oriented emotion regulation may thus be adaptive, by "allowing individuals to conserve these resources by promoting a rapid return to hedonically agreeable states." (Koole, 2009. p 14)

The simplest definition of emotion regulation proposed by Koole (ibid) states that:

Emotion-regulation strategies specify how people go about managing a particular unwanted emotion. (ibid, p.16)

Although there is a general agreement that emotion regulation require some internal processes related to emotions, it is less clear if these are intentional or not (Eisenberg & Spinard, 2004). Also, culture is an important variable in emotion regulation. For example, cultures differ in appraisals that lead to emotion (Scherer, 1997), and these might correspond with situation selection. Cultures differ in emotional expression (Ekman, 1972; Friesen, 1972) and in the rules governing their modification, called display rules (Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001).

*The intragroup emotions, emotional contagion and convergence.* Emotional contagion is, according to Hatfield and Rapson (2004):

The tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally (Hatfield et al., 1993, p.5)

The experience of emotional contagion involves the fact that, moment by moment, people tend to ‘catch’ others’ emotions. According to the emotional convergence hypothesis (Anderson & Keltner, 2004), there are many benefits of people having similar emotional reactions to events (Barsade et al., 2000). The implications are significant for individuals, relationships and cultures.

Emotional similarity coordinates the attention, thoughts, and behaviours across multiple individuals (Anderson & Keltner, 2004, p.145).

Emotional similarity helps individuals to respond as a collective to potential opportunities and threats (Campbell, 1975; Festinger, 1954). Also, they feel closer and more comfortable with others when the emotions are similar, therefore emotional similarity increases cohesion and solidarity, whereas emotional dissimilarity increases discomfort and interpersonal conflicts (Barsade et al., 2000; Hatfield et al., 1994).

Emotional convergence has implications for what is known in social psychology as ‘socially shared cognition’ (Festinger, 1954). It has been shown that emotions impact on a whole range of cognitive processes: they alter people’s interpretations of events, perceptions of environments, perceptions of fairness and also modify the way people interpret other’s behaviours (Ashby et al., 1999;

Keltner et al., 1993). Moreover, a stronger emotional cohesion would also increase levels of commitment among members of different groups with effects on work outcomes (Anderson et al., 2004).

### **Emotions in educational settings**

The educational field has produced several theoretical approaches on the role of emotions in education: theories of *school climate* (Cohen et al., 2007; Brighthouse & Woods, 2008; Freiberg, 1999; Creemers, 1994; Stringfield, 1994; Hoy et al., 1990, Heck & Merculides, 1996) have sometimes incorporated aspects related to emotions by looking at the general school atmosphere; concepts such as *emotional intelligence* and *emotional literacy* have been adopted in education more on a practical level, rather than on a theoretical level (Spendlove, 2008; Rae & Pedersen, 2007; Tew, 2007; Weare, 2004; Brearley, 2001) and they provide useful insights into understanding schools as emotional arenas.

Moreover, programs such as those promoting mental and emotional health (Dwivedi & Harper, 2004; Holmes, 2005; Cowie et al., 2004; Buchanan & Hudson, 2000; Weare, 2000; Webster-Stratton, 1999) are also an important contribution to the field. Finally, concepts such as *stress*, *burnout* and *satisfaction* are particularly useful for the understanding of teachers' emotions (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008; Schutz & Pekrun, 2007; Oplatka, 2007; Zembylas, 2005, 2002). More recently, affective paradigms of educational leadership have been proposed and have been discussed in a previous section (e.g. Samier & Schimdt, 2009; Crawford, 2009, 2007a, 2007b; Leithwood & Beatty, 2008; Harris, 2007).

## **School climate research**

One of the key concepts describing organisational environment, and which incorporates implicitly rather than explicitly the emotional dimension of the organisation, is the term 'school climate'. Freiberg (1999) defines school climate as being the:

The heart and soul of a school. It is about that essence of a school that leads a child, a teacher, and administrator, a staff member to love the school and to look forward to being there each school day. (ibid, p. 11)

Climate factors have been incorporated into school effectiveness models (Creemers, 1994; Stringfield, 1994) where climate is understood as the environment that includes parents and community and has unique effects on student learning (Stringfield, 1994). Freiberg (1999) also stressed the importance of an integrated approach to school effectiveness that includes climate as a significant factor and argues that any school improvement measures aimed at improving school and students outcomes need to consider both effectiveness and climate factors together (ibid, 1999).

The term 'climate' is sometimes used interchangeably or in parallel with the term 'culture', but as some researchers point out (Hoy et al., 1990; Heck & Marcoulides, 1996), culture incorporates values and norms, whereas climate has more to do with behaviours and practices. The metaphor of 'health' has also been used to describe school climate which suggests that a healthy organisation finds effective ways of dealing with outside factors while directing its internal

resources towards its goals which are the educational outcomes (Hoy et al., 1990; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

### **‘Healthism’, mental and emotional health promoting school programmes**

The ‘health’ metaphor is at a centre of another theoretical area that has proven popular in the educational research of emotions and which draws on concepts of ‘mental and emotional health’. Supporting the idea of multiple intelligence, which can be emotional and social, Weare (2000) calls for a common agenda of educationalists and policy-makers who seek to promote high academic standards and those who seek to promote mental and emotional well-being in schools, arguing that social and affective education “can support academic learning, not simply take time away from it” (ibid, p. 5) and that effective schools affect children’s health as well as their learning. Weare (ibid) proposes a positive, ‘salutogenic’ perspective to mental, emotional and social health that distances itself from mental illness and emotional problems and focuses on the well-being of individuals and on positive practices within the organisation. A school can promote mental, emotional and social health by creating a supportive whole school environment, developing self-esteem, emotional and social competences and by incorporating these issues in the curriculum that is taught in schools (Weare, 2000, 2004).

### **The emotionally literate / competent individuals and schools**

Commonly, programmes promoting mental, emotional and social health in schools were focused on developing certain *emotional and social competences*

or *skills* in children and adolescence such building self-esteem, managing personal stress (coping skills), building positive relationships, problem-solving, friendship skills and handling emotions (Dwivedi & Harper, 2004; Wells, 2000; Webster-Stratton, 1999). Many of these programs were complemented by intervention programs for parents (Stewart-Brown, 2000; Baillie et al., 2000). Moreover, some of these competence or skill development programs were influenced by the popular rise of the *emotional intelligence* (EI) (Goleman, 1995) and *emotional literacy* (Steiner, 2000; Steiner & Perry, 1997, 1979) movement.

The *emotional literacy* theory, inspired from by the *emotional intelligence* concept, has been very popular in education especially in the UK. The term *emotional literacy* was originally proposed by Claude Steiner and Paul Perry in 1979 and updated and revised by Steiner in 1997 and 2000. The distinction between emotional literacy and emotional intelligence (EI) is made clear by Steiner himself:

Emotional literacy is emotional intelligence with a heart (...) I offer a love-centered approach to emotional intelligence, developed over the last twenty five years, which I call Emotional Literacy Training (Steiner, 2009 [online]).

There is an arguably practical benefit of the *emotional literacy* theory which is very influential in educational practice, but despite its implications for training, similar critiques made to the *emotional intelligence* concept can be raised to the emotional literacy approaches. Despite this enormous interest in the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership and organisations, and to the arguable

effectiveness of EI, the theory is highly contested. Critics of EI and to the competence approach of emotion, including some educational researchers, argue that self-awareness, for instance, which is an important component of emotional intelligence, is far more complex than being a simple competence (Crawford, 2007). It is also argued that the epistemological and phenomenological consequences of psychometrically ‘boxing’ emotion are problematic and restrictive. For example, Fineman (2004) suggests that “the subtext here is that the emotionally less intelligent need correcting in some way (typically through training)” (ibid, p.730).

In addition to concepts such as emotional intelligence, emotional literacy or self-efficacy, Curchod and Doudin (2009) build on a model based on concepts of emotional competencies of school staff while Gendron (2004) talks about the ‘emotional capital’ of school and its importance to organisational development.

### **Teachers’ emotions**

Rather than looking at emotions in terms of desirable competences and skills that can be trainable, other authors looked into teachers’ and headteachers’ emotional experiences at school. International contributions are made to understanding teachers’ emotional experiences and some of the areas explored are:

- Workload and teaching conditions (Leithwood & McAdie, 2007; Smith & Bourke, 1992)
- Stress and burnout (McCarthy et al., 2009; Milfont et al., 2008; Holmes, 2005; Crawford 1997; Chen & Miller, 1997)
- Coping skills and job satisfaction (Sarbjit & Dinesh, 2008; Liu & Ramsey, 2008)

Furthermore, Hargreaves makes seven important assumptions about the ‘emotional politics of teaching’ (1998a, 1998b) which are putting teachers’ emotions on the agenda of educational research:

- Teaching is an emotional practice;
- Teaching and learning involve emotional understanding;
- Teaching is a form of emotional labour;
- Teachers’ emotions are inseparable from their moral purposes and their ability to achieve those purposes;
- Teachers’ emotions are rooted in and affect their selves, identities, and relationships with others;
- Teachers’ emotions are shaped by experiences of power and powerlessness; and
- Teachers’ emotions vary with culture and context (emphasis in the original).

One of the central focuses in educational theory and research has been teacher stress. Stress in teaching involves negative emotions such as *anxiety, anger, depression, frustration*, triggered by various aspects of teacher work (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978). Crawford (1997) points out that there are different levels of stress and not all are ‘bad’ or negative. For example, eustress or beneficial stress refers to the optimal level of stress that humans need to experience in order to have the motivation and energy to get involved in different activities. On the other hand, under-stress, which is sometime expressed in boredom, is far less researched than the hyper-stress and the distress which are the non-optimal and high levels of emotional discomfort experienced by teachers. Furthermore, Crawford argues (ibid), that although individuals develop their personal coping styles and mechanism, the organisational context and management is very important in dealing with the stress that teachers experience at work.



Systems can be put in place for regular surveys of the situation, and managers can focus on the positive rather than on the negative effects of stress. The individual role in monitoring his/her own stress levels needs to be seen as only a part of the process. Those that manage individuals need to understand the causes and symptoms of stress, and the strategies that can be employed to the benefit of the organization, and the individual. (ibid, p.109)

In addition to the intrinsic emotional nature of the teaching profession, the external pressures have their say in challenging the status and the role of teachers and teaching in society. Gewirtz et al. (2009) explain the context that might have encouraged such public perceptions. The authors talk about the 'economisation' of education policy and profession in an international context and about the fact that the neo-liberal policy promoted new forms of performative control of schools and teachers which has affected teaching as a state profession (Ball, 2006).

## **Empirical literature from international research**

### **Leadership**

The GLOBE project (Dorfman, 2004) show that there are certain leadership attributes believed to contribute to effective leadership: being trustworthy, just, and honest (integrity); having foresight and planning ahead (charismatic/visionary); and being positive, dynamic, encouraging, motivating, and building confidence (charismatic/inspirational). In support of these findings, some evidence suggests that leaders who engage in transformational behaviours will be more effective than those who do not, regardless of culture (Bass, 1985).

The effectiveness or the desirability of certain leadership practices are not judged as a value *per se*, but are rather discussed in relation to desired outcomes at individual, group or institutional level. In the UK, for instance, some debated versions of the performing school took into discussion the contested nature of educational outcomes, the nature of education itself, which in the neo-liberal vision was a product and a service to be marketed (Gunter, 2001), while in other voices (Ranson, 1993) argued for an education that, according to the democratic ideals and practices, is a public good that promotes equity and contributes to the creation of a learning society.

Looking into the impact of leadership on student outcomes, recent publications report on leadership effects within the current political framework proposed for education by the current government in the UK (Day et al., 2009). The authors make several strong claims, one of which being that Headteachers improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions. This claim is further supported by findings suggesting that teachers' working conditions affect teachers' emotions and the effects these emotions have on student learning, but also emphasize how leadership contributes to creating the organisational climate of schools (Leithwood & Beatty, 2008).

Similarly, in a more recent study, Steyrer et al. (2008) raise the issue of the missing links in the research of leadership – effectiveness relationship. Findings based on data collected in 78 companies from the Germanic cultural area which took part in the GLOBE project (Waldman et al., 2006) suggest that even when

analyzed in conjunction with crucial contextual variables, desirable leadership behaviours are positively related to subordinates' organisational commitment, and that organisational commitment contributes to company performance.

A meta-analysis of transformational school leadership effects on school outcomes in Taiwan and the USA (Chin, 2007) concludes that transformational school leadership does have positive effects on teacher job *satisfaction*, school effectiveness perceived by teachers, and student achievement. Similarly, Ross and Gray (2006) prove that transformational leadership had direct and indirect effects on teachers' commitment to community partnership, where the effects were mediated by teachers' collective self-efficacy measured. Transformational leadership effects on teacher outcomes have been proven in previous studies but how these effects occur is less clear, as Leithwood et al.'s review based on 20 studies suggests (1999).

Transformational leadership effects have also been extensively studied in relationship to organisational outcomes such as creativity and innovation (Jung et al., 2008). The findings confirmed authors' predictions that transformational leadership is positively associated with organisational innovation and that leadership effects are mediated by organizational culture, structure, and the external environment. Transactional components, too, have been identified to have significant and positive effects on organisational outcomes, as Dumdum et al. (2002) suggest, which is what the present study found also, especially with reference to the contingent rewards aspect of the leadership practices.

Similarly, Geijsel et al. (2003) provide comparative data from Canada and Netherlands on the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment and extra effort using structural equation modelling which is an advanced statistical analysis method able to arguably identify causal relationships between variables without an experimental design. The results of this study show that vision and intellectual stimulation have the strongest impact on teachers' commitment and extra effort.

Zohar and Tenne-Gazit (2008) tested the social mechanisms through which organizational climate emerges. This article introduces a model that combines transformational leadership and social interaction as antecedents of climate strength (i.e., the degree of within-unit agreement about climate perceptions).

The impact of transformational leadership on employees' value system congruence and identification (cognitive outcomes) was also investigated in schools from India (Krishnan, 2005). Moreover, a review of over 35 studies has reported positive relationships between transformational leadership and follower performance (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996, Boehnke et al., 2003). Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) suggest that the leadership effects are mediated by school culture, teachers' commitment and job *satisfaction*, and a small number of other variables, but very few studies have examined the antecedents or moderators of transformational school leadership.

Barnett et al. (1999), discussed transformational leadership behaviours in Australian schools, found that only some transformational behaviours, such as individual concern, were associated with teachers outcomes such as *satisfaction*,

extra effort and perception of leadership effectiveness and, surprisingly, vision/inspiration was negatively associated with student learning culture.

Despite numerous studies being published, and providing evidence in support of the positive effects of transformational leadership on organisational outcomes, the validity of the transformational leadership model itself is contested.

One of the areas in which the model is most contested is the clear discrimination of the three types of leadership styles. Because of the insufficient fit of the proposed underlying factor structure of The Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire 5X, known as the MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1997), some authors propose a differentiated view of leadership. For example, a survey study by Heinitz et al. (2005) revealed a three-factor solution found by Heinitz and colleagues (*ibid*) in which all transformational subcomponents and in addition contingent reward (transactional) are combined in one factor called Charismatic goal orientation. Similarly, a recent investigation into the empirical and theoretical properties of the transformational – transactional model measured by the MLQ 5X (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), suggests that contingent reward should be measured independently, as it does not correlated with the other transactional factors.

These are not isolated examples of findings in which the original transformational-transactional model has been differentiated in the population studied (Shahin & Wright, 2004).

In elaborating the construct of transformational leadership, the role of affect needs to be taken in consideration. Research evidence provided by Brown and Keeping (2005) shows that transformational leadership, at least when assessed with the MLQ 5X, is highly influenced by the interpersonal affect raters feel towards the target being rated (i.e., liking) (Bass & Avolio, 1997). These results support contemporary calls to investigate affective processes in leadership (Crawford, 2007; Beatty, 2004, Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; George, 2000).

Nevertheless, Hackett & Hortman (2008) established a significant relationship between the transformational leadership model, positive student outcomes and an emotional competency framework, which is associated with effectiveness at the organisational level. The emotional competency frame draws on the emotional intelligence theory and the findings of this research show that competencies in each of the four emotional intelligence domains were correlated with one or more of the five transformational leadership scales (ibid, p. 104).

### **Emotions in organisational settings**

As some of the most influential researchers in the field of human emotions suggest (Lazarus, 1991), emotions incorporate psychobiological responses that connect cognitive perceptions of the social world, physiological reactions, propensity towards action, but also feelings or subjective experiences. Emotion regulation has been a focus in Lazarus's studies of stress and coping, especially as a form of regulation called 'problem-focused coping' (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This type of emotion regulation tends to be employed by people in

potentially upsetting situations in which efforts are made to modify the unpleasant situation. The emotional display can take the form of verbal, non-verbal or facial expressions (Rosenthal et al., 1979; Ekman & Friesen, 1974). Although the physiological and individual psychological processes of emotions have been extensively researched, emotions nevertheless are also reflections of social perceptions and interactions within certain social contexts (Kemper, 1993, 1978).

Hochschild (1984) points out that feelings and feeling rules are powerful cultural and social tools used to direct people's actions. These rules guide emotions so that people feel obliged to follow them if they were to avoid public or social 'sanctions' such as being teased, scolded or ridiculed. Furthermore, the author suggests that different social groups or roles could have different ways of recognizing feeling rules and of 'sanctioning' inappropriate emotions. This raises the question of authenticity, of what are the 'true' and the 'false' feelings. Hochschild argues that one of the main causes of the insinuation of the artificial into the natural is the fact that people are more and more aware of incentives to 'use' feelings for different purposes (pp. 213-214).

The literature on the role of emotions in organisational development and performance in business organisations is vast and has been growing for almost twenty years since the publication of Fineman's seminal book on emotions in organisations (1993). The book brings emotions into the centre of the organizational life and Fineman examines "these products of socialization and manipulation" (ibid, p.1) from two complementary perspectives: social

constructivism and psychodynamic theory. Furthermore, Fineman explores how the two theories provide different insights into how emotions are shaped and managed, but also into how “the invisible world of personal anxieties, fears and yearnings can be seen to underpin work-related behaviours and routines (ibid. p.3).

Taking a psychodynamic approach, Hirschhorn (1990) provides a framework for studying emotions in organizations by arguing that feelings of anxiety are at the root of dysfunctional relationships at work. In order to manage these unhealthy emotions, groups develop sets of social defenses such as displacement activities which, in turn, affect the relationships of the group with the wider community. In order for a group to develop, its members need to be motivated to restore their ‘psychological wholeness’ and repair the emotional damage done in devaluating other. “The desire for reparation helps to limit the level of social irrationality in any group setting and provides a strong basis for moments of group development” (ibid, p.10).

Some organisational studies provide evidence to suggest that the personal and the emotions of an individual play a significant role in the effectiveness of collective efforts (Fineman, 2001, 1993; George, 1990). The underlying mechanisms of this reality show that emotions can direct the attention, can elicit and inhibit certain actions, and also play a part in how employees coordinate their activities, which, in turn, might affect their individual work outcomes with potential effect on the group and organisational outcomes as well (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Ekman, 1992; Kemper, 1978).



## **Collective emotions**

In order to be able to perceive and recognize others' emotions, certain emotional cues are taken into consideration. Scholars suggest, though, that these cues are very often subtle, especially when the social context is such that makes them difficult to convey explicitly (Ekman, 1992).

Research provides evidence about individual and collective emotions recognition. For instance, the ability to recognize other people's emotions is believed to be one of the main components of emotional intelligence (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Empirical studies have shown that in order to accurately 'read' other's emotional display one needs to be effective in managing interpersonal relationships both in the everyday life and in the organizational roles (Rosenthal et al., 1979; Elfenbein et al., 2007). Examples from research on transformational leadership are studies showing that managers having high emotion-recognition ability tend to be perceived as more transformational by their subordinates (Rubin et al., 2005). Decoding emotions accurately is not necessarily a difficult skill to possess and can actually take place with short temporal exposure to the emotional cues as Elfenbein and Ambady suggest (2002).

There are several mechanisms identified to have a contributing role to the emergence of *collective emotions*. They refer to similar interpretations, experiences, identities, and also to organizational culture (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). In support of this idea, Dutton and Dukerich (1991) reveal that employees who strongly identify with their companies are more likely to experience emotions similar to one another when facing events that either

enhance or threaten organization's identity through a radical shift in strategic focus. Studies of organizational culture (VanMaanen & Kunda, 1989) also show that this factor can be a powerful form of control that informs and guides the employee's emotions and contributes to shared emotional experiences.

In addition, *emotional contagion* is one mechanism through which emotions spread among group members (Barsade, 2002). This mechanism is a natural human reflex to adopt the emotional experiences of those around us (Hatfield et al., 1994). For example, it has been proven that the mere perception of a person's *joy* or *sadness* can lead to the perceiver displaying a joyful or sad expression (Ekman, 2004). Ekman further argues that, as a consequence, these unintentional changes in facial and other muscles can lead to similar emotional states in perceivers (ibid).

There is more evidence supporting the fact that these unconscious, yet contagious, effects of others' emotional displays can produce clusters of shared emotional experiences in a variety of organizational settings (Totterdell et al., 2004). For example, in a recent recognition of collective emotions, Burks and Huy (2007) propose the concept of *emotional aperture* which entails automatically recognizing the distribution of specific collective emotions.

Some authors argue (Burks & Hoy, 2007) that misreading the proportion of negative emotions within either the organization as a whole or its departments in particular, can impede strategic change for instance. Therefore, a leader who underestimates the prevalence of negative affect at a given time in a given department and wishes to press on with a particular change initiative might be

facing attempts to sabotage its success (Piderit, 2000). This suggests that negative emotions, such as contempt have a predictive power (Burks & Hoy, 2007).

### **Emotion experiences and displays**

Emotions in organisations, and the tension between *feelings* and emotional *displays*, have been studied in relation to various work outcomes and are generally recognized for their organisational importance. Cultural studies in *emotion regulation* suggest that cultures differ in the appraisal of emotions (Scherer, 1997), in the expression of emotions expression (Ekman, 1972; Friesen, 1972; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001) and also in the emotional display rules (Matsumoto et al., 2009).

Traditional views on the functions of emotion regulation relate it to the fulfilment of hedonic needs (Larsen, 2000), positive that has been reconsidered based on the fact that people sometimes need to regulated both positive and negative emotions if the situations require it (Erber et al., 1996). More recent developments on the functions of emotion regulation point out that the process may be related to balancing multiple goal pursuits (Rothermund et al., 2008)

### **Positive and negative emotions at work**

Research on positive and negative affect has confirmed the initial finding of Bradburn (1969) on the independence of positive and negative affect (Larsen, 2007). Nevertheless, some authors suggest that the independence of negative and positive affect is highly influenced by the way it is measured (Egloff, 1998)

and by time span, independence increasing over time (Diener & Emmons, 1984). The existence of multiple social meanings of the emotional terminology suggests that people can hold different meanings for the same emotions with even opposite valences. There are emotions with an intrinsic positive meaning such as *satisfaction*, *joy* or *enthusiasm*, and others more ambiguous in their valence such as surprise which can be either negative or positive.

### **Emotions in schools and teaching**

Recent reviews (Schutz & Pekrun, 2007c) of evidence on emotion in education suggest that, with the exception of research carried out on test anxiety in students (Zeidner, 1998) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), the inquiry on emotions in educational contexts had a slow emergence (Schutz et al., 2007c). The authors also argue that we know ‘next to nothing’ about students’ and teachers’ emotions such as: anger, shame, boredom, anxiety.

In spite of a growing interest in integrating affective and motivational aspects of learning (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005; Pekrun et al., 2002), less is known about affective factors in school, among different subjects, and in specific learning situations (Gläser-Zikuda & Jarvela, 2008b).

A recent study using mixed methodology in looking at the emotional dimension of learning is Gläser-Zikuda et al.’s (2008a) investigation of emotions such as *anxiety*, *anger*, *boredom*, *pleasure*, *hope*, and *satisfaction* which are found to be significantly related to learning and achievement. These findings are supported by previous research (Gläser-Zikuda et al., 2005 Fuß et al., 2005; Pekrun et al., 2002). Other examples of studies looking at the role of emotions in learning are:

Turner et al.'s (2003) emphasis on the role of emotion in motivation theories, while MacNail et al. (2008), studying effects of school culture and school climate, find that students achieve higher scores on standardized tests in schools with healthy learning environments.

Although many academics and researchers make a strong claim in linking emotions, and especially positive emotions, to learning outcomes and more generally to school outcomes, it is difficult to identify more precisely how this process takes place and what are the underlying mechanisms that lead to these results. The most common explanation comes from the motivation theory (Turner, 2003) which argues that emotions are very powerful motivational resources.

Sammons et al., (2007) looked at how teachers' work and lives affect pupils in English schools in a large-scale, longitudinal mixed-method research and found that teachers' sense of positive professional identity is associated with well-being and is a key contributory factor in their effectiveness and that attainments by pupils of teachers who are committed and resilient are likely to exceed those of teachers who are not (Sammons et al., p. 699).

In education, the richest research literature on emotions is based on concepts such as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) and emotional literacy (Steiner & Perry, 2000; Weare, 2000, 2004). These ability or skill-based approaches to improving organisational performance have been criticized, both in organisation studies and in the educational literature (Crawford, 2009), for being prescriptive and insufficient for the understanding of emotionality at work.

The politics of the ‘educated feelings’ (Boler, 1997), and the prescriptive theories of emotional literacy and emotional intelligence approaches, have been promoted at national level in school-based programmes in countries such as the UK (Weare, 2004), yet the issue that needs to be explored is what are the real and long-term consequences of the emotional labour of teachers.

Understanding emotions is important because it explains how teachers’ emotions affect school and classroom practices through structuring perception, directing attention, giving preferential access to certain memories and biasing judgment in the individual’s responses to the environment (Oatley et al., 2006, p. 260)

Leithwood and Beatty (2008) review recent relevant evidence emphasizing several consequences that teachers’ emotions have. These are:

- teachers’ classroom practices or performance
- teachers’ school wide practices or performance
- teachers’ engagement in the profession and student learning.

Drawing on the reviewed evidence, the authors argue that:

Teachers’ emotions, rather than being excuses, distractions, and knee-jerk resistance, are a potent and largely untapped resource, which educational leaders need to understand better if they are to be directly and intentionally helpful to their teaching colleagues in the shared task of improving student learning” (ibid, p. 2)

Nevertheless, although the authors look at emotions such as job *satisfaction*, stress, anxiety and burnout, commitment and individual and collective self-efficacy, other emotions involved in teaching such AS sadness, embarrassment

and shame, and the difficult managing process of these negative emotions, are given less attention or not explored at all.

Moreover, a natural phenomenon, which takes place in schools as well as in other social settings, is emotion regulation. An intervention-based study revealing the benefits of using emotion regulation strategies in teaching was carried out by Totterdell and Parkinson (1999). The authors found that cognitive distraction was the most frequently used strategy, but behavioural diversion and cognitive reappraisal were associated with the greatest improvements in reported mood among a group of teaching trainees. Sutton et al., (2009) similarly find that teachers' practice emotion regulation because they believe it makes them more effective in management, discipline, and their relationships with students.

A different approach to teachers' emotions is taken by Hargreaves (1998b) who proposes a model that incorporates fundamental social processes without disregarding the individual and subjective experiences, and also by exploring a large spectrum of specific emotions. Sutton & Wheatley (2003) argue that teachers' emotions influence teachers' and students' cognitions, motivation, and behaviours. Looking at factors that influence school staff' perceptions of wellness at work, Sackney et al. (2000) show that gender does not affect these perceptions whereas job type does.

Another body of evidence from educational research reveals the role of positive climate to school performance (Heck & Marcoulides, 1996). By school performance, the authors mean academic outcomes measured using the standard achievement scores obtained at school level in various curricular areas. The

authors found that positive school climate incorporate three components: organisational values, social relationships and teachers attitudes, the latter being the strongest predictor of outcomes (ibid). These findings are consistent with previous evidence provided by Lee and Croninger (1994), supporting the belief that schools where positive social and professional relations are developed are environments where more learning takes place.

Further evidence from research on self-efficacy suggests that teachers who experience powerlessness, hopelessness and alienation develop lowered senses of self-efficacy in terms of believing they have the power to make a difference to their students' lives, and attain poorer results in student achievement as a consequence (e.g. Rosenholtz, 1989).

### **Educational leadership and emotions**

Two main foci are identified in studies exploring emotions and educational leadership: one that looks into the individual emotional experiences of school leaders, and one that take an organisational approach to leadership and emotions and discusses the implications of policy or theory in the area of educational leadership and emotions.

### **Emotions and leadership: a personal perspective**

There are several themes emerging from studies exploring the personal domain of headteachers' emotions. Most of the studies looking into this topic explore the burden and sometimes negative emotions that headteachers experience in their roles. Terms such as burnout, woundedness, stress, vulnerability and



loneliness are central to these studies (Johnson et al., 2005; Ackerman & Maslin-Ostrowski, 2004, 2002; O'Connor, 2004; Oplatka, 2002; Ostell & Oakland, 1995).

School leaders' emotions are the focus of a phenomenological study looking at the emotional experiences of 65 school principals from the USA in crisis situations (Ackerman & Maslin-Ostrowski, 2002, 2004). The idea of 'woundedness' lays in the centre of the study, the authors concluding that wounding experiences are common among educational leaders and also that they are an opportunity to question and learn about one's leadership style, also to change and improve. The themes that emerge from the study refer to vulnerability, isolation, fear, power and especially emotions related to the ambiguity of power.

Oplatka (2002) explores the emotions of women leaders in schools from Israel and focuses on the concept of *burnout* in the view of women leaders from feminist perspectives and investigates to what extent these views differ from the 'androgynous' constructions of burnout.

Two other studies, one from 2004 by O'Connor (Ireland), and one from 2005 by Johnson, Aiken and Steggerda (USA), investigate the emotions experience by Headteachers, using a qualitative methodology. These studies reveal the importance of emotions for school leadership and suggest that being a role-model, and being in control of your own feelings, are central for educational leaders even if there is an emotional price to be paid by leaders; loneliness, isolation and poor-affirmation might come with the job.

Comparable findings are reported by Schimdt (2000) who investigates the emotional experiences of department Heads in a study based on secondary data, drawn from two different projects from Canada. This role, according to Schmidt, is very ambiguous, subject to many variations and one of the most stressful positions in teaching profession.

In a mixed methods in-depth study on Headteachers' stress, Ostell and Oakland (1995) provide a complex theoretical framework drawing on fields outside education such as personality, cognitive and social psychology by exploring concepts like 'coping' and 'attributional styles' in stress, 'cognitive appraisal' and 'self-efficacy'.

Other educational authors look into the aspects of emotional labour and dissonance and how tensions between external expectations and personal experience affect the lives of headteachers (Crawford, 2009, 2007; Sachs & Blackmore, 1998).

In a study exploring the experiences of a group of women in leadership positions from different Australian schools, Sachs and Blackmore (1998) illustrate the emotional labour of these women leaders who are in the situation of negotiating the demands of the educational reform. In this paper, the authors argue that Head teachers' emotional experiences are regulated by the emotional rules that are implicit to the organisational ethos of the education system and the school itself.

Crawford (2007) explores the stories of several primary school Headteachers in the UK. The author (ibid) argues that emotion can be a useful lens to look at leadership and understand the complexity of leadership phenomenon. She also addresses the rational/emotional interface that refers to the expectation that leaders have an “acceptable public face” (ibid, p. 88) while trying to conciliate being human and being professional.

Moreover, Crawford (ibid) draws attention to the role of emotions in a larger organisational context, addressing their impact on school purposes, trust and the well-function of the organisation. Recognizing the power of emotions from an organisational perspective leads to the idea that managing emotions and understanding their connections with leadership effectiveness is an important area of study for educational researchers.

Another theme explored in education refers to heads’ emotionality, seen as a competence, and explore the links between specific leadership styles and typical emotions associated with them (Johnson et al., 2005; Beatty, 2004, 2000).

In an interview-based study, Beatty (2000) investigates the emotional experiences associated with leadership by looking at the connections between Head teachers’ philosophy of leadership and different situations described by them as being emotional. The findings suggest that people with certain leadership styles tend to experience certain types of emotions, for example people with controlling styles of leadership tend to experience more anxiety and fear than others. Beatty concludes that leadership is “a matter of mixed

emotions”, sharing responsibilities. A more distributed form of leadership, as Beatty suggests, encourages a good control of self and others in terms of handling fears and feelings of threat and insecurity. At the same time, leaders’ own emotional management proves to be essential for sustaining their confidence and commitment. Individual and group emotions contribute to the quality of organisational life and. Therefore, the emotional support proves to be important for this purpose.

Furthermore, in a following qualitative study from 2004, Beatty finds that the theoretical framework of *emotional epistemology* is useful in identifying the existing patterns of responses to typical emotions experienced in schools.

Johnson et al.’s study (2005) looks at leadership emotionality by exploring the view of six American school principals and other school leaders. According to Johnson (ibid), leadership emotionality has been seen as either an internal ability and as an external strategy applied by leaders to day to day situations. Four themes emerge from this particular study and these themes are: crossing emotional boundaries; value-driven emotions and leadership tools; adaptive emotional capacity; and subjectivity and emotional competence.

Similarly, Slater (2005) drew on the results of a larger qualitative, self-contained focus group study which had the purpose to identify effective behaviours for school principals to collaborate successfully. Amongst various supportive behaviours, the participants identified specific emotional competencies as essential for educational leadership. This paper contributes to the idea that

emotional competencies can affect leadership practices and that for school staff they play an important role in collaboration for school success.

### ***Educational leadership and emotions: an organisational perspective***

A second trend identified in the empirical literature on emotions and leadership includes studies that take an organisational approach, looking at how teachers' and heads' emotions and well-being impact on organisational change and development (Harris, 2007, 2004; Hargreaves, 2004a, 2004b; Sackney, 2000).

Organisational change and effectiveness have been at the heart of educational research for a long time. Moreover, a significant message coming from the empirical educational research seems to be that leadership style and practices do not only affect the general environment and climate of schools, but have a direct impact on specific and individual emotional experiences of school staff (Day et al., 2009; Leithwood & McAdie, 2007; Day et al., 2007).

In 2000, Sackney published a study that explores issues related to well-being at work in sample of Canadian schools. The results of this exploratory study show that people in administrative roles have usually more positive perceptions about their organisational wellness compared with teaching and support staff. The intellectual *satisfaction* received low scores both from teaching and supporting staff, which “is a measure of the *satisfaction* they may feel for their job” (p. 53). The implications for leadership suggest that leaders need to recognize and support the interdependence that exists among teachers, to create an intellectually stimulating and safe environment and to ensure that the emotional climate is a climate of trust, respect, fair-play and care.

Hargreaves (2004b) reports results from a study on the effects of leadership practices on educational change and school staff. The paper examines teachers' emotional reactions to educational change and concludes that, while teachers report having mostly positive experiences when they initiated the change, they experience predominantly negative ones when the change is mandated. This is an important paper that analyses the emotional dimension of school change by exploring teachers' experiences and views and by discussing the implications of this analysis for educational leadership at the school and also at system levels.

This theme is similarly explored in an in-depth case study looking at connections between leadership and change processes through the lenses of emotions and relationships (Harris, 2004). The author understands leadership as both emotional and rational and considers emotions as important motivational resources that lead to the achievement of goals in organisational settings. The case study presented by Harris (*ibid*) illustrates some of the emotional reactions of teachers to school improvement. In a more recent book from 2007, Harris argues that leadership is mainly an emotional process that is not so much about control and power, but about engagement and quality of relationships with self and with the others. This requires that leaders possess a good knowledge of own and others' emotions and how they may affect the behaviours and practice within the school.

### **Empirical literature from Eastern Europe and Romania**

Romania shares the same 'bloc culture' with several countries from Eastern and Central Europe, meaning that these countries share similar institutional and

organizational forms, similar life-ways, similar ideologies, and points out that their enforcement for several generations was enabled by the Communist system and resulted in a common cultural framework which stands over and above the distinct national cultures, but which is at the same time relatively differentiated from the wider global culture (Grancelli, 1995).

The cultural syndrome left as a legacy by Communism in the Eastern European countries can be found at the organisational level with its distinct set of values, norms, and standards based on the notion of the Communist theoretical conception of collectivism (Greenberg & Erdinc, 1999). As a consequence, some authors (e.g. Littrel et al., 2005) argue that the development of management and organizational culture based on risk-taking, initiative, creativity, transparency, autonomy and performance-based reward systems was seriously stifled. Moreover, evidence shows that the Communist culture had significant impact on career development and education where conformity to societal expectations gives the measure of occupational success rather than individual merit (Whitmarsh & Ritter, 2007).

### **School culture and leadership practices in Romania**

In Eastern Europe, the political revolutions of the 1990s led to major changes in education policies. De Grauwe (2005) reports that, in terms of school-based management, most Eastern-European countries have now redistributed responsibilities to local education offices as well as to schools. Nevertheless, Romania, which remains rather centralised and has undergone little reform, is perhaps untypical in this region (ibid).

The implications of self-management for leadership and management roles are significant (Bush, 2008). In centralised systems managers have the role of implementing government policies and little freedom and responsibility with regard to the curriculum, budgets, staffing, school vision, relationships with the community.

Highly centralised systems tend to be bureaucratic and to allow little discretion to schools and local communities. Decentralised systems devolve significant powers to subordinate levels. Where such powers are devolved to the institutional level, we may speak of 'self-management (ibid, p. 4).

Moreover, in spite of the attempts, in the most recent years, to introduce simple, accountable and rule-based mechanisms governing the flows of funds for Romanian local governments (LGs), there is evidence showing that deviations from the norms are still widespread and undermine the stated goals of many policies (Ionita, 2005).

In Romania, it seems that the “historical factor” continues to be the main criterion by which financial resources are allocated to schools, thus reducing the pressure of rationalizing resources (SAR, 2008). This has important implications for the decentralization processes.

Moreover, according to a recent study by the Romanian Academic Society (SAR, 2008), Romanian Headteachers are still using old leadership practices by relying on central directives in order to make decisions and having a low management capacity and low negotiation skills in relationship with the central, regional and local authorities.



A study co-ordinated by Iosifescu et al. (2001) on organizational culture identified the main features of the organizational culture in schools from Romania. Hofstede (1980, 2001) defines power distance as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. In cultures with large differences in power between individuals, organizations will typically have more layers and the chain of command is felt to be more important. In Romanian schools there is a high power distance which leads to a tendency for centralization, authoritative leadership styles, an excessive need for order, uniformity and lack of initiative. A high power distance culture also suggests that school leaders are oriented on short-term objectives and do not have the ability of planning the organizational development. The GLOBE (Dickson et al., 2003) data also demonstrate that power distance impacts on the endorsement of participative leadership. Although Romania used to be highly collectivist, it is moving towards a more individualistic culture, and this is becoming a reality for schools as well. Some authors would argue that moving from individualism to collectivism can create a climate of trust in the ability of schools to help other schools (Harris, 2009). This seems to be contradicted by the low levels of trust identified in former highly collectivist societies such as the Romanian (Littrel et al., 2005; Prosperity, 2009). Nevertheless, the difference might be made by the conviction and motivations with which a collectivist culture is formed and developed, compared with an abusive, imposed, top-down form of collectivism to which members do not wish to adhere.

Another finding shows that uncertainty avoidance, which refers to the degree to which members in a society feel uncomfortable with ambiguous and uncertain situations, and take steps to avoid them (Hofstede, 1980, 2001), is dominant for the Romanian school cultures. This suggests that schools tend to be closed to the community and promote less creative leadership styles (Dickson et al., 2003).

Unpublished evidence from a survey among secondary school headteachers exploring leadership practices in schools from Timisoara, Romania (Alba, 2005) shows that *moral purpose* and *coherence making* (Fullan, 2001) are the two leadership dimensions that are viewed by Headteachers as most important for the leadership process. In contrast, *understanding change* and *building relationships* tend to be less valued. According to the survey results (ibid), Headteachers from Timisoara do not seem convinced that *relationships* represent an important aspect of their work and role and, most of all, they have a different understanding of change and this understanding might have serious implications for the school's success in the future.

In terms of leadership styles, Headteachers show a preference for a mixed type of leadership that has both *transformational* and *transactional* components, which is in line with findings from previous studies from countries such as Sweden (Davis & Johansson, 2005), which suggest that there is no clear distinction between the two leadership styles.

Another key finding from this study is the fact that *contingent reward* is highly valued by Headteachers, meaning that the respondents find it useful to use a set of clear mechanisms that can regulate mutual exchanges and relationships. This

finding could explain Headteachers' attitudes toward relationships by taking into account the possibility that Heads are encountering difficulties in dealing with them, especially in larger schools.

As for the other school characteristics, such as type of school and school size, it is perhaps worth mentioning that the only variable that makes a significant difference when it comes to *relationships* and *sharing knowledge* is the number of students and teachers. Although the findings show that 62.5% of the Headteachers are female, men's longevity in Headship is higher than women's. Despite this gender difference, the findings show no important differences between males and females in what leadership style is concerned suggesting that men and women leadership employ similar leadership practices and value similar leadership components (Alba, 2005).

*Moral purpose* (Fullan, 2001) appears to be a leitmotif, a dominant theme throughout the findings, but, on the other hand, qualities that are related to the emotional and relational aspects of leadership come last: independence, optimism, stress tolerance, empathy (Alba, 2005).

Nevertheless, although Romanian Headteachers seem to have a strong moral purpose, in terms of freedom to make decisions they find themselves in similar positions with principals from Italy or Greece who, as findings from the Effective School Improvement project suggests (Harris & Chrispeels, 2006, 2009) have mainly an administrative role, being managers rather than educational leaders.

Despite far-ranging responsibilities, a school director is simply a recognized teacher who continues to teach while being principal and is paid a supplement for temporary managerial tasks (OECD, 2003, p.19).

Arguably, one of the most important findings (Alba, 2005) is the Headteachers' confidence (more than 85%) that their staff, parents and students *trust* them as leaders. This finding is significant, especially when compared to findings that show low levels of societal trust as a characteristic of the Romanian culture (Delhey, 2009). The fact that more than 95% of the Headteachers are willing and do intervene when crisis occurs, and do not expect the official authorities, such as the School Inspectorate, to interfere in order to solve the problems shows a strong adherence and commitment to school problems (Alba, 2005).

## **Summary**

The theoretical and empirical literature suggests that leadership and emotions are contested concepts and proposed theories in both fields are highly debated. There is, nevertheless, a certain level of agreement among theorists and researchers that leadership, as well as emotion, is a complex and multifaceted social phenomenon that arguably emerges, develops and is influenced by relational, social and cultural contexts. Research evidence suggests that transformational leadership practices are beneficial to both organisations and employees' well being, but it is yet to be tested if this leadership model is relevant in Romanian organisational contexts. Romania is moving towards an individualistic culture and schools are examples that reflect this reality, but it still has important steps to make in the decentralisation process that may allow Headteachers to become real leaders, instead of managers, and schools to

become self-managing and thus able to make a real difference in their overall performance. There is a growing interest in the role of emotions and social processes such as mood contagion and emotion congruence, leading to emerging collective emotions which may significantly contribute to organisational development and performance.

Nevertheless, there are very few studies that investigate this relationship from an organisational perspective and these are mainly from the business area or other non-educational settings. Even fewer studies employ a mixed method approach. The evidence from non-educational settings was considered useful when the themes proposed for study were explored in connection to each other. Very limited evidence with this focus was found in the international educational research and no evidence was found in the Romanian educational context. The international educational research on emotions, in which emotions are studied in connection to leadership and organisational development, is dominated by qualitative studies. Quantitative methodologies are only more frequently used in studying teachers' stress and morale. Taking into account these assumptions, a conceptual framework is proposed as a basis for the present study in the following chapter.

### **3. Conceptual framework**

This chapter proposes definitions and explanations of the key concepts that constitute the theoretical basis of this study which are informed by the reviewed theoretical and empirical literature and justified in accordance with the purposes of this study.

#### **Theoretical assumptions guiding the study of leadership and emotions in schools:**

1. Leadership and emotions are complex social phenomena and therefore, although a vast amount of theoretical and empirical literature has been published, their understanding requires contextualization of meanings (Williams, 2001; Strongman, 1996; Alexander et al., 2008). For the case of Romania discussions and some limited research have been published in the area of school practices and culture, but no study could be identified looking at how Western theories of leadership or emotions apply to the context of the Romanian schools and how they compare to contextualized meanings of leadership and emotions.
2. A behavioural approach translated into exploring styles, practices and tasks is useful not only for the study of leadership in a country in which research is scarce, but arguably in any context especially when issues such as effectiveness and outcomes are brought into equation (Robinson, 2008). The study seeks to identify some of the most common and desirable leadership styles and practices as they are viewed by school

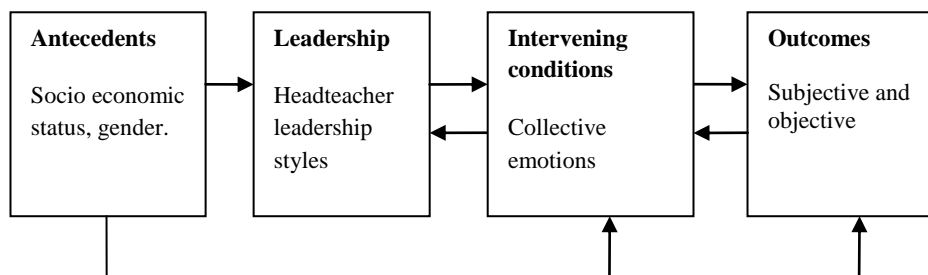
staff. It also seeks to understand how these dimensions can be translated into educational policies and developed through training.

3. Evidence from research suggests that the transformational-transactional leadership model is found relevant and useful in various cultures and organisational settings (Bass & Avolio, 1997), and thus for theoretical, methodological and pragmatic reasons, it is hypothesized that this leadership model might equally prove relevant for the study of principal leadership in Romanian schools.
4. A social-relational approach to emotions is adequate for the study of emotions related to work in school organisations as it incorporates individual as well as intragroup processes that are specific to the nature of emotions (Festinger, 1951; Hatfield & Rapson, 2004).
5. A ‘two-way’ theoretical framework combining theory driven assumptions and grounded-theory approaches suggests a mixed method paradigm that allows for comparisons, triangulation and integration of findings from various datasets. This framework attempts to reconcile two paradigms that are classically viewed as opposites: one is hypothesis driven and aims at generalizing theories to specific contexts; and the second one aims to generate theory from the data collected in specific contexts and that could be then generalized to other contexts. This mixed method approach is not new or uncommon in social sciences and, as mentioned in the literature review, leadership and emotion theorists advise that this perspective is especially recommended in studying complex social phenomena (Alexander et al., 2008).

## **An integrative framework for studying leadership, emotions and school outcomes**

The main research question that guides this thesis is ‘*What is the nature of the relationship between leadership practices, collective emotions of school staff and school outcomes*’? In order to answer this question the following theoretical framework proposed by Pitner, (1988, pp. 105-108), and discussed by Hallinger and Heck (1998), was adapted for this study (*Figure 3.1*).

The model is called the *Mediated-effects with Antecedent Effects* and it is a complex theoretical model in which antecedent effects are combined with the effects of leadership on in-school processes and indirectly on school outcomes (Pitner, 1988, pp. 105-108).



*Figure 3.1* Theoretical framework guiding research on leadership styles, collective emotions and subjective organisational outcomes (adapted from Pitner, 1988, pp.105-108).

In comparison with other models that assume a linear relationship between principal’s leadership and organisational outcomes, more complex models account for antecedent variables (e.g. demographic variables such as school size and teachers’ professional training) and mediating variables such as organisational culture and teaching methods. The model that has been used in this project suggests that leadership practices may not have a direct impact on school outcomes, but rather a mediated effect which is also influenced by the



school context and other exterior conditions such as demographics or the national culture. Therefore this model has been adopted because it is more comprehensive and takes into account both external and internal conditions that might influence leadership effects on school outcomes.

Nevertheless, the literature proposes a vast number of leadership models and research has been focusing on various organisational conditions, therefore the integrative framework described above may not be explanatory enough for the context under study. Therefore, narrower frameworks describing and defining specific theoretical approaches to leadership, emotions and outcomes are found necessary for the methodological purposes of operationalization and instrumentation.

### **A framework for studying school leadership**

Burns (1978) was the first author to contrast *transforming* and *transactional* leadership (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). *Transactional* leadership involves an exchange relationship between leaders and followers so that followers receive rewards or prestige for complying with leaders' requirements. Transactional leadership comprises *contingent reward* and *management-by-exception* (Bass, 1985).

In contrast, *transformational* leaders motivate followers to achieve performance beyond expectations by transforming followers' attitudes, beliefs, and values as opposed to simply gaining compliance (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1999). Bass (1985) identified a number of sub-dimensions of transformational leadership including

*charisma* (which was later renamed *idealized influence*), *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation* and *individualized consideration*.

Despite the popularity of transformational leadership theory, concerns have been raised about the way in which the sub-dimensions of the model have been defined (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). The following paragraphs will outline these subdivisions.

*Transformational* leaders are proactive, raise follower awareness for transcendent collective interests, and help followers to achieve higher standards. Transformational leadership is theorized to comprise the following five first-order factors (Bass 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). *Idealized influence (attributed)* is the first sub-dimension of the *transformational* style and refers to the socialized charisma of the leader, when the leader is viewed as being confident, powerful, and if the leader is considered to be focusing on higher-order values and ideals. Leaders express their beliefs explicitly; they emphasize trust and take stands in crisis or difficult situations; they also present their most important values; and emphasize the importance of purpose, commitment, and the ethical consequences of decisions. Such leaders are admired as role models; they generate *pride*, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around a shared purpose (Antonakis et al., 2003) and *idealized influence (behaviour)* refers to charismatic *actions* of the leader that are centred on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission; determined with a sense of purpose and having a positive role model who demonstrates out of the ordinary capability. Leaders like this are often described as charismatic with a high degree of morality, trust and integrity. (ibid)

Secondly, *inspirational motivation* refers to the means by which leaders energize the followers by being optimistic about the future and by focusing on ambitious goals, projecting an idealized vision, and communicating to followers that the vision is achievable (Antonakis et al., 2003). Leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically and with *enthusiasm*, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done. Willing to exert extra effort and good at convincing followers of their abilities, this type of leader has the ability to motivate people to achieve superior performance. They create a readiness for change and encourage a broad range of interests (Antonakis et al., 2003).

*Intellectual stimulation* is another important dimension that takes into account leaders' actions that stimulate followers' sense of logic and rational analysis and challenge followers' way of thinking creatively and finding solutions to difficult problems. *Transformational* leaders question old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs; stimulate in others new perspectives and ways of doing things, and encourage the expression of ideas and reasons (Antonakis et al., 2003). *Intellectual stimulation* allows the leader to encourage others to think through issues and problems for themselves so that they develop their own abilities.

The dimension that refers to leaders' behaviour that contributes to follower *satisfaction* by advising, supporting, and paying attention to the individual needs of followers, and thus allowing them to develop and self-actualize is known as *individual consideration* (Antonakis et al., 2003). Leaders deal with others as individuals, consider their individual needs, abilities and aspirations, listen

attentively, advise, and coach. They are caring and empathetic and provide challenges and opportunities for others. This type of leader is an active listener and strong communicator.

*Transactional leadership* is an exchange process based on the fulfilment of contractual obligations and is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes (Antonakis et al., 2003). Transactional leadership is theorized to comprise the following two first-order factors to which a third one has been added later (Bass, 1985). *Contingent reward* leadership (i.e., constructive transactions) (Antonakis et al., 2003) takes into account the leader's behaviours focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations (Bass, 1985). Leaders engage in a constructive path-goal transaction of reward for performance. They clarify expectations, exchange promises and resources, arrange mutually satisfactory agreements, negotiate for resources, exchange assistance for effort, and provide commendations for successful follower performance. This is the classic transactional style. The leader sets clear goals and rewards accomplishment through a variety of ways. This means that their employees perform up to the expected levels, but to get people to 'go that extra mile' – a more transformational style is needed (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Finally, *management-by-exception active* (i.e., active corrective transactions) refers to the active vigilance of a leader whose goal is to ensure that standards are met; and *management-by-exception passive* (i.e., passive corrective

transactions) leaders only intervene after non-compliance has occurred or when mistakes have already happened (Antonakis et al., 2003).

*Laissez Faire Leadership* is a non-leadership component (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Leaders avoid accepting their responsibilities, are absent when needed, fail to follow up requests for assistance, and resist expressing their views on important issues. This manager is not really a leader as they tend to withdraw from the leadership role and offer little in terms of direction or support. They avoid making decisions, are disorganized and let others do as they please (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transformational and transactional leadership styles have been studied before in relationship with emotion, especially with emotional intelligence (Brown et al., 2005; Dulewicz, 2003, 2005; Kerr et al., 2006; Kupers, 2006; Prati et al., 2003; Rosete et al., 2005) and findings from these studies show that transformational leaders tend to be more emotional intelligent.

Antonakis et al. (2003) argue that the MLQ 5X (Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire 5X form) assessing the “full range” model goes from the highly avoidant to the highly inspirational and idealized leadership. Regardless of the theoretical or measurement shortcomings, their results indicate that the current version of the MLQ 5X is, with its acknowledged limitation, a solid and reliable instrument that can adequately measure the nine components comprising the full-range theory of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Although the MLQ 5X like any leadership survey instrument, will never account for all possible leadership dimensions, it represents a foundation from which to conduct further

research and to expand our understanding of the “new models of leadership”. For these considerations, the proposed study focuses on principal leadership style which will be assessed using the MLQ 5X used by permission. More details about the use of the instrument and validity issues will be presented in the *Methodology* Chapter.

The conceptual framework informs the exploration of transformational and transactional leadership practices in schools from Timisoara, Romania and is designed to be complemented by an investigation of school staff’s views on leadership practices using qualitative, in-depth interviews.

These interviews are not theory driven and do not aim to test a certain leadership theory. Rather, they aim to test the relevance of the theoretical model proposed without prompting participants about the specific characteristics of the transformational or transactional leaders. The interviews explore participants’ understandings of leadership through open-ended questions such as “*What are, in your view, the main roles and responsibilities of a Headteacher?*”, or “*What are the qualities of an ideal school leader?*” These questions are meant to explore what tasks and responsibilities are associated with leadership position, what it means for participants to be a successful leader, and what are the leadership practices and styles that their current Headteacher uses in every day situations. A detailed description of the aim and structure of these interviews will be presented in the following chapter.

### **A framework for studying emotions in schools**

The conceptual model proposed for this study is two dimensional. The first dimension takes into consideration emotions *polarity*, the fact that emotions are generally recognized in the literature as divided into positive and negative emotions (Plutchik, 1980; Parrot, 2001, Ekman, 1972; Frijda, 1986; Izard, 2007).

One of the claims strongly to be explored through this study is that emotions are not only individual and intimate realities, but they are profoundly social as some influential social scientists argue (Hochschild, 1983; Kemper, 1987; Fineman, 1993, 2000; Briner & Kiefer, 2005). Moreover, their cultural nature and constitution is not to be ignored (Kitayama & Markus, 1994; Manstead & Fischer, 2002). Any attempt to investigate emotions at work should thus take into consideration not only the subjective dimension of personal experiences, but also the underlying social processes that trigger, model and maintain certain emotions. Moreover, these social processes existing in organisations allow for some patterns to occur in the emotional dimension of the organisational lives.

A second dimension of the theoretical framework proposed for the study of collective emotions, accounts for several *social processes* that intervene in various social situations. Some of these processes are not specific to emotions: like for instance *social comparison* processes (Festinger, 1954) presented in the theoretical literature in the previous chapter; or *attribution processes* (Weiner, 1986) according to which we attribute internal and external causes to all events, but we tend to attribute internal causes to the positive events and external causes

to the negative events. Directly linked with the attribution theory are the *social appraisal* and *social perception* theories suggesting that affective information and moods significantly influence social and evaluative judgement (Niedenthal & Showers, 1991), person perception (Forgas, 1991), analytic reasoning (Schwarz & Bless, 1991), persuasion (Petty et al., 1991). Other processes that were discussed in the literature review on emotions at work are *emotional labour* (Hochschild, 1983) which is a form of *emotional regulation* (Dunn & Brown, 1991; Gross, 2002); *emotional contagion* and *emotional congruence*. Research shows that the emergence of positive affective similarity in groups is linked to within-group relationship quality and these two are reciprocally interrelated in the form of a self-reinforcing spiral, which is driven by mechanisms of affective sharing and affective similarity-attraction (Walter & Bruch, 2008).

The underlying idea of this thesis is that certain patterns or configurations of experiences and self-displays and others' displays of emotions can be identified due to social phenomena such as mood or *emotion contagion* and *congruence*, concepts that have been explored in more detail in the *Literature review* chapter.

Finally, a list of 20 negative and positive emotions is proposed for investigation.

This list is an adaptation of the well-established and tested PANAS (The Positive Affect Negative Affect Schedule) developed by Watson & Clark (1994). This list of emotions used in this study was developed by taking in consideration some of the specifics of the Romanian language, such that the decision on the final list of emotions is based on the language knowledge of the



researcher and on evidence from research on lexical structure of emotions in neo-Latin languages (Galati et al., 2008) that suggest some representative samples of adjectival emotional terms in Romanian, among other languages such as Italian, French, Spanish, Catalan, and Portuguese. The final list proposes seven positive emotions (*joy, enthusiasm, satisfaction, hope, compassion, surprise, pride*) and 13 negative emotions (*boredom, disgust, sadness, regret, fear, anger, irritation, hatred, upset, envy, shame, embarrassment, guilt*). Negative affect terminology is commonly richer than the positive in most languages because negative emotions are more differentiated than positive emotions (Ben-Ze'ev, 2001). This applies, for instance, to emotion words in English, despite the fact that English language generally contains more words with positive connotations than negative connotations (Ben-Ze'ev, 2001). The list below includes definitions of these emotions according to the Oxford English Dictionary (2010). The meanings extracted from the Oxford English Dictionary are referring to feelings, emotions or internal states even where these were not the principal meanings given by the Dictionary.

Definitions of emotions according to the Oxford English Dictionary (2010)

*Joy*- A vivid emotion of pleasure arising from a sense of well-being or satisfaction; the feeling or state of being highly pleased or delighted; exultation of spirit; gladness, delight.

*Enthusiasm* - The principal current sense: Rapturous intensity of feeling in favour of a person, principle, cause, etc.; passionate eagerness in any pursuit, proceeding from an intense conviction of the worthiness of the object

*Satisfaction* (with reference to desires or feelings) - The action of gratifying (an appetite or desire) to the full, or of contenting (a person) by the complete fulfilment of a desire or supply of a want; the fact of having been gratified to the full or of having one's desire fulfilled

*Hope* - Expectation of something desired; desire combined with expectation.

*Compassion* - Suffering together with another, participation in suffering; fellow-feeling, sympathy

*Surprise* - The feeling or mental state, akin to astonishment and wonder, caused by an unexpected occurrence or circumstance

*Pride* – positive sense: The feeling of satisfaction, pleasure, or elation derived from some action, ability, possession, etc., which one believes does one credit. Negative sense: A high, esp. an excessively high, opinion of one's own worth or importance which gives rise to a feeling or attitude of superiority over others; inordinate self-esteem

*Boredom* - The state of being bored; tedium, ennui

*Disgust* - Strong repugnance, aversion, or repulsion excited by that which is loathsome or offensive, as a foul smell, disagreeable person or action, disappointed ambition, etc.; profound instinctive dislike or dissatisfaction.

*Sadness* - Sorrow, mournfulness

*Regret* - Sorrow, distress, or disappointment due to some external circumstance or event

*Fear* - The emotion of pain or uneasiness caused by the sense of impending danger, or by the prospect of some possible evil; an instance of the emotion; a particular apprehension of some future evil.

*Anger*- The active feeling provoked against the agent; passion, rage; wrath, ire, hot displeasure

*Irritation* - Excitement of anger or impatience; exasperation, provocation, vexation, annoyance

*Hatred* - The condition or state of relations in which one person hates another; the emotion or feeling of hate; active dislike, detestation; enmity, ill-will, malevolence.

*Upset* - To throw into mental disorder or discomposure; to trouble or distress

*Envy* - Malignant or hostile feeling; ill-will, malice, enmity

*Shame* - The painful emotion arising from the consciousness of something dishonouring, ridiculous, or indecorous in one's own conduct or circumstances (or in those of others whose honour or disgrace one regards as one's own), or of being in a situation which offends one's sense of modesty or decency.

*Embarrassment* - Perplexity, sense of difficulty or hesitation with regard to judgement or action; constrained feeling or manner arising from bashfulness or timidity

*Guilt* - The state (meriting condemnation and reproach of conscience) of having wilfully committed crime or heinous moral offence; criminality, great culpability

This list of emotions is discussed with participants in the qualitative interviews with the purpose of exploring the resonance that these emotions have in participants' and the situations that typically trigger these emotions.

### **School outcomes – a framework**

As the literature suggests, perceptions that employees have on leadership practices and organisational performance as a whole are essential to understanding these complex realities. Therefore, in addition to exploring, assessing and measuring leadership styles and certain emotional experiences and displays, several indicators reflecting some subjective, but also some more objective, aspects of school performance are also measured in order to provide a more complete picture of the realities of the schools involved in the study. The Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire 5X-form includes items assessing perceived leadership outcomes such as *effectiveness*, *extra-effort* and *satisfaction*. *Perceived school success* is another subjective outcome that will be assessed alongside other two outcomes considered more objective and more directly linked to academic outcomes. These are the percentages of student graduates of 8<sup>th</sup> form and the percentage of students progressing to higher levels of education (academic upper secondary and technical or vocational education leading to Baccalaureate). The latter two school outcomes assessed are used as

significant indicators of school effectiveness within the framework used by the Romanian Ministry of Education for current institutional evaluations.

## **Summary**

On one hand, the conceptual framework proposed for this study draws extensively on theories and concepts that, although contested, are well established theories tested in a variety of cultures and settings. This implies that one methodological task of the thesis would be to test the extent to which these models can be replicated in the Romanian school context.

On the other hand, the framework accounts for recommendations made by researchers and theorists of social phenomena that leadership and emotion theory needs to be contextualized, and that it is important, therefore, to explore participants' views and understandings of such phenomena and to compare and contrast these with the theoretical models proposed and tested in other contexts or cultures. Consequently, these assumptions affect the methodological approach which is based on a mixed method paradigm that employs both quantitative and qualitative methods and combines different types and sets of data. The following chapter introduces the methodological paradigm on which the study is based and discusses issues related to instrumentation, procedure, data collection and analysis processes, as well as aspects concerned with validity and triangulation.

## 4. Methodology

The focus of this chapter is to describe and elaborate on the underlying research paradigms and approaches of this study; to explain why certain methods were employed and to present in detail the research design, sample, instruments and the procedures used in data collection.

### Purpose and research questions

The main *purpose* of the study is to describe school leadership styles, positive and negative emotions experienced and displayed by school staff at work, and some aspects of school development and performance by:

- Explore school staff's understandings of leadership, emotions and school development and comparing these meanings against insights and evidence from the theoretical and empirical literature;
- Examining staff views on the relationship between two organisational dimensions - leadership and emotions - , and their link into school outcomes;
- Developing a theoretical model for exploring organisational emotions and leadership in schools.

The overarching research question of the study is: *What is the nature of the relationships between leadership styles, emotions and organisational outcomes in 1-8<sup>th</sup> form schools from Timisoara, Romania?* This main research question can be divided into several sub-questions:

*Research question 1: What is (are) the dominant leadership style(s) practiced in schools from Timisoara, Romania?*

*Research question 2: What configurations of emotional experiences and displays can be identified overall in the studied schools as well as at individual school level?*

*Research question 3: Are positive emotions 'better', meaning is there a significant and positive connection between positive emotions and better organisational outcomes?*

*Research question 4: How do different leadership styles link into different organisational emotions?*

*Research question 5: Is there any significant relationship between certain leadership styles, certain organisational emotions and school development and performance?*

In order to answer these research questions, certain research paradigms and approaches were selected to define the methodological framework of this project. These will be discussed next.

## **Research paradigms**

A paradigm is a description of the sets of socially accepted assumptions that tend to appear in 'normal science' (Kuhn, 1970). After the publication of Kuhn's landmark book from 1970, paradigms gained great popularity due to their usefulness for understanding knowledge in social research, but their meanings and uses became very diverse and also contested. Morgan (2008) suggests that paradigms nowadays could be referred to as either worldviews, epistemologies or shared beliefs among academics from a specialist area, or as simple as models.

Cohen et al. (2007) identify four other main aspects that a paradigm could refer to: the reality or ontology, the epistemology, the human nature, and the methodology, and point out that there are two basic conceptions in the social sciences that apply to these four aspects: the objectivist and the subjectivist paradigms (Opie, 2004; Pring, 2000). Perhaps the most relevant topic for research and science of the four dimensions is epistemology or the theory of

knowledge and also the positivist versus anti-positivist debate regarding the bases of knowledge and how we can acquire it (Cohen et al., 2007). This debate is relevant for any piece of research as it informs and guides the methodological decisions related to data collection and data analysis methods. This process is not as easy as it may seem as the positivist /anti-positivist dualism is another contested area.

A common view among academics who consider viable the positivist versus anti-positivist dualism is Opie's position (2004) in which he points out that "actual research normally lies somewhere along the continuum between these two extremes" (ibid, p.8), but who also suggests that researchers may be 'classed' as positivists or subjectivists (interpretivists) and are more inclined to choose either quantitative or qualitative methods of research based on their views of knowledge as either "hard, real, capable of being transmitted in a tangible form," or as "softer, subjective, based on experience and insight and essentially personal matters" (Opie 2004, p 13).

Gorard (2004), however, thinks that the quantitative / qualitative divide is an artificial, "false dualism", arguing that:

The most unhelpful of the supposed paradigms in social science are the methodological ones of 'quantitative' and 'qualitative' approaches (ibid., p.150),

because there is not such a thing as purely numeric or purely textual data as

The patterns in qualitative analysis are, by definition, numeric, and the things that are traditionally numbered are qualities (ibid, p150).

In support of Gorard's view, more and stronger voices support mixed methodology (MM) as part of a more recent 'pragmatic paradigm' trend in the social sciences (Morgan, 2008) or what Teddlie and Tashakkori called 'the third methodological movement (2009.)'. This paradigm can arguably transcend the positivism / interpretivist divide and which argues that research claims are stronger when based on a variety of methods (National Research Council, 2002).

This study is based on a mixed method paradigm which by definition combines elements of both quantitative and qualitative orientations and require creativity and flexibility in their construction (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The benefits of this approach are significant for research and they include: addressing both confirmatory and exploratory questions simultaneously, providing opportunity for a greater assortment of divergent views and more importantly, providing stronger inferences (ibid, 2009, pp.33-37). More about the type of MM design will be discussed later on in this chapter.

Another aspect to take into consideration when specifying the type of research paradigm that is carried out is the study focus. Thus, studies are sometimes classified in *theoretical* and *applied* (Gray 2009) or, in Robson's view (2002), in *policy* research as opposed to *theoretical* research. Because this study has a practical focus on leadership, school conditions, and their potential implications for school development and performance, and for leadership training, the project could be classed as *applied*. Nevertheless, there are aspects of the study that are meant to clarify or validate theories, such as transformational-transactional leadership, within a Romanian context and others that attempt to build a



theoretical frame for studying emotions in school organisations and for expanding knowledge of organisational processes (Gray, 2004). Therefore, one could argue that this piece of research is to some extent basic or *theoretical*.

The type of reasoning this study builds on is mainly *inductive* because theories are tested in a certain context and the outcome is an accumulation of facts and data which are then analysed in order to determine any possible relationships between the variables (Gray 2004). The following paragraphs will discuss the approaches that the study followed by looking at survey, case study and mixed methods approaches. Nevertheless, the nature of MM studies allow for deductive reasoning as well and this study will employ deduction in identifying patterns and clusters in the existing data which will be then explored, described and discussed theoretically.

## **Research approaches**

This study aims to reveal critical relationships between the emotional aspect of organisational life, leadership practices and school outcomes through a mixed approach combining quantitative methods, such as survey questionnaires, and case studies, based mainly on interview data.

### **Surveys**

Surveys are ones of the most common quantitative approaches in social sciences and they aim to describe and interpret *what it is* (Cohen, 2000), therefore their nature is rather descriptive.

Surveys are designed to characterize the general response of some sample of people in order to capture the likely sentiment of the larger population from which they were drawn (Dunn, 2009, p.152).

The reason why survey is chosen as the main approach for this study is because there is very little published evidence about school leadership in Romania and almost no evidence about school emotions. A general overview of schools in Romania was thought to be important and could be provided by including a manageable, yet significant sample of schools of a certain organisational type for a specific city area in Romania.

Moreover, the survey was employed using an explanatory correlational design that has the purpose of establishing the type of associations between specific variables (Bernard, 2006; Neuman, 2005). In this case, the critical relationships to describe were between leadership styles, emotions and some aspects of organisational development and performance. The main reason for choosing an explanatory correlational design can be found in Dunn's argument that:

When an association between variables is established, knowledge of one variable can be predicted from what is known about the other (2009, p.118)

On the other side, the recognized drawback of the correlational studies is that it does not indicate causation for which reason the discussion of this research project results will not imply that there is a causal relationship, but the usefulness of correlational design still remains in the prediction potential regarding the variables examined (Dunn 2009).

## **Case studies**

To address the main drawback of correlational studies, and also of the surveys, which often only manage to ‘scratch the surface’, this study also included two case study schools. Opie (2004) states that case studies “can be viewed as an in-depth study of interactions of a single instance in an enclosed system” (ibid, p 74).

Gerring (2007) suggests that:

Case studies may employ a great variety of techniques – both quantitative and qualitative – for the gathering and analysis of evidence (ibid, p. 33)

Because of its lack of representativeness, case study research is weaker in terms of external validity, but, on the other hand, its strength is the internal validity as case studies have a deep scope of propositions, and by depth one could mean detail and richness, while cross study research strives for breath, rather than depth (Gerring, 2007).

In this research, the survey data aim to provide information about patterns, dominant characteristics existing at city level in all schools of a certain type at one moment in time (Dunn, 2009). The case study research and especially the interview data, through open-ended questions, seek to provide valuable insights into participants’ views, perceptions and meanings that go beyond the surface, thus gaining a more detailed and deeper understanding of the phenomena investigated (Bernard, 2006; Neumann, 2005).

The information obtained through semi-structured interviews is sought to clarify and enrich (Neumann, 2005) the evidence found in the survey by comparing participants' meanings for the concepts researched with the theories on which the study is based. In addition, the interview data will hopefully clarify and complete the information obtained from the survey questionnaires.

Thus, while the aims of the study were to explore the topic of interest with the expected result of providing a generalizable view of the *status quo* for the studied population, the interviews were designed to illustrate, clarify and contribute to a deeper and richer understanding (Opie, 2004) of this *status quo* in a very specific organisational context and by comparing the results obtained in two schools from both survey and interview data.

## **Research design**

This study uses a mixed methodological approach by combining a correlational design through a survey questionnaire and case study based where quantitative data collected in the survey is triangulated with interview data.

One of the reasons researchers use mixed methods design is for the purpose of triangulation which is meant to contribute to the study's quality and authenticity (Bush 2007) and to strengthen research validity. There are other purposes for using mixed methodology such as achieving complementarity, which means to "enrich understanding of the multi-faceted, complex nature of the social world" (Alexander et al., 2008. p.128).

Another purpose in the use of mixed methodology is the development of more accurate studies or measures (Alexander et al., 2008) and the initiation of new studies from previous ones or for expanding current studies into broader or deeper explorations of the same issues (Green et al., 1989). The purpose of using mixed methods in this study was mainly to strengthen its validity and to achieve complementarity in understanding the researched phenomena.

Research design depends primarily on the topic to be investigated. Although the educational literature addresses emotions, the emphasis is usually either on emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) or the emotional skills of the staff, which can lead to an “emotionally literate school” (Steiner, 1997) and arguably to more effective schools (Weare, 2004). Another area where emotions have been explored is in the emotional dimension of leadership and the experiences of school leaders (Beatty, 2000, 2004; Crawford, 2007, 2009; Harris, 2007, 2006). Very few studies in educational literature (Sackney, 2000; Harris, 2004, Hargreaves, 2004, Slater 2005) tackle the emotional dimensions of school life from an organisational perspective by looking at the implications of emotions for leadership or to school development and performance. Some of these studies focus on schools facing highly challenging circumstances (Harris, 2006), but most employ a qualitative methodology, providing valuable insights into the emotional life of schools, but allow for little generalization.

School leadership is recognized as a key factor in school development and performance and obtaining better student outcomes (Leithwood et al., 2007).

One of the problems that this study addresses is the gap in the existing

leadership and school effectiveness literature on what are the internal organisational conditions that might have a role in mediating the leadership effects on school development and performance (ibid). In their review of transformational leadership and school effectiveness, Leithwood et al. (ibid) suggest, for instance, that school culture is a key contributor to students' academic achievement, but also point out the differences in researchers' understandings and operationalisations of school culture. The same authors support the usefulness of quantitative studies in school effectiveness research, but also identify many of its limitations. Relatively few studies have examined the relationship between existing organisational emotions by looking at experiences, self-display and others' displays of emotions in relation to leadership and school outcomes.

There are many types of MM designs based on the chronology of methods used and the predominance of either quantitative or qualitative orientations (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009): parallel mixed designs (mixing of methods occurs in a parallel manner); sequential mixed designs in which mixing occurs across chronological phases and procedures emerge from a previous strand; conversion mixed designs (are parallel designs in which one type of data is transformed and analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively); multilevel designs in which mixing occurs across multiple levels of analysis and quantitative and qualitative data from different levels are integrated to answer the same questions; and fully integrated mixed designs in which mixing occurs in an interactive manner at all stages of the study and one approach affects how the other approach is formulated and vice versa (ibid, p. 151).

This study is based on a *multilevel mixed design* in which quantitative data are aggregated from all school to describe an overview of the city which is the unit of analysis. At a different level, the units are the individual schools that are described using quantitative data from the survey questionnaires. Finally, two selected case study schools are presented in more depth and qualitative data are collected and mixed with the results from the survey to describe these schools.

## **Research methods**

There are two types of methods employed: questionnaires that are part of the survey and semi-structured interviews used in the case studies. Questionnaires are widely used and their usefulness is mainly due to the fact that they can collect a vast amount of structured often numerical information, can be administered without the presence of the researcher, and are fairly straightforward to analyse (Wilson & McLean, 1994). Some of questionnaire downsides are their possible lack of sophistication and depth, limited scope of the data gathered and the inflexibility of response (Cohen et al., 2000).

With the exception of the demographical data for which the questionnaires had some dichotomous and multiple choice questions, all the other questions were designed as 5 point Likert rating scales. More details about the questionnaire design will follow later in this chapter. Two of the questionnaires used in the final stage of the research were piloted on a small sample, and the third questionnaire was designed as a result and necessity after the pilot was finalized.

In contrast with questionnaires in which data is seen somehow external to humans, the knowledge provided through interviews has an inter-subjective

nature, because data come as a result of human interaction and conversation (Kvale, 1996). The main purpose of using interviews in this study was to explore the contextualized understandings for the main themes under study. Some of the questions were open-ended, others were prompts based on the survey questionnaire. For example, at the end of the interviews the list of emotions used in the survey questionnaire was used to prompt interviewees' comments. Participants had the flexibility of choosing which emotions to comment on, to define, explain and give examples of their own experiences. This technique is known as 'free association' (Holloway et al., 2008) in which participants are encouraged to speak about the first thing that comes to mind when they are exposed to a specific stimulus. The interviews were semi-structured (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992) and their main aim was to elicit definitions or understandings, description and interpretations (Cohen et al., 2000) which could be then compared and analysed against survey findings. More information about interviews' design and schedules will be presented later in this chapter.

## **Participants**

### **Population**

A population can be defined as including all people or items with the characteristic one wishes to understand. For this study, the target population for the study consists of 25 schools which is the total number of 1-8<sup>th</sup> grade schools from Timisoara, Romania. This type of school was chosen for practical reasons. There are several types of school organisations in the Romanian educational system. These include:



- primary schools which are very small organisations and comprise grades from 1 to 4 and they can be found only in rural areas;
- 1-8<sup>th</sup> grade schools called *Scoli cu clasele I-VIII* that include *primary school* and *gymnasium* and these are also known as *scoli de cartier* (neighbourhood schools);
- academic High-Schools Colleges which are either for 9<sup>th</sup>-12<sup>th</sup> grade and they have an academic, vocational and technical orientation, or they are larger and include all grades from 1 to 12. The latter schools types are usually academic colleges and are generally considered as the better schools in terms of the quality of educational provision.

Usually, money and time do not allow for the whole population to be included in a study (Cohen et al., 2000) and so researchers use subsets of data or samples to represent their population. For this particular study the defined population – all 1-8<sup>th</sup> form schools – was considered manageable enough to represent the study sample as well. This is an ideal situation because issues such as sample size and representativeness are no longer a difficulty to address by the researcher (Cohen et al., 2000).

The total number of schools of this type is, as mentioned before 25 and they were all invited to take part in the study. Furthermore, according to headteachers' information provided in a telephone conversation with the researcher prior to the data collection stage, 800 members of teaching and non-teaching staff work in these schools. Thus 800 questionnaires were sent overall to all schools and the Headteacher was asked to distribute and collect the

questionnaire. More about the survey and case study samples will be detailed below.

### **Sample**

As Gorard (2001) suggests:

Sampling is a useful short cut, leading to results that can be almost as accurate as those for a full census of the population being studied but for a fraction of the cost” (ibid, p.10).

and that its purpose is “to use a relatively small number of cases to find out about a much larger number” (ibid, p.10)

*Survey sample.* The survey sample coincides with the target population of the study and therefore consists of 25 schools which were invited to take part in the survey phase of the study. Thus, approximately 25 Headteachers, and 810 members of staff were sent a package of three questionnaires including the MLQ 5X validated questionnaire along with a general questionnaire gathering data about the emotion culture and climate in the school and demographic data. The non-probabilistic sample used for this study is known in the literature as a “complete” or a “exhaustive” sample (Dunn, 2009) and it is “usually used when a researcher considers the population to be small enough to be completely measured” (Dunn, 2009, p.153).

The researcher considered that the total sample of school staff that could be included in the study is manageable enough for the resources available. Thus, prior to sending the questionnaires, the researcher had a telephone conversation

with all the Headteachers in which she explained what the study involved and asked Heads what was the number of employed staff including teaching and non-teaching staff. Based on Headteachers' reports a total of 810 teaching and non-teaching staff members were to take part in the survey study. After the telephone conversation, all Headteachers agreed to take part in the survey phase of the study. Despite the Headteachers' initial agreement to take part in the study, only 18 of the 25 Heads actually distributed and collected the completed questionnaires for their schools, so that only 408 out of the 800 initially distributed questionnaires returned from these 18 schools which represents 51% rate of return (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1** Survey response rates

<i>Response rate</i>	<i>Targeted schools</i>	<i>Participant schools</i>	<i>Total number of staff targeted</i>	<i>Total number of participants</i>
Total (%)	25	18 (69%)	800	408 (51%)

The characteristics of the sample taking part in the study are presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2** Survey sample characteristics

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Romania</i>
<b>Female</b>	89%
<b>Male</b>	11%
<b>Leadership position</b>	No leadership role: 66% Other: 18% Heads of department; 10% Deputy Heads: 1% Headteachers: 5 %
<b>Teaching experience</b>	0-2 years: 17% 2-10 years: 40 %, Over 10 years: 43%
<b>Headteacher experience</b>	Less than 1 year: 7 %, 1-6 years, 47% Over 6 years: 46%

From a total of 25 schools with 1-8 grades from Timisoara, Romania, 18 schools had the permission of the Headteacher to take part in the study. The sample consists of 408 participants including Headteachers, deputy Heads, teachers and non-teaching members of staff from which 89 % are females and 11 % are males.

*Case study sample.* There are various techniques that can be chosen for case selection. Some techniques focus on the typical (on-lier), others on the extremes or deviants (outliers) (Gerring, 2007). Permission and access were the first criteria in the selection of case studies. Thus, in the survey questionnaires, the Headteachers were asked if they agreed to take part in a following stage of the research in which several schools were to be selected for in depth interviews with some members of staff. The results of the survey showed that eight out of the 18 Headteachers agreed to take part in the interview phase. From these eight schools, two schools were selected to take part in the next phase based on a “most-similar” selection technique of case selection (Gerring, 2007). According to this technique, matching schools were selected according to their similarity in location and catchment area.

There are two reasons for using this selection criterion in choosing the two schools: the first is informed by the fact that schools’ success is commonly associated with the number of pupils enrolled, in a context in which parents can enrol their children wherever they wish and schools compete against each other especially based on the *school-tailored curriculum* which encourages a value-based differentiation between schools (National Council for Curriculum, 2009).

So, the two schools selected compete for the same students but they might differ in the quality of the educational provision. This was considered as an important criterion in the context of looking at leadership and emotion in relation to school results.

The second reason for choosing these similar schools is the researcher's lack of familiarity with the Headteachers and with the school. As Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) suggest, having established friendly relationships might limit the possibilities of data collection and also researcher's observations and critical attitude. The fact that the researcher has not met the Headteachers previously, and did not work with the two schools before, was considered to be an advantage in avoiding personal biases to interfere in the collection, analysis and interpretation of the data.

In order to avoid sampling biases to intervene in the selection of participants (Heckman, 1979), the intention of the researcher was to randomly select interviewees if they agreed to take part in the study. In reality, the research needed to adjust to the realities of schools' day to day life which did not allow for a strict random selection of the interviewees and therefore help from the Head was required and asked in this selection. The two schools selected to take part in the interview phase had, nevertheless, very different approaches in the way they facilitated the data collection process. The aim of the researcher was to identify "the well-informed informants" (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995) which might be teachers with more years of experience and also members of staff holding some leadership roles within the school. Still, the actual means of

selecting the participants were different in the two schools. Thus, while in one school the Headteacher invited the researcher into the teachers' room and gave permission to interview any member of staff who was willing, in the other school the Headteacher appointed the deputy Head to introduce me to a few people who she thought might be helpful for the study. Although the second approach made the interviewing process easier in practical terms, it might also have implications for the study's validity (Heckman, 1979).

The sampling process for the interviews was also different in the two selected schools. In the school where the Headteacher gave the researcher the freedom to interview whoever wished to take part, the interviewing process was significantly more difficult because I was not introduced to members of staff because they were either in class or not at work, so I had to approach them myself without knowing any of them. Although this approach could be considered more beneficial for the study in terms of validity, it had other negative effects on the interviews because of the time constrictions in the sense that I was in the disadvantageous position of negotiating the time for the interview which was not something that the participants were very willing to share for the study. This was not as problematic in the other school where the deputy Head used her formal authority which made the involvement of participants much easier.

The interview samples in the two schools are similar in the sense that they included the school Headteachers, at least one Head of department and at least one member of the non-teaching staff (Table 4.3). A total of seven interviews

were conducted for each school and a short description of the participant characteristics will be presented in the following paragraphs. Both schools selected for the case studies are located within a very short distance from each other and are therefore competing for the students living in the area. These, like all the schools in the study, are schools that include primary education (1-4<sup>th</sup> form) and *Gymnasium* (5-8<sup>th</sup> form). Pupils have ages between 6-14/15.

**Table 4.3** School characteristics

<i>Characteristics / School / Method</i>		<i>School 1</i>		<i>School 2</i>	
		Survey (N=24), %	Interviews N=7	Survey (N=46), %	Interviews N=7
Teaching staff		87.5	5	95.7	5
Non teaching			2 (speech therapist, administrator)		2 (psychologist, nurse)
Gender	Female	75	7	93.5	7
	Male	20		4.3	
Teaching experience	< 5 years	37.5		17.4	
	5-10 years	25		30.4	
	> 10 years	30		52.2	
Headship experience		Female, 3 years		Female, 17 years	
Leadership role	None	62	3	52	4
	Head of department	8.3	1	8.7	1
	Other	16.7	3 (Head, deputy Head, administrative)	26.1	2 (Head, other)
Number of pupils		N=500-800		N=Over 1000	
Number of teachers		N=30-50		N=Over 80	

## Data collection and instrumentation

### Preparation and access

Although it was not compulsory to have written consent given by the School Inspectorate, I was advised by colleagues from Romania that I should inform the School Inspectorate and obtain written consent in order to have access to

schools. As a consequence, the District General Inspector was informed and consented in writing to access schools from Timisoara. A copy of the letter sent to the School Inspectorate can be found in Appendix 4.1. Schools were also sent an invitation letter containing some details of what is required of them in order to take part in the study. A sample of this letter can also be found in Appendix 4.2. In a following telephone conversation with the school Headteachers we negotiated access and other practical details for the data collection. The research proposal was examined and approved by the Warwick Institute of Education departmental ethics committee.

Table 4.4. describes the data collection process and the timeline for each research phase.

**Table 4.4.** Data collection process

<i>Phase</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Data collection</i>	<i>Data collected</i>	<i>Timeline</i>
Phase 1 Pilot	1 school	1. Survey distribution 2. 10 interviews	30 questionnaires collected 10 audio-recordings School brochures and fliers	03/2006
Phase 2 Survey	18schools	3. Survey distribution	408 questionnaires	05-06/2007
Phase 3 Case studies	2 schools	4. 14 interviews (seven in each school)	14 audio recorded interviews Field notes	11/2007

### **Confidentiality**

Confidentiality was kept by not asking the participants to disclose their names and by using only identification codes for both participants and schools. Thus, the numbers of the schools used as identification codes does not represent the actual name of the schools. For schools with grades from 1-8 the name of the



schools includes the number of the school (i.e. Scoala cu clasele I-VIII nr. 1 Timisoara meaning School with grades 1-8 number 1 from Timisoara). The informed consent was obtained by providing the participants with an information sheet that contained details about what taking part involves and the possibility to withdraw from the study at any point (Dunn, 2009). No written consent was considered necessary as the study did not involve minors or particularly sensitive issues. The research proposal was submitted for approval to the Departmental Ethics Committee from Warwick Institute of Education. The written consent from the School Inspectorate was useful for the school Headteachers who kept a copy for the school records (Dunn, 2009).

The interviews were audio-recorded with the participants' permission and nobody else except the researcher has or will have access to these recordings. Although no identification details were required in the interviews, some biographical details are mentioned in the conversations with the participants which might make them identifiable. The recordings are stored in password protected files (Seale, 2004).

A mixed methodological approach was used to collect data. Both schools took part in the general survey (N1=24, N2=46) in which teaching and non-teaching members of staff completed the questionnaires and 7 members of staff from each school took part in the interviews (N1=7, N2=7). The interview samples in the two schools are similar in the sense that included the school Heads, at least one Head of department and at least 2 members of the non-teaching staff.

**Table 4.5** Summary of the mixed research methods

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Theory / Context</i>	<i>Measure (self-reported)</i>	<i>Variables in analysis</i>
Demographics	Gender, no of pupils, no of staff, teaching/non-teaching, leadership position, experience in school, Headship experience, subject		
Leadership	Transformational- Transactional (Bass & Avolio, 2000)	MLQ 5X form, rater and self-rater form (5-p. Likert) Interviews	Leadership factors: Transformational (5) Transactional (3) Laissez-faire
Emotion Experiences	General theory emotion & moods	Adapted PANAS: 20 labels of negative and positive E (5-p. Likert)	Emotion composites (FA): (+) E, D, O
Self-displays	Emotion regulation/labour	Interviews	(-) Self-display
Others displays	Emotion contagion Language & Emotion vocabulary		(-) Other's display (-) Experience self-oriented (-) Experience other-oriented E, D, O <i>compassion</i>
Outcomes	School effectiveness research	MLQ 5X & General Q (5-p. Likert) Interviews Demographic data	Subjective: leadership outcomes, <i>satisfaction</i> with school Objective: % graduates, enrolment in higher levels

## Survey measures

There were three questionnaires used in survey data collection: the MLQ 5X form (*The Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire*) (Bass & Avolio, 1995, 1997) which is a standard, validated questionnaire, *The School Emotions Questionnaire*, and a *General Questionnaire* assessing perceptions of the school and demographic data for schools and participants. More detail about these questionnaire and their development and testing phase will following in the next paragraphs.

For all three survey instruments, measurements were taken at interval scales which, according to Dunn (2009):

Provide quantitative information about the differences between observations... [which is] a marked improvement over the nominal and ordinal scale (ibid, p.158).

Also, questions were measured for all questionnaires on a 5-point Likert scale which is considered “the most common and useful numerical scale” in social research (Dunn, 2009, p.162).

*Leadership styles* were assessed using the Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X – Form 5X); Bass, & Avolio, 1997) which was purchased and used with permission from Mind Garden Inc. which is the license owner of the MLQ 5X.

The MLQ 5X form consists of 45 items from which 36 assess leadership styles and 9 items assess leadership outcomes. Headteachers filled in a self-rating form

and the school staff completed a rater's questionnaire in which they were asked to evaluate their Head. The theory behind the MLQ 5X assumes that the instrument discriminates three distinct leadership styles: transformational (TF), transactional (TS) and laissez-faire (LF) (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). It also assumes that there are nine subcomponents of these styles: five transformational components - individual consideration (IC), idealized influence behaviour (IIB), idealized influence attribute (IIA), intellectual stimulation (IS) and inspirational motivation (IM); three transactional components – management by exception active (MBEa), management by exception passive (MBEp) and contingent reward (CR); one laissez-faire component. The leadership outcomes are: *satisfaction*, effectiveness and extra effort and will be analysed in a following section presenting the results on school outcomes. Because of license use restrictions, the entire questionnaire cannot be given, but a sample of items from the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 4.3.

### **Validity and reliability**

The MLQ 5X is a recognized validated and reliable instrument (Bass & Avolio, 1997) and one of its key strengths is its scientific genesis as a result of a “thorough and rigorous research process over the past fifteen years” (Whitelaw, 2001, p. 1). But, the validity and reliability needed to be tested in the translated version of the MLQ 5X. Thus, in the pilot phase, the aim was to examine the relevance of the leadership model assessed by the MLQ 5X in a Romanian sample by trying to identify the same nine sub-components of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997). In order to test the identification of the three main

leadership styles and of the corresponding sub-components, confirmatory factor analysis using principal components' analysis (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Muenjohn, 2008) was performed on the results obtained from the MLQ 5X with the 30 respondents who took part in the pilot study. The results of the factor analysis (Appendix 4.4) confirm the discrimination of nine initial factors which are similar with those proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997). These results recommended that the transformational-transactional practices can be recognized and discriminated by the Romanian respondents; therefore it is appropriate and culturally relevant and can be used as a framework for examining leadership styles in schools from Romania.

The MLQ 5X form (Copyright 1995 by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio) is used with permission by Mind Garden, Inc. 855 Oak Grove Ave., Suit 215, Menlo Park, CA 94025.

The translation of the MLQ 5X from English to Romanian was performed by the researcher and a back-up translation was undertaken by a research doctoral student who read English for undergraduate studies and has teaching experience in the English Department at the University of Warwick. There were no significant differences between the back-up translation and the Romanian translation of the MLQ 5X form.

One of the most common coefficients that assess scale reliability is the Cronbach's Alpha (Cohen et al., 2007). The coefficient obtained in the pilot sample of 30 respondents is .903 which means the scale is very highly reliable (Cohen et al., 2007) for the translated version of the MLQ 5X scale.

## Missing data

It is important to report missing data when discussing the quality of the data and the most common approaches to missing data in the social research are either to exclude the cases with missing data, or to keep it as it is (Allison, 2001). In this case and for the MLQ 5X it might be important to acknowledge that the results vary in terms of missing data and how people respond to different questions, but there are more missing data for the MLQ 5X than for all the other questionnaires. Out of 408 respondents, only 275 answered to questions referring to *Management by Exception Passive* whereas the largest number of responses is for *Satisfaction* which is one of the leadership outcomes (Table 4.6). A relatively large number of respondents did not answer questions assessing leadership styles, if compared to their responses to the other questionnaires. It is possible that assessing their leader was seen as a difficult task for the participants in the study who preferred not to answer. Also, although the questionnaires were anonymous, some participants might have thought that their responses can be identified looking at the demographic data.

There is also a common bias that can intervene in the results and that was formulated by Seltzer & Bass (1990) who found that the ratings tend to be inflated despite the anonymity of the data processing for the cases where the raters are selected by the leaders. I acknowledge the possibility that this bias could not be avoided in the given circumstances and might affect the results of this study, but at the same time I will be cautious when discussing the implications of such results for the study.

**Table 4.6** MLQ 5X valid data by leadership component and leadership outcomes

<i>Leadership components</i>	<i>N</i>
	<i>Statistic</i>
Contingent reward	310
Intellectual stimulation	314
<b><i>Management by exception passive</i></b>	<b>275</b>
Management by exception active	303
Laissez-faire	337
Idealized influence behaviour	322
Idealized influence attribute	332
Inspirational motivation	330
Individualized consideration	321
<i>Effectiveness</i>	320
<b><i>Satisfaction</i></b>	<b>343</b>
<i>Extra effort</i>	338

*The School Climate Questionnaire* (Appendix 4.5). A questionnaire was initially designed to collect demographic data about the schools and the respondents, but also to examine issues related to emotions and school culture. The 26 items were meant to assess on a 5-point Likert scale the relationships existing in the school, different aspects of school culture in relation to rules of emotional display, trust and perceptions of school success. The results from the analysis of data collected from the pilot suggested that the questionnaires was not very useful with regards to the actual emotions experienced at work and that it was too vague and unfocused dealing with issues such as relationships, organisational values, but too little with emotions themselves. These results were discussed with members of the upgrade examination committee (University of Warwick, 2009), the feedback from the members of the committee was to clarify, focus and refine the instrument assessing organisational emotions.

Thus, after the pilot ended, a new questionnaire, called *The Emotions Questionnaire* (Appendix 4.6), was designed with the specific purpose of examining the incidence of emotional experiences and self-displays and others'

displays of emotions as perceived by school staff. The following section will present in more detail this questionnaire that was used in the actual data collection as part of the Survey Phase and which also informed the development of the interview schedules that were also refined after the pilot.

The *School Climate Questionnaire* was distributed in the main data collection alongside the MLQ 5X and *The Emotions Questionnaire* for consistency purposes, but only items referring to demographic data and school outcomes were to be used in the final analysis.

*The Emotions Questionnaire* (Appendix 4.6). The self-reported questionnaires assessing emotions were developed after the pilot study as a need to clarify and narrow down the theoretical concept that was to be investigated as part of the school conditions, based on a list of 20 labels of positive and negative emotions. The final list was guided by *PANAS* (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, Watson et al. 1988). Although the previously emotions theories and corresponding scales were used as guides in the development of the emotions questionnaires, certain adjustments were required to the cultural and linguistic specificities of Romanian. As results from a recent cross-cultural research on the emotion lexicon used in Latin languages (Galati et al., 2008) some cultural characteristics of the Romanian language (as well as Portuguese) makes the emotion lexicon somehow different of the other Latin languages. So the usage frequencies of some words referring to emotions in the day to day vocabulary were also taken in consideration when selecting the emotions labels.



A back-up translation of the 20 emotions, performed by a Romanian native speaker other than the researcher, was used to test the accuracy of the translation and all terms translated in English corresponded to the initial English terms selected by the researcher to be used in the study. The list of 20 labels of positive and negative emotions was presented in the previous chapter.

E.g. *enervare* is a frequently used word that refers to irritation because although a similar word exists in Romanian – *iritare*, this is used in a more academic language; *suparare* is a frequently mentioned emotion in daily life but does not have a direct English equivalent and was translate as *being upset* or, simply, *upset*.

A set of three separate items was designed to assess self-reported experiences (participants were asked to what extent they experience 20 emotions at work), self-displays (the extent to which participants felt comfortably expressing the same 20 emotions at work) and other displays of emotions at work (the extent to which participants perceived other colleagues displaying the following 20 emotions at work). The intentional formulation of “what is felt comfortably” to display or express reflects the research interest of the study in tapping into the emotional display rules and into the regulation processes imposed by these rules that exist in any working environment and in our daily lives (Briner & Keifer, 2005).

Three separate questions aimed to assess all 20 emotions for: a) self-reported Experienced Emotions (EE) – emotions that staff experience in school, b) self-reported self-displays of emotion (SD) – emotions people feel comfortable to

display at work; and c) Perceived Displayed Emotions by Others (OD) – emotions perceived in the display of other members of staff at work.

For more consistency in data analysis, responses in the *The Emotions Questionnaires* are measured similarly with the MLQ 5X scale on a 5-point Likert scale where respondents are asked to rate the extent to which they experience, display and perceive others displaying different emotions at work in day to day life and based on their experience from *not at all* to *always* (Appendix 4.6).

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was .863 which suggests that the scale has a very good reliability (Cohen, 2007).

*Missing data and normality of data.* The same normality tests have been performed on the data (Kolmogorov-Smimov and Shapiro-Wilk) and the tests show that the data is abnormally distributes ( $p < .000$ ). The skewness and the kurtosis of the distribution show the same result which, as mentioned in the previous section, is expected for the type of concept that is assessed. It is expected that results will tend to group towards the higher ends of the distribution for the positive emotions and the opposite will happen for the negative emotions. The Cronbach Alpha is .867 which suggests a high reliability of the scale (Table 5.4). A score of .70 is acceptable for social sciences (reference). The test was performed on the scale the 60 items that measure experience, display and other's display of emotions and not on the total scores for each emotions.

## **Interview schedules**

The purpose of using interviews in this study was to encourage respondents to develop their own ideas and express their feelings and thoughts with regards to the themes explored in this study and, through this, to help better understand the meanings of the concepts on which the project is based and the relationships between them (Fielding & Thomas, 2008).

A second purpose for the use of interviews was to illustrate and clarify the findings obtained in the survey, therefore the questionnaires used in the data collection were the ones that guided the development of the interview for both the initial schedule that was tested in the Pilot Phase with ten participants (Appendix 4.7) and also the final interview schedule that was revised after the pilot and used in the main data collection (Appendix 4.8).

There were two interview schedules developed, one for the members of staff and one adapted for the Headteachers. The issues addressed in the interviews were very similar, but some additional questions were included in the Heads' interviews regarding their experience in Headship.

The interview schedules were developed in this way in order to address the main themes of the study. They are regarded as semi-structured interviews because they allow for some "depth of feeling to be ascertained by providing opportunities to probe and expand the interviewees' responses" (Opie 2004, p. 118).

The questions themselves are formulated as open-ended questions to allow for flexibility in how participants want to express their views (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995).

The questions exploring issues related to leadership and school outcomes were very similar in the pilot phase compared with the final data collection as follows:

- *leadership*: what respondents understand by leadership and what makes a good leader, but also a description of the current leadership style practiced in school;
- *school outcomes*: how is school success viewed and understood by members of school staff, what are the factors that contribute to successful schools, what do participants think parents are looking for in a “good” or “successful” school.

The questions exploring *emotions* were somewhat different in the pilot phase compared to the final stage of the research. In the pilot phase, the questions were more general and referred to school climate rather than to specific emotions. In the final stage of the research the questions were more focused to specific emotions such as *anger* or *enthusiasm* and how were they experienced at work, but also the interviews explored the most common events that trigger certain emotions and to what extent other people might experience similar emotions at work. The final interview schedule can be found in Appendix 4.8.

With the interviewees’ permission, all conversations were digitally recorded to produce the most complete record of what was said (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995). At the same time, it is important to acknowledge the consequences of using recording equipment in perhaps introducing a certain formality to the interview, but it was found that participants seemed open to make both positive

and negative, both critical and less critical, comments about their schools, and therefore the researcher believes that using recording equipment did not significantly impact on the results of the interviews.

The findings that will be presented in the following chapters come from the main data collection. The data collected during the pilot were used with the purpose of testing, validating and refining the actual instruments that were to be used in the main data collection.

### **Data analysis methods**

All questionnaires were analysed statistically using the SPSS package.

Descriptive statistics such as means, medians, standard deviations and normality tests will be computed for data at the first three levels of analysis whereas more sophisticated analysis requiring large samples will only be run for the first level of analysis with the whole sample of 408 participants, results which will be generalized to the entire population. For this purpose, inferential statistics will be used as they estimate the extent to which the results can be applied to the whole population (Procter 2008).

A summary of this multiple-relationship analysis is presented in Figure 4.1.

## Types and levels of analysis

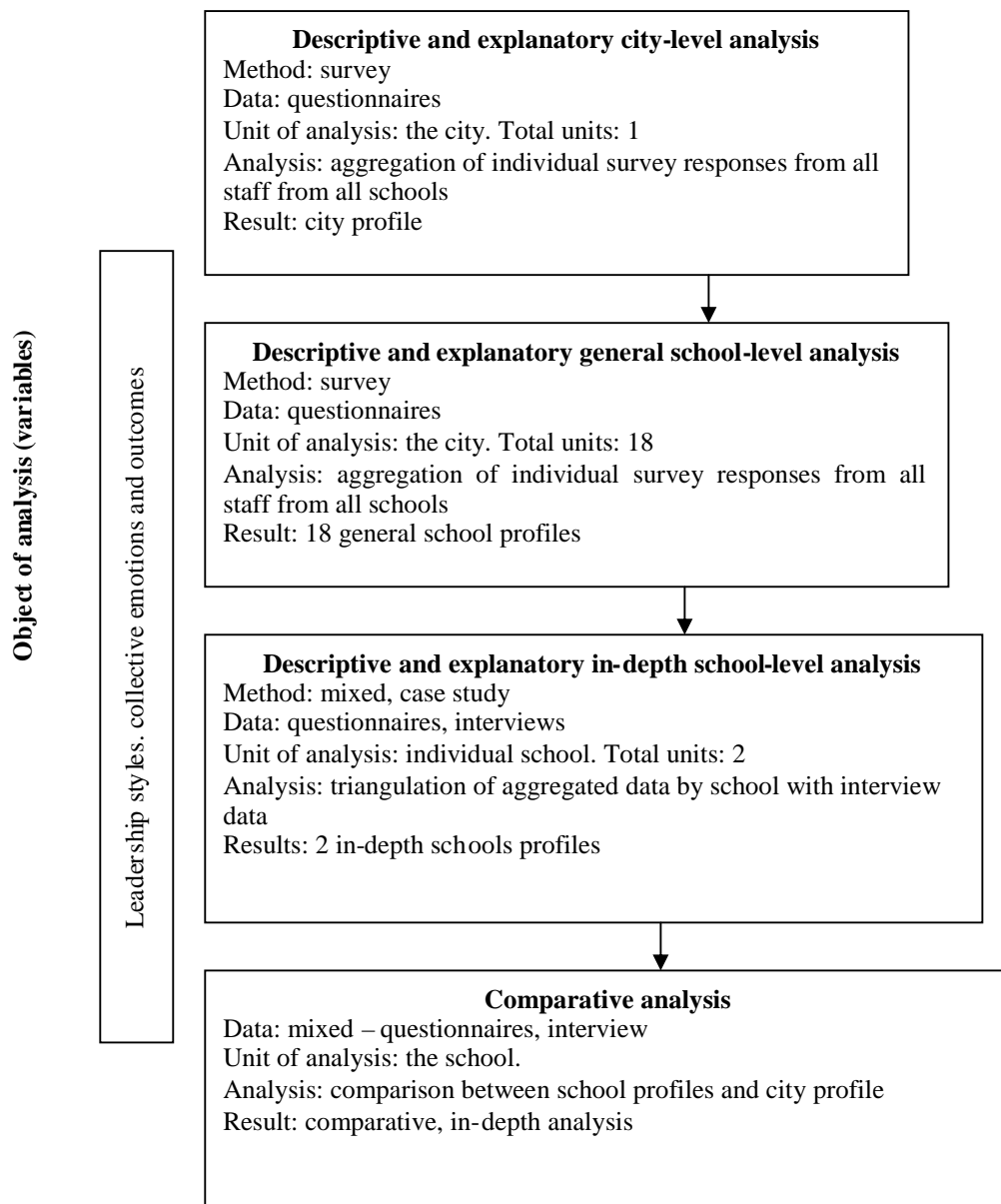


Figure 4.1. Leadership styles, emotions and school outcomes. Types and levels of analysis

## Reliability, validity and triangulation

Issues such as reliability, validity and triangulation are important to research because they “should contribute to an acceptable level of authenticity sufficient to satisfy both researcher and reader that the study is meaningful and worthwhile (Bush, 2007, p.103).

These issues are sometimes considered more common in positivist research, and within quantitative methodology (Hammersley, 1987), but, although they might be treated differently in the two research paradigms, addressing them is just as important in qualitative research (Brock-Utne, 1996).

### **Reliability and replicability**

Reliability refers to obtaining consistent results if the study was to be repeated in the same conditions (Seale, 2004). For surveys, reliability depends on the standardisation or on pilot testing of the instruments (e.g. questionnaires or structured interviews) (Bush, 2007). For this study, although it was not possible to repeat using measures with the same participants, general results of the MLQ 5X form questionnaire, such as means obtained in the pilot, were compared and cross-checked with the actual data. No test – retest reliability testing techniques were used for the emotions questionnaire, but as mentioned in previous sections, scale reliability coefficients were computed for all scales and results show good reliability.

Reliability of interviews assumes that if there are two interviewers they obtain the same result, which is not the case in this study where a single researcher has done all the interviews, and so reliability in this case relies on the instrument itself which needs to be very well structured (Bush, 2007). If interviews are part of a case-study, like for this project, and are semi-structured, reliability is more difficult to ensure (Bush, 2007). Nevertheless, the results obtained in the interviews during the pilot are very similar to the results obtained in the main

data collection and similar themes were identified. Details about these findings were also presented in a previous section in this chapter.

As for the inter-coder reliability in the data analysis, a colleague researcher was asked to identify the main themes emerging from the interviews, as recommended by Welsh (2002). Patterns and themes were extracted (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995) from one transcript by the second rater and compared with the main themes extracted by the researcher. The results of the two analyses were similar in terms of number and types of themes identified (Appendix 4.9).

### **Validity**

There are different types of validities identified in the literature.

*Measurement validity* is “the degree to which measures successfully indicate concepts” (Seale 2004, p. 72) and includes: *face validity* which implies that experts in the field were consulted for the instrument development; *criterion validity* which is usually tested when results obtained from similar measures are compared with the results measured by the instrument in development and finally, *construct validity* means that the instrument was correlated with a theorized construct. In this case, Watson et al.’s (1988) theory of negative and positive affectivity was used, and takes as an example the PANAS (Watson & Clark 1994).

*Internal validity* refers to “the extent to which causal statements are supported by the study” (Seale, 2004, p.72), which is not the case for this project as there is no intention to imply causality in examining the relationships between



variables. But internal validity also means “ruling out rival explanations for results”, whereas external validity “refers to whether research findings can be generalized from one setting to another” (Dunn, 2009, p.241). In the discussion section, Chapter 7, the internal validity of the whole study will be addressed when possible explanations for the results will be teased out.

*External validity* is “the extent to which findings can be generalized to populations or to other settings” (Seale, 2004, p.72). The 50% rate of return does not allow for perfect generalizability, but it is still a good rate of response compared with 25% which is considered by some researchers as a low rate of return (Freiburg, 1999). The generalizations made in this study are justified by the non-probabilistic sampling procedures that resulted in a ‘complete’ sample coinciding with the population and the approximate 50% rate of return is considered to be satisfactory.

### **Triangulation**

Denzin (1978) introduced the term triangulation, referring to a technique for validating observational data, but since its introduction in the literature, various other definitions and examples of this concept have been provided. Gorard (2004) argues that:

Triangulation between the evident produced by different research methods is thought to be a simple and common form of combining methods (...) increasing the concurrent, convergent and construct validity of research (ibid, p.43).

Because of common misunderstandings of why the term is called *tri-angulation*, the same author points out that:

Most sources explain that triangulation involved only a minimum of two (emphasis in the original text) vantage points of datasets to tell us something about a third phenomenon (ibid, p. 43).

Researchers argue that there are at least four types of triangulation (Seale 2004): triangulation of data, methodological triangulation, investigator triangulation, and theory triangulation. The first two types of triangulation were applied in this piece of study, so that data from various types of respondents were collected: Heads, teachers and non-teaching staff. Two types of methods were used: survey questionnaires and interviews. Investigator triangulation was not used in data collection, but only in data analysis where inter-coder reliability was tested by comparing the themes extracted in one interview transcript.

### **Analysis, triangulation and integration of quantitative and qualitative data**

A more detailed description of how data will be analyzed, triangulated and discussed is presented in Table 4.7. At the most general descriptive level at which survey data is aggregated from all schools and all participants' data provided by the Headteachers will be triangulated with data from the school staff in a comparison of findings. A mean will be computed for all scores obtained by all Heateachers participants which will be compared against the means obtained by all school staff sample taking part in the study. The same analysis will be undertaken at the organisational level of each school only that in this case, the total scores obtained by the Headteacher from each school will be compared with the mean scores obtained by school staff.

**Table 4.7** Data analysis and triangulation

<i>Level of analysis</i>	<i>Data source</i>	<i>Data type</i>	<i>Discussion</i>
<b>City level, whole sample</b>	A total mean for all Headteachers scores (1 mean) compared with the mean for all school staff scores (408)	Survey data	
<b>Organisational level, by school</b>	The total scores for individual Headteachers (18 means) is compared with a mean computed for school staff from each school (1 mean by school for staff)	Survey data	Findings compared with evidence from the literature
<b>Case study, 2 schools</b>	Findings from Headteachers are compared with results obtained from school staff	Survey data compared with interview data	

For the case studies findings, in addition to triangulating data collected from the Headteachers with the findings from the school staff for each theme explored – leadership, emotions and outcomes, also survey and interview data will be analyzed comparatively and triangulated in order to identify similar patterns in the findings or, if the case, inconsistencies or differences of views. The interview data, as mentioned, will be analyzed by identifying the main themes emerging. Participants’ understandings expressed in the interviews in relation to leadership, emotional experiences and school development and performance will be compared with findings from the survey.

## **Summary**

This chapter included a description of the mixed methodological approach which is considered appropriate for achieving the purpose of the study which was to tease out the nature of the relationship between leadership styles, school emotions or collective emotions and school outcomes in 1-8<sup>th</sup> grades schools from Timisoara, Romania. It is important to acknowledge that this exploration is

a difficult task, especially as much of this work is contextual and relies on Western theories of leadership and emotions. Nevertheless, the design of the study aimed to address some of these methodological difficulties. The three phases design, including a pilot stage, and the sampling methods were discussed in relation to validity and reliability issues. Both questionnaires and interviews were used as methods to collect data. A detailed presentation of the instruments and their validity and reliability and the data collection procedures were also discussed. Finally, a layered method of data analysis was outlined and corresponding data analysis methods were justified. The presentation of findings will follow this layered outline of data analysis in the following three sections.

## 5. Survey Findings

### Introduction

This chapter introduces the findings of the research and outlines its structure. It addresses the ‘What?’ question by presenting the survey findings.

The “What?” question refers to the object of the study which is represented by the relationship between leadership styles, emotions and organisational outcomes at three levels of analysis as described in Chapter 4.

Firstly, the results obtained from the overall sample which includes Headteachers’ responses and school staff’s responses regarding the object of the study are presented. This refers to the first level of analysis which provides a general overview of the *status quo* in the studied schools. At this general level of analysis, the dominant characteristics of leadership behaviours, emotions and outcomes will be discussed based on the survey findings.

Secondly, the survey informs the discussion of the same main aspects including leadership styles, emotions and leadership outcomes and perceived school success, but this time at the organisational level of schools. The 18 participant schools having similar organisational structures are compared. The results are analysed in more depth at school level and two schools are selected to illustrate the relationship between leadership styles, collective emotions and outcomes based on the findings from the survey.

Finally, perhaps the most difficult task is to untangle the complex dynamics of different organisational components as revealed in two case studies. This third level of analysis will bring together the survey data obtained for two of the schools with qualitative interview data. This third level of analysis is presented in Chapters 6 and 7.

The three levels of analysis are used to strengthen the validity of the findings, by providing a general overview of how staff from Romanian schools perceive schools' *status quo* in terms of leadership, collective emotions, subjective organisational outcomes and the dynamic between these. This level of analysis will also aim to provide cautious generalizations for the entire population of schools with the same structure and from the same city.

### **Leadership styles, collective emotions and outcomes: An overview**

This section introduces the first level of analysis and is structured as follows: firstly, it describes the overall leadership styles identified and their main characteristics; then the results referring to collective emotions are introduced and the identified clusters of emotions will be described in more detailed; thirdly, an overview of organisational outcomes and their characteristics will be presented; and lastly, an analysis of how these components interact will be undertaken. The same structure will be followed for all three levels of analyses.

### **Leadership styles**

The Multifactorial Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1994) was used to assess three leadership styles: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire.

The data presented come from sample of 408 teachers and Headteachers from 18 schools from Timisoara, Romania. These include Headteachers' self-ratings of their leadership styles together with teachers' ratings of their Headteachers' leadership. Details of the instrument administration and scoring were included in the previous chapter.

### **Missing data and normality tests**

Before describing the leadership styles identified in the studied sample, there are several considerations to be made regarding missing data and data distribution which have implications for data analysis. For the MLQ 5X, the results vary in terms of missing data and how people respond to different questions. A relatively large number of respondents did not answer questions assessing leadership styles, while, by comparison, significantly more participants respond to the questionnaire assessing emotional experiences and displays. The possible reasons for this are discussed in a following chapter. Missing data are excluded from the analysis.

Moreover, a common bias that intervenes in the results is mentioned by Seltzer & Bass (1990) who found that ratings tend to be inflated despite the anonymity of the data processing for the cases where the respondents are selected by the leaders which, due to practical reasons related to resources, it is also the case for this study.

### **Leadership styles – descriptive statistics**

The descriptive statistics presented in **Table 5.1** aim to give an indication of the central tendencies existing in the collected data assessing leadership styles by

reporting means, medians, and standard deviations. Generally, the means are given when data have a normal distribution (Robson, 2002), and if this is not the case and the distribution of data is skewed than the *median* is most commonly used to describe the ‘average’ score representing the data (ibid).

**Table 5.1** Descriptive statistics for MLQ 5X factors in the whole sample

	<i>N</i>				<i>Std. Deviation</i>
	Statistic	<i>Median</i>	Mean	Std. Error	Statistic
<b>Transformational leadership</b>					
Inspirational motivation	330	3.50	3.2697	.03653	.66358
Idealized influence attribute	332	3.25	3.1830	.04189	.76324
Idealized influence behaviour	322	3.25	3.1413	.03496	.62731
Intellectual stimulation	314	3.00	3.0104	.03634	.64392
Individualized consideration	321	3.00	2.8684	.04450	.79721
<b>Transactional Leadership</b>					
Contingent reward	310	3.25	3.0613	.04340	.76421
Management by exception active	303	2.75	2.7277	.03995	.69539
Management by exception passive	275	1.25	1.2745	.04118	.68288
<b>Laissez-faire Leadership</b>					
Laissez-faire	337	0.50	.6536	.04057	.74475
Valid N (listwise)	174				

Normality tests performed on leadership data suggest that the distribution is not normal for neither of the components listed in Table 5.1. For these data the number of participants on either side of the mean is not equal and the median shows the middle point of the list of the scores (Cohen et al., 2007). Therefore, both means and medians are presented as indicators to describe the central tendencies in the data. When compared, the medians and the means have close values, which suggests that the means show relatively accurately the central tendencies of in the data. The implication of this abnormality of data distribution



for data analysis is that non-parametric statistical tests will be performed instead of parametrical tests.

The highest mean and median are for *Inspirational Motivation* (IM), a transformational leadership component, whereas the lowest mean is for *Laissez-fair* or *Avoidant Leadership* style. Transformational components tend to dominate the list and especially the factors that are usually considered as charismatic behaviours. Also, *Contingent Reward* is highly valued, but at the opposite side, *Laissez-faire* and *Management by Exception Passive* obtain the lowest scores. In practical terms, these findings show that overall, in assessing leadership behaviours participants from all schools believe that their Headteachers are predominantly charismatic and rarely passive or avoidant in dealing with school problems.

Research on leadership styles using MLQ 5X shows relative differences in the way leadership components are grouped into leadership styles, depending on the studied population (Heinitz, 2005). Therefore, in the following section factor analysis is employed in order to explore how the leadership components define and interact according to the collected data. The resulting factors would inform about the dominant leadership styles in the way respondents understand them. A second function of this analysis is to test the validity of transformational – transactional model proposed by Bass and Avolio in this Romanian sample by exploring how the components of the MLQ 5X load unto the three main factors corresponding to the three main leadership styles: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire. Moreover, the statistical significance of the findings is the

basis for the interpretation and discussion of the educational significance of the results.

### **Factor analysis of the MLQ 5X factors**

Confirmatory Factor analysis (CFA) was performed based on Principal Components extraction with Promax rotation on the 36 items of the MLQ 5X that assesses leadership styles. These analyses were performed with valid data collected from staff from all participant schools. CFA seeks to determine whether the number of factors and the loadings of measured (indicator) variables conform to what is expected based on the pre-established theory developed by Bass & Avolio (1994). The principal components extraction is a traditional method used in CFA (Bryant and Yarnold (1995) The Promax rotation is the standard method most commonly used in Principal components analysis (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Unlike other factor analysis methods that do not allow for inter-correlation between the identified factors, this method used here allows the identification of factors, e.g. leadership styles that may be naturally interrelated. This decision was informed by the initial finding of strong correlations between subcomponents of transformational and transactional behaviours which, in the initial theory, were thought to be independent and separate factors (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

The confirmatory factor analysis identified a similar number of factors of those proposed in the initial theory by Bass and Avolio (1994).

The interpretation of these factors is nevertheless more difficult as items tend to load onto other factors than predicted in the original model proposed (ibid)

which means that, in this Romanian sample, not all questions designed to assess a certain leadership style, like for example transactional behaviours, correlate with similar questions assessing the same transactional behaviours.

In order to decide which factors are the most relevant to the existing data and to be able to use these factors in further analyses, three criteria were used (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Velicer & Jackson, 1990): a. Horn's (1965) parallel analysis (PA), procedure which is an estimation of the optimal number of factors based on the size of the sample. PA is now often recommended as the best method to assess the true number of factors (Velicer, Eaton, and Fava, 2000; Lance, Butts, and Michels, 2006); b. Cattell's scree procedure which indicates the statistical strength of the factors and is a graphic representation of the eigenvalues of the factors identified in the data through CFA; c and, most importantly, the interpretation of the factor loadings based on which the meaning of each factor is judged.

Horn's parallel analysis (1965) suggests that the factors to be retained from factor analysis must have the eigenvalues higher than the expected eigenvalues from the identity population. Therefore, the parallel analysis proposes that the expected eigenvalues generated from theoretical multiple random samples of the same size and with the same numbers of studied variables. For the present sample of 408 cases, parallel analysis suggests an optimal solution of maximum five factors. As a result, the first five factors identified through PCA were scrutinized in terms of statistical significance and practical relevance.

Although the size of the sample recommends for an optimal solution of maximum five factors, the visual inspection of the scree graph revealed that there are only three major breakpoints in the plot, suggesting that there are three very strong and clear factors to be retained for further analysis.

In order reach a final decision regarding the number of factors that best describe the data collected and that are to be retained for further analyses, the interpretation of the resulting factors is essential. Although quantitative indicators and statistical guidelines are important in establishing the significance of the factors, the qualitative interpretation of the factors reveals their practical meanings. These meanings are given by the specific items or questions that load unto each factor. For example, if under one factor the main items refer to leadership behaviours such as an attention given to staff's individual needs, a good knowledge of each member's skills and experience etc., that factor appears to represent what Bass and Avolio call 'individual consideration' which is seen as an important characteristic of transformational leadership (1994).

Based on these three methods mentioned above, there are three factors retained to be used in further analyses. This point of analysis is crucial not only because it validates to some extent the initial model of leadership developed by Bass and Avolio (or not), and represents the basis for future analysis, but also because it has significant implications on how teaching and nonteaching staff from schools in Romania approach leadership. It also informs whether the respondents discriminate the assumed leadership styles suggested by the original theory or not.

The following paragraphs will briefly describe the factors obtained and will make an argument for the decision made in how these factors will be used in further analysis.

### ***Description of the factors by strength***

The description of the identified factors is based on the interpretation and meaning of the pattern matrix that showed to which factor each item loads and with what strength.

*Factor 1* is the strongest factor and contains items assessing individual consideration (IC, four items), intellectual stimulation (IS, two items) and contingent reward (three items). The first two dimensions are considered transformational behaviours whereas the last (CR) is defined as a transactional behaviour. Also, with a weaker loading to the factor, one item is assessing management by exception passive. This factor is a 'hybrid' of transformational and transactional components and will be called *rewarding considerate leadership* (RCL). The reliability Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is .892 which indicates very good reliability for social research studies (George & Mallery, 2003). The widely-accepted social science cut-off is that alpha should be .70 or higher for a set of items to be considered a scale (Santos, 1999).

*Factor 2* includes laissez-faire components (four items) and management by exception passive (four items) and will be called *avoidant leadership* (AL). Cronbach's Alpha is .765 which is again an indication of an acceptable reliability of this factor (George & Mallery, 2003).

*Factor 3* comprises dominantly items that assess idealized influence (IIA, IIB), both behaviour and attribute (six items), and inspirational motivation (IM, six items). Both these dimensions are usually known as charismatic qualities and so this factor will be called in this thesis *inspirational charismatic leadership* (ICL). The factor reliability test shows a good Cronbach's Alpha of .835.

There is one more point to be made on how these factors correlate which means that although they are different, they may be inter-related. *Rewarding considerate* leadership correlates significantly but negatively with *Avoidant* leadership ( $r = -.275, p < .01$ ) and positively with *Inspirational Charismatic* leadership ( $r = .332, p < .01$ ). This implies that there is a positive and strong connection between transformational and transactional behaviours. In contrast, results suggest that *Avoidant* leadership is opposite to the other two styles identified.

In practical terms, this implies that leaders can display both transformational and transactional behaviours and that this claim is supported by two findings: firstly, by the fact that the first factor identified in the data is a 'hybrid' transformational-transactional; and secondly, by the fact that this 'hybrid' leadership correlates is strongly linked with charismatic behaviours which are specific to what it's called here *inspirational charismatic* leadership style (ICL). In contrast, findings show that leaders who may effectively use transformational and transactional practices are less likely to be avoidant or passive in their leadership style. Thus, while transactional and transformational practices are not

exclusive, they are both opposite to an avoidant and a passive style of leadership.

The results are in line with previous studies that show, for example, that contingent reward strongly correlates with transformational components and therefore loads onto factors that are dominantly transformational (Avolio & Bass, 2004). These findings are further analysed and discussed in the following chapters.

### **Leadership styles and other correlates**

*Time spent in Headship.* In order to test whether time spent in Headship is correlated with leadership behaviours, non-parametric correlations have been computed and the results show significant correlations between time spent in Headship and *Rewarding Considerate Leadership (RCL)* but in the negative sense. RCL is less present where Heads have spent more time in Headship in one school. Although recent evidence suggests that Headship experience is key in school improvement and development (Day et al., 2009), this study's finding shows that a specific type of leadership combining rewarding practices with an attention given to individual needs of staff is less likely to be found in experienced leaders. This may be due to the fact that Heads who spent a long time in the same school and already know their staff may focused more on the overall school problems rather than on individual staff's needs.

The other relationships between time spent in Headship and leadership style are not significant statistically.

*School size.* When looking at the relationship between leadership styles and school size, the statistical tests show significant correlations. Larger schools tend to have more *Inspirational charismatic* leadership (ICL) and the correlation coefficient is very strong ( $p=0.010$ ). Also, smaller schools are significantly linked to *Avoidant* leadership (AL). *Rewarding considerate* leadership (RCL) does not correlate significantly with school size. This finding may be due to the fact that in Timisoara, larger schools are seen as more successful because they are able to attract a larger number of students including children that do not come from school's catchment area. Generally, smaller schools are located in suburbs which tend to be the poorest areas in the city. It is in these schools that AL tends to more likely present. In contrast, larger schools need Headteachers with clear vision and charismatic skills to attract parents and to appeal to communities and local authorities which are the financing bodies for the schools. The finding showing no correlation between school size and RCL could suggest that *rewarding considerate* leaders are needed as the relationships with staff are universally important in schools regardless of their size.

### **Leadership style by school**

The previous section presented general tendencies found in the overall sample of staff from all schools taking part in the study. This following section presents the aggregated survey data for each individual school and *Figure 5.1* summarizes these results. The number of schools showed in *Figure 5.1* is not presented in order because some of the schools did not take part in the study while other schools do not exist (e.g. School no 3). Also, the data plotted are standardized data in which the average is 0 for all leadership styles so that



results by school can be compared. Because of the small samples in some schools, statistical statistics were not employed to test how significant the differences between various schools are. Nevertheless, the figure below not only illustrates the variety of combinations of leadership styles in each participant school, but also the strength of certain leadership practices by comparison with others.

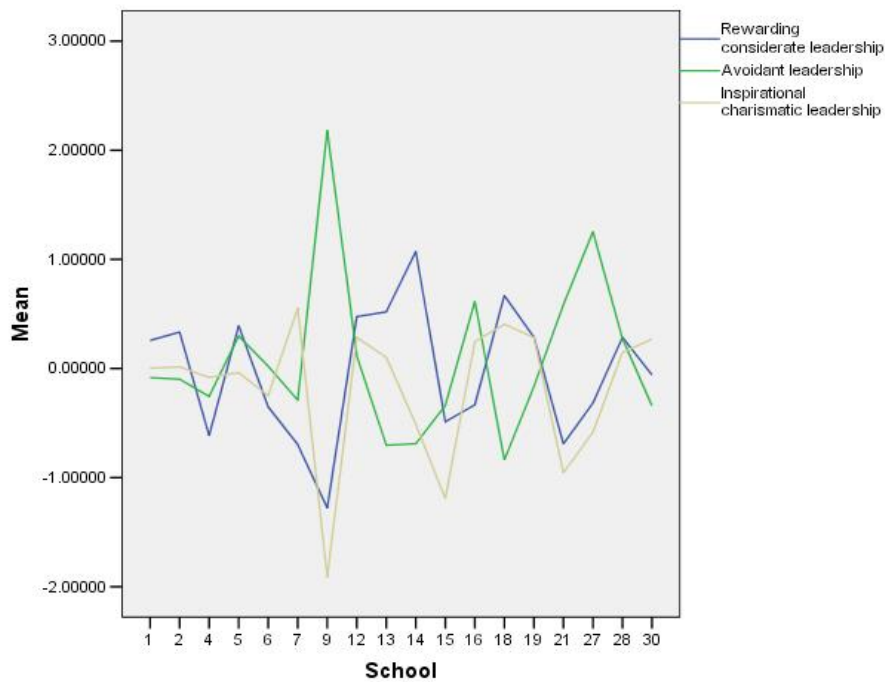


Figure 5.1 Leadership styles by school

As the above figure reveals, in some schools *avoidant leadership* is clearly and strongly opposed to *charismatic leadership*, like in School 27 or in School 9.

Both these schools seem to register high scores for *avoidant leadership* according to their staff and also low scores for both *rewarding considerate* and *for charismatic inspirational leadership*. Soon after the data were collected for this study, School 9 was closed due to the fact that students were moving to

other schools and there were insufficient number of students to keep the school open.

Following the same line of analysis, the next section will introduce the results from the survey assessing self-reported emotions. The data are drawn from the *The Emotions Questionnaire* that can be found in Appendix 4.6 and aggregated from all respondents to the study from the 18 participating schools. This overall sample includes 408 Headteachers and school staff.

## **Emotions**

In addition to presenting the results on how participants self-report their emotional experiences, the way they express their emotions and the way they perceive other people expressing emotions at work, this section will explore how these self – other oriented dimensions of emotions compare and contrast and also how they interact and combine in higher order composites.

### **Descriptive statistics. Positive and negative emotions**

A total score was computed for each of the 20 emotions from the three subscales assessing experience, self-displays and others' display and these scores are aggregated from all participating staff.

As Table 5.2 shows, the emotions with the highest means are positive emotions such as *hope, joy, satisfaction* and *enthusiasm*. The lowest means are obtained for negative emotions oriented towards others such as *envy* and *hatred*. *Shame*, which is a negative emotion self-oriented has also a low score.

**Table 5.2** Descriptive statistics of overall scores for self-reported emotions

	<i>N</i>	<i>Median</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Hope</i>	336	9	8.99	2.70
<i>Joy</i>	350	9	8.85	2.07
<i>Satisfaction</i>	335	9	8.38	2.13
<i>Enthusiasm</i>	331	9	8.25	2.19
<i>Pride</i>	326	7	6.84	3.17
<i>Compassion</i>	328	6	5.97	2.41
<i>Surprise</i>	321	6	5.85	2.30
<i>Irritation</i>	327	5	4.88	2.16
<i>Upset</i>	322	5	4.71	2.09
<i>Sadness</i>	315	3	3.16	2.07
<i>Anger</i>	314	3	3.03	2.27
<i>Regret</i>	320	3	2.95	2.20
<i>Disgust</i>	322	2	2.81	2.56
<i>Boredom</i>	314	2	2.63	2.10
<i>Fear</i>	315	2	2.11	2.09
<i>Embarrassment</i>	314	2	2.07	1.87
<i>Guilt</i>	311	2	1.82	1.69
<i>Envy</i>	313	1	1.72	1.55
<i>Shame</i>	309	1	1.67	1.93
<i>Hatred</i>	313	0	.82	1.32

Like with the leadership data, emotions scores are not normally distributed, so both means and medians are displayed and non-parametric tests will be used in further analyses. In order to contrast the three emotional dimensions – experiences, self-displays and others’ displays, non-parametric Wilcoxon tests were ran. This tests measures differences between paired samples. The results of this analysis will be presented in the following paragraphs.

### **Consistency and congruence in EE, DE, OE**

As shown in Table 5.3, the results from the comparison tests show that there are significant differences between experiences and self-displays of both positive and negative emotions. To discriminate between reported experiences, self-displays, and displays perceived in others, participants were asked to rate on a scale from 1-5 the extent to which they experience, feel comfortable displaying

and see others displaying certain emotions at work. The most significant differences in experiences and self-displays were found for *irritation*, *surprise* and *joy*. For *irritation* the scores for experiences for higher than those for display, suggesting that participants may suppress the expression of *irritation*, whereas for *joy and surprise* the findings show significantly higher scores for displays, meaning that participants report that they display more *joy* and *surprise* that they experience in reality.

When self-displays were compared against displays of others, significant differences were found for all negative emotions with no exception, but the largest differences were for *envy*, *irritation* and *boredom* which may suggest that these emotions may be easier ‘to read’ in others.

In summary, self-reported experiences (EE), self-displays (SD) and others’ displays of emotions (OD) were compared against two criteria that was guided by statistically significant difference: a) *consistency* which is here defined as internal coherence between one’s subjective experiences and one’s self-displays. Self-consistency was found where there was no significant difference between EE and SD); and b) social *congruence* - defined here as accordance between self-displays and perceived displays of others. Social congruence was considered where there was no significant difference found between SD and OD. Table 5.3 presented below summarizes these comparisons for each emotion.

The highlighted scores for Z (the Wilcoxon test) and Sigma (the significance value) in Table 5.3 signal a statistical significant difference. In theoretical terms

this difference may be an indication of strong regulation processes that intervene for certain emotions. Looking at comparisons between experiences and self-displays (EE-SD), four of the seven positive emotions assessed show inconsistency. This means that respondents believe and report that they display more *joy, enthusiasm, satisfaction* and *surprise* than they experience in reality which may be an indication of the social pressure to display such positive emotions.

**Table 5.3** Paired Wilcoxon test of experience, self-display and others' display of positive and negative emotions

<i>Polarity</i>	<i>Emotions / Paired T test</i>	<i>EE- SD</i>		<i>SD – OD</i>		<i>Consistent</i>	<i>Congruent</i>
		Z	Sig. (2-tailed)	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Positive	Joy	<b>-5.99</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>10.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Compassion	-0.15	0.86	-1.53	0.12	(+)	(+)
	Enthusiasm	<b>-2.39</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>7.50</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Pride	-1.95	0.06	-0.25	0.79	(+)	(+)
	Satisfaction	<b>-2.90</b>	<b>0.04</b>	<b>6.78</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Surprise	<b>-6.08</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>2.69</b>	<b>0.01</b>	(-)	(-)
	Hope	-0.98	0.32	<b>6.83</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	<b>Total</b>					4(-)	5(-)
Negative	Disgust	<b>3.35</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>8.13</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Irritation	<b>8.17</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>-9.10</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Envy	-0.49	0.62	<b>-11.04</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Embarrass.	<b>2.23</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>-5.33</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Anger	<b>3.37</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>-8.64</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Boredom	<b>2.10</b>	<b>0.03</b>	<b>-9.16</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Regret	-0.86	0.38	<b>-5.60</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Shame	-0.64	0.51	<b>-5.82</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Upset	<b>3.24</b>	<b>0.00</b>	<b>-6.47</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(-)	(-)
	Fear	-1.07	0.28	<b>-4.88</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Sadness	0.58	0.55	<b>-5.19</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Hatred	-1.26	0.20	<b>-7.00</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	Guilt	0.39	0.69	<b>-4.57</b>	<b>0.00</b>	(+)	(-)
	<b>Total</b>					6(-)	13(-)

Note: The sign (-) indicates the absence of congruency, respectively consistency and (+) means emotions are congruent, or consistent respectively.

**Sigma statistically significant at p value >0.05**

When compared, positive self-displays and others' positive displays there are strong statistical differences found for the same emotions and this time for *hope*

as well. Only that this time, participants report that they display more *joy*, *enthusiasm*, *satisfaction*, *hope* and *surprise* than they believe others do. This is to some extent expected and explainable by the fact that in social comparison processes people tend to think stereotypically about self in relation to others (Paez, 1996). More about this finding will be discussed in the following chapters.

Negative emotions that seem to be strongly inhibited are *disgust*, *irritation*, *boredom*, *anger*, *upset*, and *embarrassment* because experiences of such emotions are much stronger than their self-displays. For the remaining negative emotions participants seem to be consistent with themselves. Whereas the inconsistency between experiences and self-displays is not as strong (for six out of 13 emotions only), the incongruence between self-displays and others' display appears to be strong for all negative emotions assessed with no exception. That means that for all negative emotions, participants believe that others display more negative emotions than themselves. The implications of these results will be further discussed in the next Chapter.

When considered together, the two criteria – self-consistency and self-other congruence of emotions, four combinations determining four possible types of collective emotions are revealed:

- a) Congruent (+) / Consistent (+) emotions will be called here *adaptive* because what is experienced is displayed and self-displays are congruent with others' displays.
- b) Consistent (+) / Congruent (-) will be called *solitaire* because although participants are self-consistent in terms of what they experience and display, their self-displays are not congruent with others' displays.

- c) Consistent (-) / Congruent (+) will be named *compliant* emotions because the participants are not consistent in what they experience and display, but their displays are congruent with others’.
- d) Congruent (-) / Consistent (-) will be called *rebel* because these emotions are neither self-consistent, not socially congruent.

Table 5.4 summarizes these four patterns identified for each individual emotion by taking into consideration self-consistency and social congruence

**Table 5.4** Emotional consistency and congruence in the general sample

<i>Collective emotions criteria</i>	<i>Self Consistency</i>	<i>Social Congruence</i>	<i>Collective Emotions</i>
Joy	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Compassion	(+)	(+)	Adaptive
Disgust	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Crossed	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Enthusiasm	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Envy	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Embarrassment	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Pride	(+)	(+)	Adaptive
Anger	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Boredom	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Regret	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Shame	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Satisfaction	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Upset	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Surprise	(-)	(-)	Rebel
Fear	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Sadness	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Hatred	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Guilt	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Hope	(+)	(-)	Solitaire
Total	10 (+) 10 (-)	2(+) 18(-)	

Note: The sign (-) indicates the absence of congruence, respectively consistency and (+) means emotions are congruent, respectively consistent.

The rebel and solitaire types are predominant (Table 5.4). Both types have in common the fact that self-displays are incongruent with others’ displays. In other words, people tend to view their expression of emotions differently comparing with how other people express their emotions. There are significant differences for the positive emotions, staff display more *joy* and *surprise* than they experience and display more *joy*, *enthusiasm*, *satisfaction*, *surprise* and *hope* than they believe others display. In terms of negative emotions, staff report

that they display significant less negative emotions than others. This is the case for all negative emotions. As for personal consistency, people regulate *disgust*, *irritation*, *embarrassment*, *anger* and *being upset*.

In terms of self-consistency, results are more differentiated. Some emotions are more strongly regulated than others like for example *disgust*, *irritation*, *embarrassment*, *anger*, *boredom* and *being upset* whereas emotions such as *envy*, *shame* and *regret* are not as strongly inhibited and the reported subjective experiences match the displays.

In summary, there is one strong pattern that can be identified in the data and that is based on a strong socially emotional incongruence for both positive and negative emotions. Furthermore, self-consistency varies across emotions, and both negative and positive emotions are regulated but in different ways: while some positive emotions such as *joy*, *satisfaction* and *enthusiasm*, are ‘exaggerated’, most negative emotions are suppressed or inhibited.

It is not the aim of this thesis to suggest a definitive and pure typology of collective emotions, but rather to identify some patterns that can inform a theoretical frame for the study of emotions in different social contexts. The next section will provide more insight into some of the issues revealed in comparing experiences, self-displays and others’ displays of emotions by looking into how individual emotions link to each other.



## **Emotion composites**

A deeper understanding of how people think and report their emotional experiences and displays can be provided not only by looking comparatively at experiences and displays of a certain emotion and by identifying potential tensions, incongruence and inconsistencies between experiences and displays of the same emotion, but also by exploring how individual emotions relate to other. This process is based on the assumption that some emotions share the same characteristics with other emotions, like, for example, research evidence strongly recommends that positive emotions are independent and opposite to negative emotions as they imply different cognitive and neurological processes (Schrauf & Sanchez, 2005). In order to find out whether a similar differentiation between positive and negative emotions could be identified in the data collected in this study, a data mining technique similar to the one employed to identify leadership styles in a previous section was employed on data assessing emotions. Thus, factor analysis was run once more for all items assessing emotions (experienced, self-displayed and others' displays) in order to determine how these emotions – both negative and positive, either experienced or displayed – group under more general composites. The next section will discuss the results from these analyses.

As for the leadership data, the same factor analysis method based on the extraction of principal components was employed. A six components solution was extracted with factors that can be described below. The decision in the selection of the final number of factors as well as in the interpretation of these

factors was similar with the decisions made in the factor analysis employed on the leadership data. The revealed factors are:

*Factor 1* – (+) EDP: Positive emotional experience, displayed and others' display

*Factor 2* – (-) SD: Negative emotional display.

*Factor 3* – (-) OD: Others' negative emotional display.

*Factor 4* – (-) EES: Negative experienced emotions self-oriented.

*Factor 5* – (-) EEO: Negative experienced emotions other-oriented.

*Factor 6* – *Compassion* experiences, self-displays and others' displays.

### **Factors reliability**

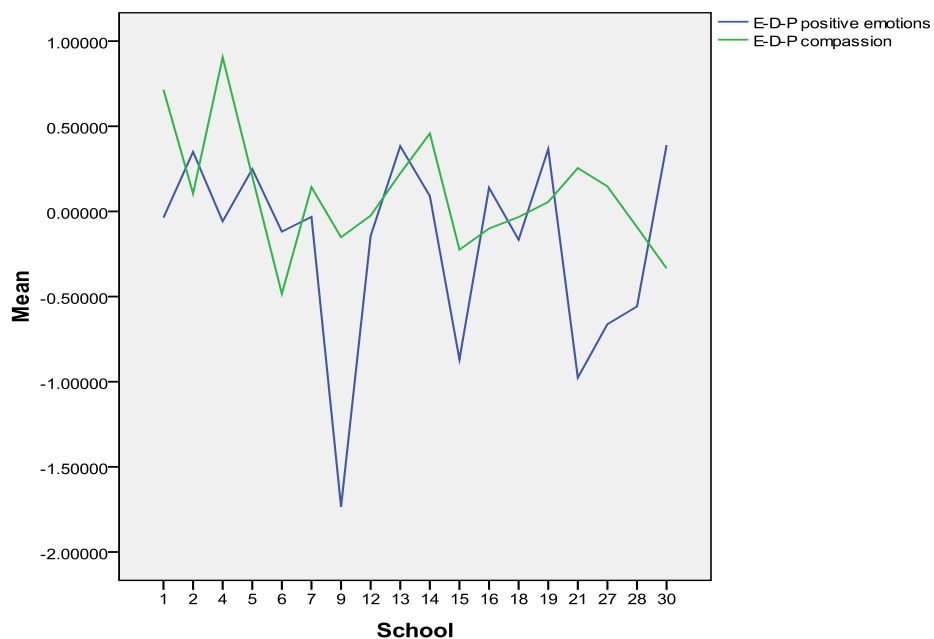
The reliability obtained for *Factor 1* is .875, for *Factor 2* is .894; *Factor 3* is .866; *Factor 4* is .794; for *Factor 5* is .740 and for *Factor 6* is .753. All Cronbach's Alpha coefficients are significant and indicate an acceptable level of reliability for all six factors obtained.

### **Collective emotions by school**

In presenting the results for the six types of emotion clusters identified by school, the scores from staff and Heads were aggregated for each individual school. These emotion clusters will be presented comparatively two by two: positive emotions such as *joy*, *enthusiasm*, *hope* and *satisfaction* will be compared with results obtained by school for *compassion*; negative self-displays and others' displays will be contrasted by school; and finally, negative experiences self-oriented (*guilt*, *shame*, *regret*) will be compared by school with negative experiences other-oriented (*anger*, *envy*, *hatred*, *disgust*).

For *compassion* which is the positive emotion obtaining the lowest scores in the overall findings, most schools have similar scores with the exception of school number 1 and number 4 which have the highest scores for *compassion*. This may be explained by the fact that these two schools are located in the suburbs which are one of the poorest areas in the city and these schools may not be so much focused on performance and competitiveness like most of the other schools, but rather more on addressing students' needs which are in many of the cases of social and financial nature.

In terms of positive collective emotions, there are several schools that stand out with low scores and these are School 9, School 15 and School 21 (*Figure 5.2*).

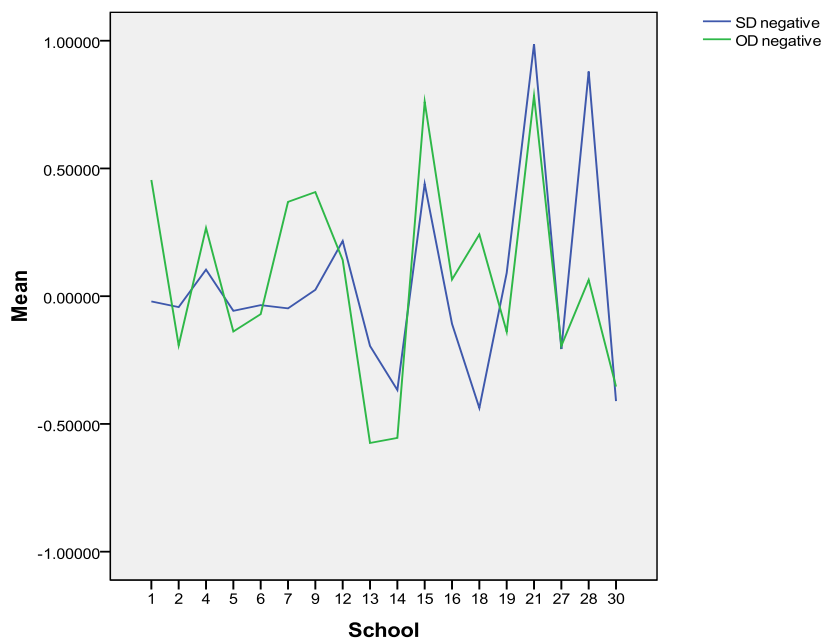


*Figure 5.2* Positive collective emotions by school

*Figure 5.3* compares self and others' displays of negative emotion and these are also aggregated scores of staff and Headteachers from each school. Overall,

others' negative display tends to be higher and opposite to self-displays of negative emotions like in the general findings presented in a previous section of this chapter.

Nevertheless, when looking at individual schools, it can be observed that for some, untypically, the personal display of negative emotions is higher than the one perceived in others.



*Figure 5.3* Negative display of emotion by school

The experience of negative emotions also differentiate into two distinct composites: negative emotions which are self-oriented such as *guilt, shame, regret* and other oriented such as *envy, hatred, disgust*. *Figure 5.4* shows how these emotions differentiate by school.

Generally, negative experiences self-oriented tend to be in opposition with negative experiences that are other-oriented with the exception of School 5 where negative experiences, both self-oriented and other-oriented are quite low.

The following sections will briefly present the survey results of the outcome data measured in this study: leadership outcomes, perceived school success, graduation rates and rates indicating progression to higher levels of education.

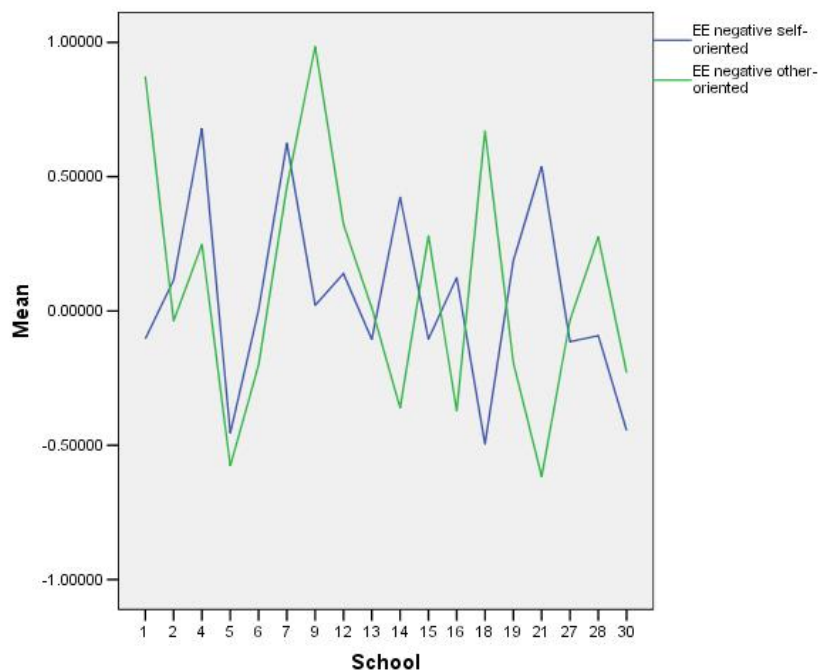


Figure 5.4 Self-oriented and other-oriented negative experiences by schools

### School outcomes

As mentioned before, there are four types of organisational outcomes assessed in this study: outcomes referring to leadership and evaluated by the MLQ 5X questionnaire and these are leadership effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction with leadership. Furthermore, another subjective outcome given by staff's perceptions was the overall satisfaction with school and this outcome was based on the extent to which participants believed that their schools was successful.

Respondents were asked to rate to which extent they thought the sentence ‘My school is successful’ is true for them. Outcome data regarding graduation rates and progress to higher levels of education rates were also collected and reported by the Headteacher from each school.

### Leadership outcomes

There were several types of outcomes that have been measured in this study.

First, leadership outcomes – effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction with leadership – were assessed as part of the standard questionnaire MLQ 5X.

The descriptive results show that, overall, respondents tend to be satisfied with leadership outcomes because *extra effort*, *satisfaction* with leadership and *effectiveness* all obtain high scores in the sample studied when compared to the normative sample for Europe (Bass & Avolio, 2004) and with other transformational or transactional behaviours (Table 5.5).

**Table 5.5** Leadership outcomes. MLQ 5X form descriptive statistics

<i>Leadership outcome</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Normative sample Mean</i>
Effectiveness	320	3.35	2.97
Satisfaction	343	3.38	2.69
Extra effort	338	3.09	2.92

*Perceived school success*, the second subjective outcome measured, was assessed by an item in which respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they believed their school was successful.

**Table 5.6** Perceived school success. Descriptive statistics

<i>My school is successful</i>	<i>Totally agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Totally disagree</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>N</b>	208	102	48	21	10	<b>389</b>
<b>%</b>	53.47	26.22	12.34	5.4	2.57	<b>100</b>

As showed in Table 5.6, the majority of the respondents say they believe their school is successful. Only 2.57% of the respondents totally disagree with the statement “My school is successful”. This is in line with the fact that overall, participants seem satisfied with the effectiveness and the extra effort invested by their leaders in the schools.

The total number of schools of this type in Timisoara is 25, but only 18 participated in the study. Of the 18 participating schools, only 12 Headteachers reported outcome data. All schools report over 95% graduation rates and of all graduates the percentage for progress to higher level of education is 100% for almost all schools. These data are incomplete and therefore will be used with caution in further analyses when exploring the relationships between leadership styles, emotions and organisational outcomes which will be presented next.

### **Leadership styles, collective emotions and organisational outcomes**

The relationship between leadership behaviours, emotions and organisational outcomes are explored using non-parametric correlations to determine whether there is any significant link between these three organisational dimensions, what the direction of this relationship is, and whether positive or negative.

Table 5.7 presents the correlations between leadership styles and school outcomes and the significant positive links were found between the identified ‘hybrid’ style called *rewarding considerate leadership* (RCL) and all outcomes, except graduation and progression rates which are not given because data are incomplete. This may suggest that schools where staff find that leaders put a

good rewarding system in place and they consider staff's individual needs are more likely to be associated with satisfaction and leadership effectiveness as well as with perceived school success.

In contrast, participants appear to be less satisfied with avoidant leaders who seem to be less effective and investing less extra effort. Perceived school success is negatively linked to avoidant leadership meaning that staff where leaders are avoidant tend to believe less that their schools are successful.

**Table 5.7** Non-parametric correlations between leadership styles, leadership outcomes and perceived school success

<i>Spearman's rho</i>		<i>Effectiv.</i>	<i>Satisf.</i>	<i>Extra effort</i>	<i>Perceived school success</i>	<i>Graduation rate</i>	<i>Progression rate</i>
RCL	Correlation Coefficient	.342**	.277**	.415**	.343**	.007	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.008	.000	.000	.945	.605
	N	92	91	96	115	92	92
AL	Correlation Coefficient	-.147	-.072	-.110	-.211*	-.044	-.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.163	.498	.285	.024	.675	.333
	N	92	91	96	115	92	92
ICL	Correlation Coefficient	-.040	-.002	-.037	-.015	.007	.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.702	.981	.724	.870	.945	.605
	N	92	91	96	115	92	92

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Finally, no significant relationship could be found between *Inspirational charismatic leadership* and any of the assessed outcomes. This may mean that charismatic behaviours are not necessarily associated with satisfied staff, with perceived leadership effectiveness or with staff viewing their school as successful.



Furthermore, the relationship between the identified leadership styles and the identified emotion composites or clusters was tested with Spearman's rho test for non-parametric data. *Spearman's Rho coefficients* (Table 5.8) show significant and positive correlation between *inspirational charismatic leadership* and positive emotions (E-D-P positive) and organisational outcomes.

**Table 5.8** Non-parametric correlations between leadership styles and emotion clusters

<i>Emotions/ Correlation Coefficient / Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	<i>Rewarding considerate leadership</i>	<i>Avoidant leadership</i>	<i>Inspirational charismatic leadership</i>
<b>E-D-P positive emotions</b>	<b>.384(**)</b> .000	<b>-.300(**)</b> .000	<b>.380(**)</b> .000
<b>SD negative</b>	<b>-.209(*)</b> .015	<b>.326(**)</b> .000	-.114 .189
<b>OD negative</b>	<b>-.302(**)</b> .000	<b>.307(**)</b> .000	-.094 .279
<b>EE negative self-oriented</b>	<b>-.181(*)</b> .036	.166 .054	-.152 .079
<b>EE negative other-oriented</b>	-.097 .265	.133 .123	-.008 .931
<b>E-D-P compassion</b>	-.062 .471	.020 .817	<b>-.203(*)</b> .018

*Rewarding considerate leadership* is significantly but negatively correlated with all negative emotions either experienced or displayed, except for the negative experienced emotions that are other-oriented and for *compassion*. In other words, where leaders are *rewarding considerate* positive emotions are high, negative displays are low and negative experiences about self are also low. This does not imply that *rewarding leadership* is a determinant of positive emotions, nor that it has a effect on negative emotions other-oriented, because no causal link can be established in the type of design that was used for the study.

Nevertheless, the subjective experiences that staff have about others and

*compassionate* emotions have not been found significantly associated with *rewarding leadership*. This shows a significant association between a certain leadership style and certain types of emotions experienced and displayed in schools.

In contrast, *avoidant leadership* is negatively associated with all positive emotions, but positively linked to negative displays, both self and others' negative displays. No significant relationship was found between *avoidant leadership* and negative emotional experiences regardless where these were self or other-oriented. More negative displays seem to be present where leaders are *laissez-faire* in their approach to school problems.

*Inspirational charismatic* leadership is significantly linked into two types of emotions. Firstly, like the *rewarding considerate* style, *charismatic leadership* is positively linked to positive emotions either experienced or displayed, but it is negatively correlated only with *compassion*. This suggests that schools where leaders are charismatic and inspirational are less compassionate in both experiences and displays. This may be due to the fact that compassion was earlier found to be associated with negative experiences such as *guilt* and *shame* which may not be the type of emotions that leaders may inspire. Nevertheless, this claim may not be supported because *inspirational charismatic* leadership was not found significantly associated in any way with negative emotions self-oriented.

A weaker, but still significantly positive correlation is found between *rewarding considerate leadership*, positive collective emotions and organisational

outcomes, but the relationship between *rewarding considerate leadership* and *compassion* is not significant. Also, perceived school success is highly and positively related to perceived leadership *effectiveness, extra effort* and *satisfaction*.

## **Summary**

The survey results based on the aggregated data from all participant schools and all participant staff revealed three types of leadership styles: *rewarding considerate, charismatic inspirational leadership* and *avoidant leadership* or *laissez-faire leadership*. The findings suggest that the more *rewarding considerate* leaders are the more positive the experiences and displays of emotions are. Also, it shows that that *rewarding considerate leadership* is independent of school size and correlates best with perceived school success and leadership outcomes. Moreover, more experienced Headteachers tend to be less rewarding than inexperienced Heads. The other leadership styles identified are independent of time spent in Headship.

Although positive emotion obtain the highest scores overall, there are schools that do not follow this general pattern. Also, *compassion* is not correlated with other positive emotions and overall, schools obtain low scores for compassion. Nevertheless, the results by school suggest that there are atypical cases that do not follow the general patterns identified, like for example schools in poorer areas seem to be more compassionate than the other schools. The following chapters look into how these overall survey results are reflected into two selected case study schools.

## 6. Case Study 1

### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the relationship between leadership styles, emotions and organisational outcomes in one selected school by:

- Describing leadership styles based on Headteachers' and staff's views
- Investigating emotions that are more often experienced, displayed and perceived in others' displaying while at work
- Presenting staff's perceptions of school effectiveness and success
- Exploring views and understandings of how leadership, emotions and organisational outcomes link.

These themes were investigated using data from questionnaires aimed to assess leadership styles, emotions and school outcomes and also based on data from the interviews with various members of staff by looking at their views on these issues.

The following paragraphs aim to relate results obtained in the two schools to the initial research questions by briefly comparing the main findings.

As stated in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2, the literature suggests that leadership is key to school development and performance and also it has an impact on pupil outcomes. Nevertheless, as argued by Leithwood and colleagues (2007) in their review on transformational leadership, the effects of leadership are indirect.

Among the mediators and moderators found to significantly influence these leadership effects most studies mention organisational culture, teaching methods & quality, school characteristics and job *satisfaction*.

It is argued, therefore, that certain school conditions can be created and influenced by the Headteacher but it is less known what these conditions might be and how can they be created. One of the questions that this study tries to answer is to what extent the emotional aspect of school culture is reflected in the experiences, the displays and the perceptions of other people's displays of emotions at work influence leadership practices and their effects on organisational development and performance.

In order to answer this question, this chapter explores the school staff's understandings of leadership, emotions and school outcomes and provides triangulated evidence from survey and interview data.

In selecting the quotes presented throughout this chapter, there were several criteria taken into consideration:

- *Relevance* to the research questions. The relevance of the quotes represents a researcher's subjective appreciation of which views were found most useful in answering the research questions of this study.
- *Typical or atypical* responses. The researcher sought to present both common and less common or contradictory views to represent a variety of opinions and which can potentially allow for more reflection and a better understanding of the findings.
- *Interviewees' characteristics*. The quotes aim to voice opinions of members of staff having different positions within the school: either leading or non-leading roles, teaching or non-teaching.

## School 1

*“The place where I come with pleasure and I study the way I like it”* (Slogan created by students, 2007)

School 1 is a medium-sized school with 300-500 pupils and 30-40 teaching staff. The number of the non-teaching number is unknown, but the Headteacher advises that there are between five and ten non-teaching staff working in the school. Out of the total number of final year students in form 8, which is the final year in Gymnasium, 99% graduated and 100% of these went to higher levels of education. These levels of higher education include academic and vocational high-schools or technical colleges. There are 24 members of staff taking part in the survey, of which 22 are teachers and two are non-teaching; 18 are female and five are male participants.

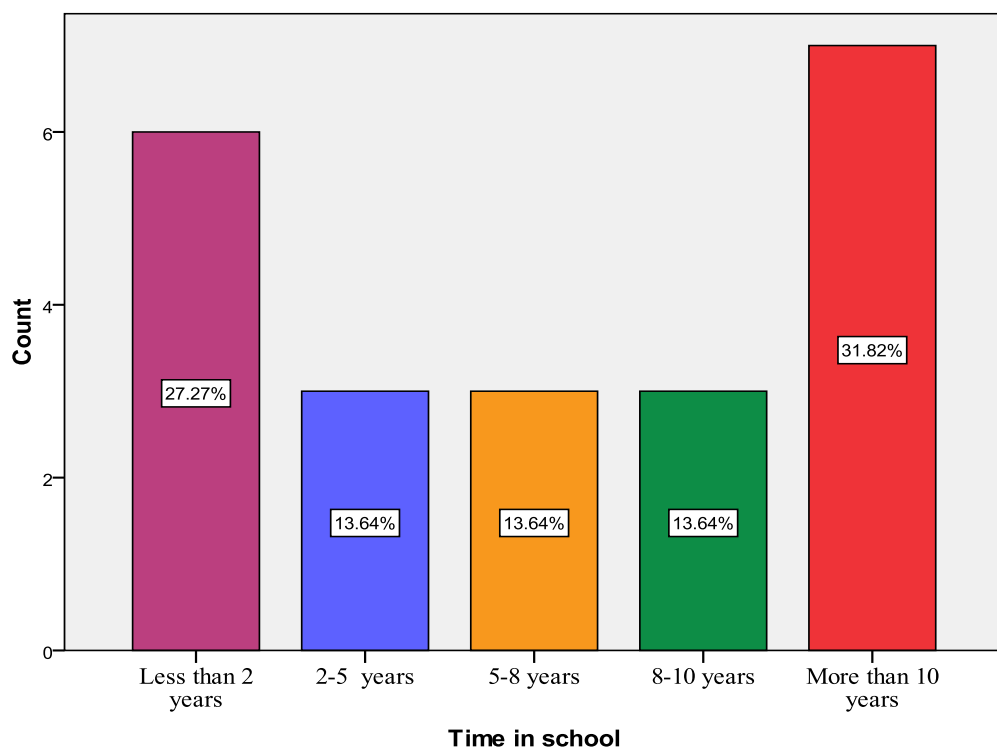


Figure 6.1 Percentages of staff working experience in School 1

As shown in *Figure 6.1* largest numbers of respondents are either very experienced or have very little working experience in this school.

The school is one of the first inclusive schools in the town and one of the most experienced speech therapists in the city is working in this school and she is also a district teacher trainer in this area. Also, the school has specialist gymnastics classes starting with 1<sup>st</sup> grade and, according to the Head, very good sports facilities. The school has just been partially refurbished during the summer previous to the collection of the interview data.

The in-depth presentation of this school will include details about leadership styles, emotions experienced and expressed at work by school staff, and an overview of the relationships between leadership practices, emotions and several aspects of school development and performance. The first aspect that will be described is school leadership, a concept that will be explored by looking at contextualized meanings. These meanings were captured in how staff and the Head herself define school leadership, in their views on staff's accounts of what should be and what are the roles of the school Head, in portraying the ideal school leader, and also of the current leadership style. The findings from the MLQ 5X form questionnaires aiming to assess transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership practices in this school will be presented first. Then more in-depth data from the interviews with seven members of staff will be presented by exploring several themes identified in these interviews.

## **Leadership**

This section aims to answer the following questions:

- What is the dominant leadership style in this school according to the survey results of the MLQ 5X questionnaire and of the interviews with members of staff?
- What contextualized meanings of leadership can be identified in the school
- What are the characteristics of an ideal school leader in respondents' view?

### ***Survey results***

In the survey a total number of 24 members of staff took part in the survey from which 37% hold a leadership position in the school (*Figure 6.2*) from which two are Heads of department and other four teachers holding various leadership roles such as head of departments or project co-ordinators, took part in the survey.

This sample of staff taking part in the survey represents more than 50% of the total teaching staff.

Most respondents did not fill in the questionnaire assessing leadership styles.

From 24 questionnaires, only three respondents answered the questions regarding leadership, therefore descriptive statistics based on the survey will not be presented for this school. This sample is considered too small to be representative for the staff working in this school and little can be concluded based on these insufficient data.

Nevertheless, the survey data is significant for two reasons: firstly, because Headteacher's provides data of how she assesses her leadership styles (Table 6.1); and secondly, because the lack of engagement with the leadership questionnaire – which is not the case with the second questionnaire regarding



emotions – can be seen as an indication that staff were not comfortable assessing their leader and this could be further explored in the interviews.

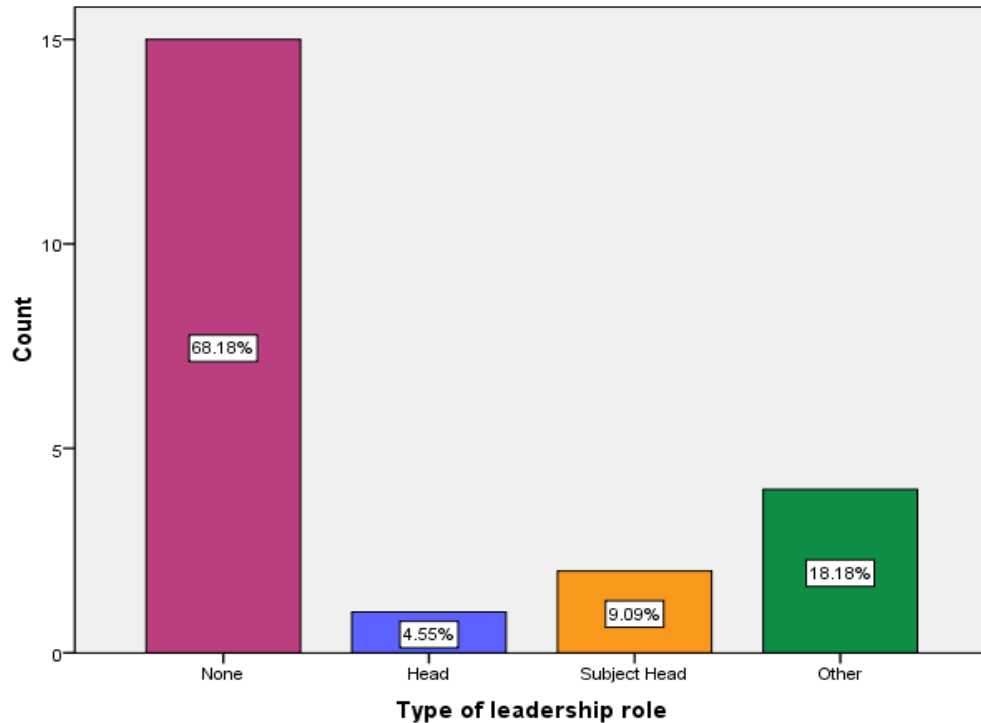


Figure 6.2 Percentages of leadership roles in School 1

The highest scores obtained are for charismatic attributes such as idealized influence attributes and behaviours and for contingent reward.

Nevertheless, the scores given by the three participants who assessed their leader in terms of charismatic behaviours are lower than the self-rated scores, this showing that potentially the leader is either not putting into practice her charismatic attributes or that she is overrating her charismatic attributes. The least typical leadership behaviours are, in Headteacher's view, laissez-faire behaviours and leadership by exception passive.

**Table 6.1** Descriptive statistics. Headteacher’s self-rated scores for the MLQ sub-components

<b><i>Transformational leadership</i></b>	
Individualized influence behaviours	3
Individualized influence attributes	4
Individualized stimulation	3.25
Inspirational motivation	4
Individual consideration	3.75
<b><i>Transactional leadership</i></b>	
Contingent reward	4
Management by exception passive	0.5
Management by exception active	3.75
<b><i>Laissez-faire</i></b>	
	1

Because of the very limited number of answers in the MLQ 5X questionnaire referring to leadership style, the type of leadership that is currently in practice in the school will be further explored by looking at the interview data with seven members of staff. These findings will be presented in the following section.

### ***Interview findings***

The interviews took place five months after the survey data was collected. There were seven participants who agreed to take part in the interviews at the request of the deputy Head who was at her turn asked by the Head to help the researcher with the study. The implications of a self-selecting sample were discussed in the *Methodology Chapter*. The author of this thesis acknowledges the potential bias associated with this type of sample and especially the fact that these members of staff are potentially more engaged with the school than other teachers and therefore would be not representative for all the teachers working in this school.

The interview participants were all female and some hold leadership roles, others do not. Some are very experienced and have worked in the school for

more than 20 years, whereas others have just started working there. Also, some are teaching staff, some participants are part of the support or administrative staff. The interviewees give an account of their professional background and experience and how they came to teach and work in this particular school. The following paragraphs summarize these personal descriptions made by the participants to the interviews.

- The Head has been working in this school for 22 years, has been a deputy Head for 7 years and a full Head for 1 year. At the time of the interview she was in her second year of Headship.
- The Deputy Head is a Mathematics teacher and although has been teaching in this school for only four years, she has an overall teaching experience of 23 years. She has been appointed Deputy Head one year prior to the interview. She says she wished she became an engineer but failed the admission exam and so decided to become a teacher.
- The Head of the IT Department has been teaching in this school for 14 years and has 27 years of teaching experience in various schools across the city including very good schools or “elitist” schools as she calls them.
- The Speech Therapist is the most senior member of staff taking part in the interviews. She is a teacher trainer in Speech Therapy and has been working in this particular school for 17 years.
- One of the most experienced primary school teachers from School 1 has also taken part in the interviews. She has been working in this school for 32 years which represents her entire professional life.
- A new primary school teacher who has just started working in the school has moved from another smaller city after getting married and moving to Timisoara just recently. She has 10 years of teaching experience as a primary school teacher in different part of the country.
- The school administrator has joined the school one year prior to the interview and it is her first job in a school. She used to work as a clerical assistant in a solicitor’s office.

### **Understandings of leadership**

Before looking at how the interviewees describe current leadership style, a brief summary of how staff understand leadership roles, and how they portray an ideal school leader, will be presented.

For the Headteacher a school leader should have good organisational skills, a clear vision of all school activities, good delegating skills, but also to have patience in managing relationships. Moreover, the Head believes that a school leader should be able to mediate tensed relationships and listen to everybody. The Head seems to emphasize transactional practices and individual consideration towards each member of her staff (transformational). This view is summarized below:

They have to be good organizers, to have a vision of all activities that need to be included, to know how to delegate tasks. I don't know, many. But these [qualities] are priorities. (...) To be a good diplomat and have patience, to have energy for work because it is a lot of hard work (Headteacher)

For the Head of the IT Department it is crucial that a leader is a team player and it is able solve problems in a team. This finding is significant because it the only interviewee who states explicitly that in her opinion leading a school is a matter of teamwork and sharing responsibilities. She says:

I think that teamwork is important. If you have a team that supports you then you also get the results. But if you try to get them together but they have different agendas, then no matter how good a Head you are, you can't work effectively. (IT Head of department).

The primary school teacher believes that the Head should be physically more present among her colleagues and relate to them from an equal position as colleague, not as a boss. Moreover, this teacher believes that Headteachers should be school administrators, not leaders and that they could create a climate of fear they are given the power to employ and fire staff, for instance:

I think we are afraid even now, although we don't have reasons to be afraid now to say something. If this situation changes, you would really have to keep your head down if you wanted to keep your job. (Primary school teacher young)

The staffing problem was mentioned by the IT teacher and the school administrator and it is seen as a serious problem in obtaining the desired results at school level. The school administrator explains:

People come and go and young people who come one year in a school know that she or he will leave next year, so they don't put effort in what they do. If they knew that they would work in a school for longer they would put more heart into their work. And it is good for children as well and they start knowing each other better (Administrator)

The new primary school teacher thinks that it is in Head's power to decide on how children should be allocated to their classes, and suggests that this is not happening in the school which is creating a tensed situation among members of staff. At the moment, there are only two 1<sup>st</sup> grade classes created at the beginning of school year and parents were free to choose between two teachers who are both participants in the interviews of this study. Most parents chose the more experienced and known teacher which created an unbalanced and unfair situation, believes the new primary teacher who says:

It's a free market and you can go wherever you want and this is also related to school management where the Head could say: 'ok, come to our school, but you can't choose the teacher'. So if 60 children enrol, they will be distributed equally between the two teachers. But this is not happening here. (Primary school teacher 2)

A clearer picture of how school staff understand school leadership and leadership roles is provided in the next section looking at how school staff view the ideal Headteacher.

### **The ideal school leader**

In the opinion of the most senior member of the staff who took part in the interview, the ideal school leader should be able to adapt to different situations explaining that a school with poorer results or where the staff is less involved requires a more authoritative style. She also adds that ideal leaders would:

ask for feedback from staff about whether they agree with their style or not; would be intelligent, good teachers because they need to know how to assess teachers and teaching assistants, be able to understand people's problems, be sociable, emotionally balanced, able to communicate very well with families and community and to choose intelligent people in their team. (Speech therapist)

The idea of fairness and having individual consideration towards all members of staff is emphasized by several interviewees. For these, Head's ability to create a positive environment for working and being a good negotiator are key qualities of a good leader. These are some of the respondents' thoughts on the importance of fairness and diplomacy in leadership role:

'I have to think about students, parents, teachers'; diplomacy; needs to be fair. (Deputy Head, Maths).

The following section will focus on how the participants in the interviews see the current leadership style.

## **Description of leadership style**

The general consensus about the current leadership style is positive in the sense that the Headteacher is seen as a good leader especially due to her qualities of a setting a relaxed tone in the school and because of her negotiating skills. This general view is reflected in the following quotes:

Leadership is very good; the climate is good, you feel safe, no stress, nobody yells.

They (leading team) are firm about the tasks to be done, and use an appropriate language. The style is democratic; anyone can bring ideas and discuss them with the leadership; not too many punishments. (Speech Therapist)

The Head herself thinks that she has the qualities that she considers to be a necessary requisite of a good leader:

I think I am a good diplomat, a reconciling person, understanding, I listen to everybody in general and I think I am a pretty good organizer. (Headteacher School 1)

In terms of some of the weaknesses of the current leadership, one of the new primary school teachers finds the style sometimes superficial and would like the Headteacher to be more present among her colleagues:

I think it is early to draw any conclusions but I find it a bit superficial (...) in the sense that we want to get results, we want school to have a good reputation, you have to work hard, you have to do that, but the Head spends too little time with us, the teachers, and so (...) nobody is really interested in working hard. (Primary school teacher 2)

Although it may seem that the Headteacher is sometimes perceived as being less involved in school activities, the Deputy Headteacher seems to have a more

pragmatic, hands on approach to leadership which is reflected in this self-evaluation:

I don't like to say the same thing seven times; I don't want people to waste my time. If I think I am not respected I don't react too well. I am more into detail and a task oriented person. If I have to do something at a particular time, I persist until I finish it. (Deputy Head, Maths)

Unlike the Deputy Head, the Headteacher talks more about her desire to expand her knowledge and skills as a teacher, not only as a leader.

I am a teacher trainer in career guidance and counselling which I enjoy very much. And being a teacher trainer I need to take part in school inspections of the Inspectorate for these topics. So maybe I am caught up in a lot of activities and then it is quite hard, but I manage or I try to manage. (Headteacher)

It seems that the two ladies leading the school complement each other in their leadership styles, one being more pragmatic and task-oriented, while the Head is more focused on personal professional development and school development as a whole. A concern that was raised by two of the teachers who were interviewed is the fact that the Head, as she herself admits, has not enough time to be present among her colleague teachers which may create a distance between the staff and their leader.

These relationships and the general emotional climate in the school but also the specific emotions that are experienced and perceived in others at work will be explored further on in the following section.



## **Emotions**

These next paragraphs will focus on how school staff describe their emotional experiences, but also how they perceive the general climate in the school, how do they see the experiences of their colleagues, what are the main triggers or antecedents of emotional experiences. Similarly to the previous section, these results are drawn from survey and interview data collected in School 1.

### ***Survey findings***

Unlike the findings on leadership style from the questionnaires, the data on emotions is more complete, and therefore more representative for the whole school.

A total score for each type of emotion was computed by adding values obtained for assessed experiences, self-displays and others' displays.

*Figure 6.3* and *Figure 6.4* summarize results for these total scores obtained for positive emotions (*joy, enthusiasm, satisfaction, pride, surprise, hope, compassion*), negative emotions self-oriented (*embarrassment, shame, guilt, regret, fear, sadness, boredom* and other-oriented (*envy, hatred, anger, irritation, upset* and *disgust*). Because emotions data is more normally distributed, means of staff's scores are computed and are compared with scores obtained by the Head and with means computed in the general sample.

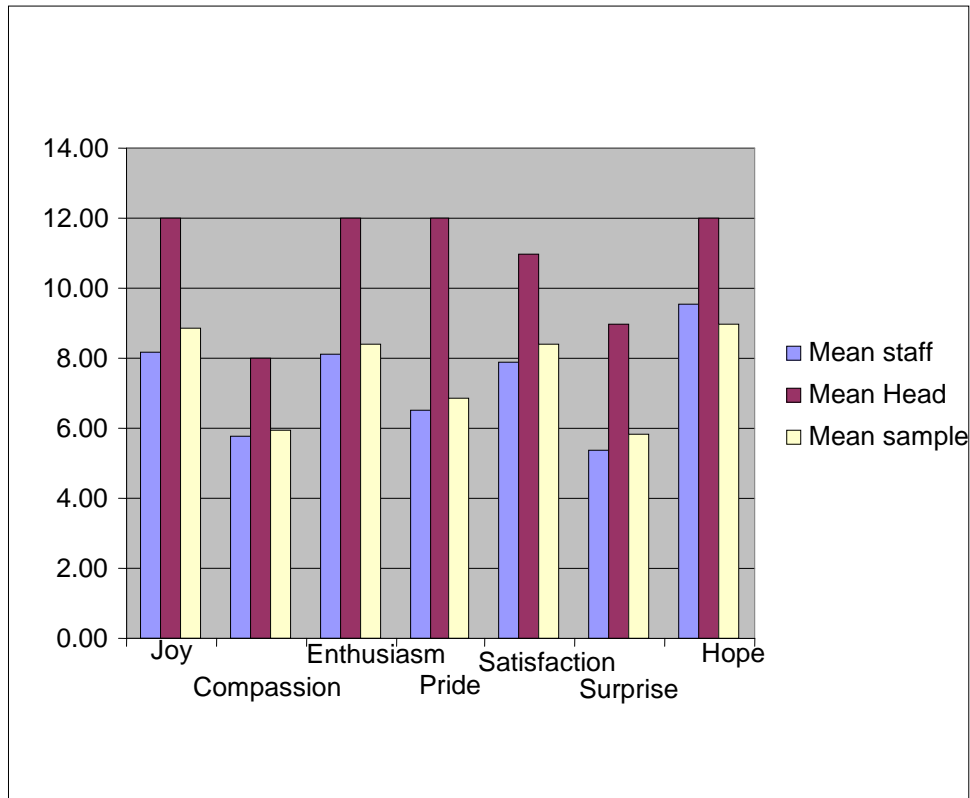


Figure 6.3 of views on positive emotions within School 1

As a general tendency, the scores that the Headteacher's scores for positive emotions are higher in comparison with the staff's mean score and the means from the whole sample. *Surprise* and *compassion* obtained the lowest scores both in Headteacher's and in staff's ratings which is consistent with the results obtained in the overall sample in which these two emotions obtained the low values.

As for the negative emotions, *Figure 6.4* shows that Headteacher's reports no experience or self-display of *guilt*, *fear* and *embarrassment* for which the score is 0. Headteacher's maximum score out of all negative emotions is for *sadness* and this is also higher than the scores obtained by school staff.

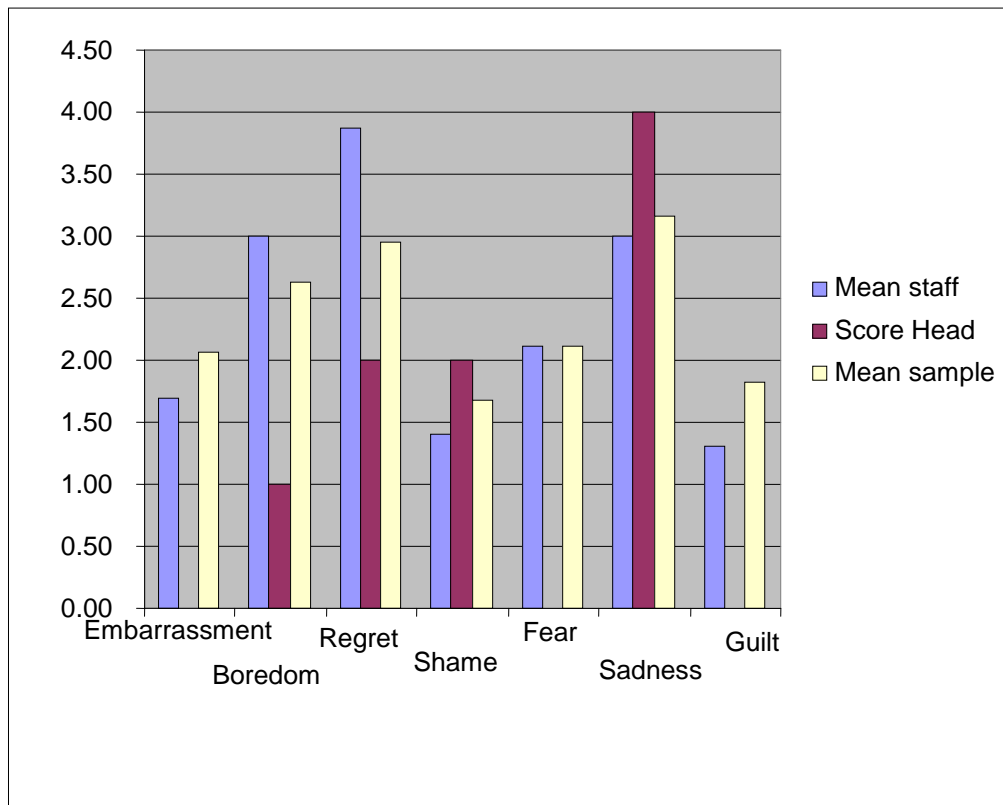
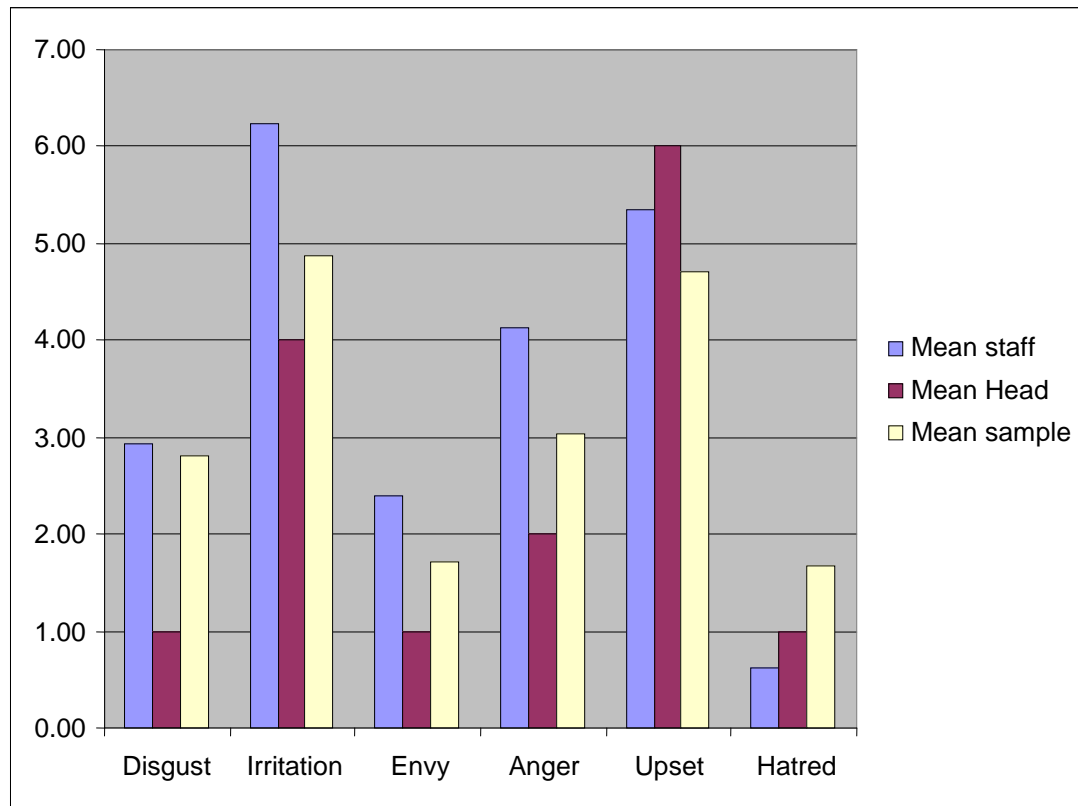


Figure 6.4 Comparison of views on negative self – oriented emotions within School 1

Scores for negative other-oriented emotions tend to be higher than scores for negative self-oriented emotions which suggests negative experiences and displays (Figure 6.5). For instance, scores for *irritation* and *upset* are comparable with means obtained in the general sample and are also the highest among the other negative emotions. These results are expected because of the nature of these emotions which could be considered more socially accepted and more present in the day to day activity. In opposition, *hatred* obtains the lowest scores in the general sample and in this school’s sample for staff and Head as well. Scores for *hatred* are consistently low compared with the overall sample of all participant schools. Nevertheless, unlike the scores obtained in the general sample, emotions of *anger* are experienced and displayed more by staff sample compared to Head’s score and with the means obtained in the general sample.

Higher rates for *anger*, *irritation* and *envy* show suggest a possible tension among staff which will be further explored in the interviews.



*Figure 6.5* Comparisons of views on negative other – oriented emotions within School 1

### Emotion clusters

The following results reflect how different the identified emotion clusters appear in this school’s sample. These clusters or composites were identified through Confirmatory factor analysis as shown in the previous chapter and was performed on all items assessing common experiences, self-displays and others’ displays of emotions. A general aggregated score for each of these emotion composites was computed for this school by taking into account both staff’s and Headteacher’s ratings. The results for this school are shown in *Figure 6.6*. As scores from the factor analysis were normalized, the mean obtained in the

overall survey sample is 0 and scores obtained in School 1 for each emotion cluster are compared against this mean (0).

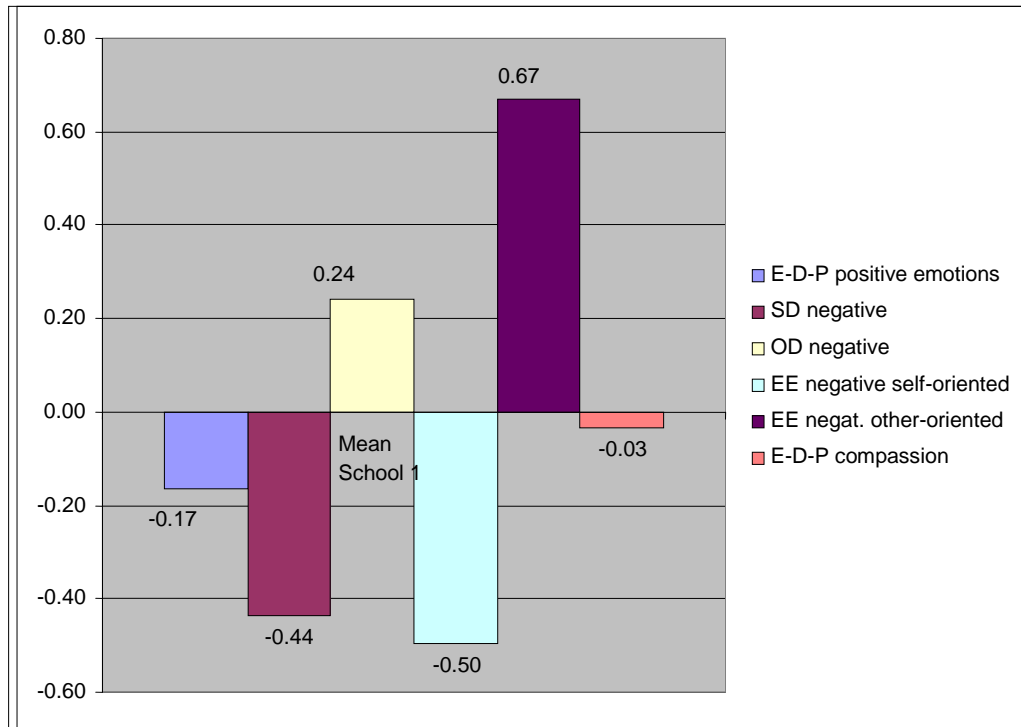


Figure 6.6 Clusters of emotions in School 1.

Figure 6.6 shows how scores for the identified emotion clusters compared with 0 which is the mean for the overall sample. Thus, in this school, positive collective emotions obtain lower scores compared with the general sample that includes responses from all 18 participant schools. Similarly, negative self-display and negative experiences self-oriented are less dominant compared with the whole sample. In contrast to the collective emotions found at the general level in all schools from Timisoara, in this particular school negative emotions perceived in others displaying at work and also experienced negative affect other-oriented seem to be dominant. In terms of *compassion*, this school's scores are close to the general trend with a mean score slightly lower than the general

mean. As suggested by findings from the aggregated scores for each type of emotions, the results for the 6 composites suggest that negative emotions related to others tend to be higher than the mean in this school.

These findings will be further explored by looking at the themes that emerged from the interviews with the seven members of staff including the deputy Headteacher and the Headteacher.

### ***Interview findings. Contextualized meanings of emotions.***

The next section will present staff's views on the school climate and on specific emotions that are found experienced and displayed most often as well as the events that most usually trigger these experiences.

As suggested by the results from the questionnaires, the interviews' results also picked up on some of the issues that constitute concerns for staff.

### **Positive emotions**

In terms of the dominant positive emotions that are experienced in school in general, participants in the interviews think that certain emotions are dominant within the school. Thus, most interviewees talk about are *enthusiasm, hope, satisfaction* and *joy* as being dominant for themselves and for the colleagues, whereas *compassion* and *surprise* are discussed by only two of the respondents. This finding correlates with the result of the survey where the same two emotions were least dominant both in this school and in the general sample as well.

The sources for *enthusiasm, joy, satisfaction* and *pride* are both internal, from finding new, personal and creative ways of teaching as the Head of the IT department mentions or even because these are personality traits. The predominant sources of these emotions are external, rooted in the results and the appreciation of the main stakeholders as most of the respondents suggest. The Headteacher exemplifies:

Results that we achieve with the children, children's appreciation, parents' appreciation and from the community. It is very often that people from the neighbourhood congratulate us and tell us something nice about our work. (Headteacher)

The deputy Head talks about the sources that her *satisfaction* and *joy* at work:

I have many pleasant memories from the fact that majority of students manage to succeed in what they want and this gives me satisfaction; when students recommend me for tutorials always fills me with joy (Deputy Headteacher)

The surprises usually come from students as one of the Headteacher explains:

From the children in class, if you try to get close to a student that is average is you know he or she is average and I have been teaching him or her for 2 year and I have a surprise sometimes when she makes progress which changes my whole perspective on that person (IT Head of department)

In what *hope* is concerned, which seems to be the most dominant emotions reported in the general sample, there are two views that illustrate how staff might relate to feelings of *hope*. For one of the interviewees, *hope* is seen as a counterbalance for regret in the sense that whenever she feels regret for not being able to do something, there is always *hope* that the things could be better.

On the other hand, one teacher's interview was surprising when it came to talking about *hope* because it contrasted strongly with how all the other interviews in which all the participants talked about *hope* as something they all experience and hold on to. This lady holds an important leadership role within the school as a Head of department and she also talks enthusiastically about her work throughout the interview, therefore the fact that she openly says that she does not have *hope* in relation to her work contrasted not only with her colleagues' views but it also seemed discordant with her *enthusiasm* and dedication to work. She does not talk more about negative emotions either, the only negative experience she mentions is *irritation* which she considers as part of her work and which is mainly triggered by students' behaviour or not listening to her.

I hope that I can gain the trust of all my colleagues. I don't say this because I did something that could make me untrustworthy, I say this because they don't know me yet and I hope that I can prove that I am as good or maybe better than them (Primary school teacher).

As for the things that some members of staff *hope* for, these are either related to gaining colleagues' trust, or related to students' improvement of results or progress or to improvement of school's result as a whole. Some of the most negative emotions experienced and displayed and what triggers them will be discussed next.

### **Negative emotions**

The most common negative emotionality such as *irritation*, *frustration*, *stress* and *dissatisfaction* are mentioned in the interview by all members of staff and



these are triggered most of the time by external factors such as paper work, producing statistical reports required by the Ministry of Education or having low wages and not feeling rewarded for their work. Children are also sometimes sources of *irritation* due to their behaviour, but very few teachers mention children as being a significant trigger of negative affectivity.

Other teachers, on the other hand, explain that there are other significant sources of negative emotions which are triggered by broken relationships either between staff or between staff and parents. She thinks that:

If in the unfortunate situation of a staff reduction maybe it will be me leaving. This is the stress that we are confronting with at the moment because you have to keep up with and do as many things as possible and do more than the other colleague because if something happens it should be somebody else and not me losing my job. (Primary school teacher 2)

The Speech Therapist who is the most experienced of the staff interviewed supports the idea in saying that colleagues could sometimes be the source of *upset* for the other. She explains:

I am upset when I see young teachers lacking enthusiasm we had at their age and are not too much involved; maybe they are displeased because they had different expectations from their job/position and the work is not recognised (Speech Therapist)

The concern related to relationships as source of negative affectivity within the school is raised by the Deputy Headteacher who says:

The biggest frustration is that there is a fracture between school and parents and students; the cooperation with parents is broken; parents do not admit they have

problem children when teachers declare they have no reasons to be subjective; parents want easy academic life for their children; parents do not believe the school wants the best for their children (Deputy Headteacher)

Also, one of the most talked about emotions both in terms of number of people who mention it and the amount of discussion is related to *envy* among teaching staff. The Headteacher's nevertheless does not seem concerned with this fact that envy seems to be a concern for the members of staff, on the contrary she thinks that it is rather normal for people to feel envious at each other. She explains:

It is normal to feel envious when working in a large team; I believe envy is part of the human nature (Headteacher)

There seems to be a discrepancy between staff's concern with the existence of this negative experience of *envy* among the school staff which affects relationships and the apparent nonchalant attitude of the Headteacher towards this situation which was mentioned previously to relate to the rewarding system existing in school and also directly linked to teachers' final evaluation.

The other negative experiences a couple of participants talk about is *regret* or *guilt* for not finishing the work they had committed to. The Headteacher talks about her *anxiety* of finishing all the work on time:

There is fear that I don't manage to do everything, that I don't finish on time, that I don't have all the paper in order on time. (...) I think there is way too much paper work and there is too little time for practical things. (Headteacher)

The two emotions that are sometimes labelled as intellectual emotions in the

literature, namely *surprise* and *boredom* are not mentioned in the interviews which is in accordance with the results from the survey where they received one of the lowest mean scores, but the Headteacher points out that there is really no time to get bored when having a leadership position in a school.

### **Relationships and school climate**

The interviews uncover some of the possible sources for negative affectivity experienced and displayed by school staff at work. Overall, the interviews suggest that the school climate is relaxed and the leadership not too authoritative. Nevertheless, there are concerns that staff have with regard to leadership rewarding practices for staff which are apparently the source of distress in school. One of the new primary school teachers says:

The climate is nice in school, people seem open although at two of the school meetings there were issues that remained unsolved (...) related to management and relationships. (...) I noticed in this school and in the previous school where I worked that the same thing happens: the Head proposes people for certain roles and nobody has the courage to say: hold on a second, this person did this last year, maybe somebody else should take the role this year, because I might need some points for the evaluation as well. (Primary school teacher 2)

Another colleague who is the IT Head of department says the general atmosphere is good but the high staff turnover is significantly affecting work relationships:

I enjoy the company of my colleagues. I don't have anything good or bad to say. I am talking now about the main nucleus because the young teachers come and go and I don't really know them and I don't go to the staff's room to see them. (...) I haven't

heard anyone complaining that they don't like the school. (IT Head)

She also suggest that relationships among staff might be influenced by differences of opinions due to personal style of teaching and that some members of staff are more traditional in their teaching methods but who might as well produce very good results in national exams at more “important” topics such as Mathematics or Romanian language. She explains:

There are people who are very traditional and have good results, but from my point of view for these subjects that finalize in a national exam maybe teachers' responsibility is much bigger than those who teach arts, chemistry etc. So probably for those subjects the methods are more strict. (IT Head of Department)

On the other hand, the school administrator who does not have any teaching hours looks at the school climate from a different perspective especially by taking in consideration the physical environment of the school and by looking at the school's activities from an outsider perspective:

The two primary school teachers advised that if they could change something about the school climate this has to be the *envy* and the *gossip*. The more experienced teacher also added that she would love to see more teamwork in the school. She thinks that:

In the last years the climate changed in negative; there is a lack of team work (Primary school teacher old),

but also finds the professional development courses help teacher know each other better and also might contribute to building more cohesive teams.

Survey results showing that the negative emotions other-oriented are more prevalent than in the general sample seem to be supported by views that a member of staff hold regarding the sources of negative emotions:

The dominant negative sources come from the colleagues. This fight for points in the evaluation brought us to a stage where we are not so much of a team, where we find out about something and we go together. It doesn't happen like this, if somebody finds out about an event taking place, I keep it for myself, I present a paper, and then I present the attendance certificate because I am afraid that somebody else would get the certificate as well

The system of teacher evaluation seems to be a source of tension and anxiety for staff, but also of negative emotions oriented towards the other members of staff. This issue will be further discussed in the next section which will present views of school and staff evaluation, but also of what success and effectiveness means for a school.

### **School outcomes**

Several aspects of organisational development and performance were studied in the survey and in the interviews. While the interviews explored understandings of what constitutes a successful school in participants' views and what were their views on current teaching and institutional evaluation practices, the survey collected quantitative data on four types of organisational outcomes:

- perceptions of school success
- perceptions of leadership outcomes: satisfaction with leadership, leadership extra effort and leadership effectiveness
- student graduation rate
- student progression to higher levels of education

According to the data provided by the Headteacher, in the year previous to the data collection for this study, a total of 99.20% graduated the 8<sup>th</sup> form from which 100% were admitted to higher levels of education. Data from the MLQ questionnaire is insufficient to show results for leadership outcomes: satisfaction with leadership, extra effort and leadership effectiveness.

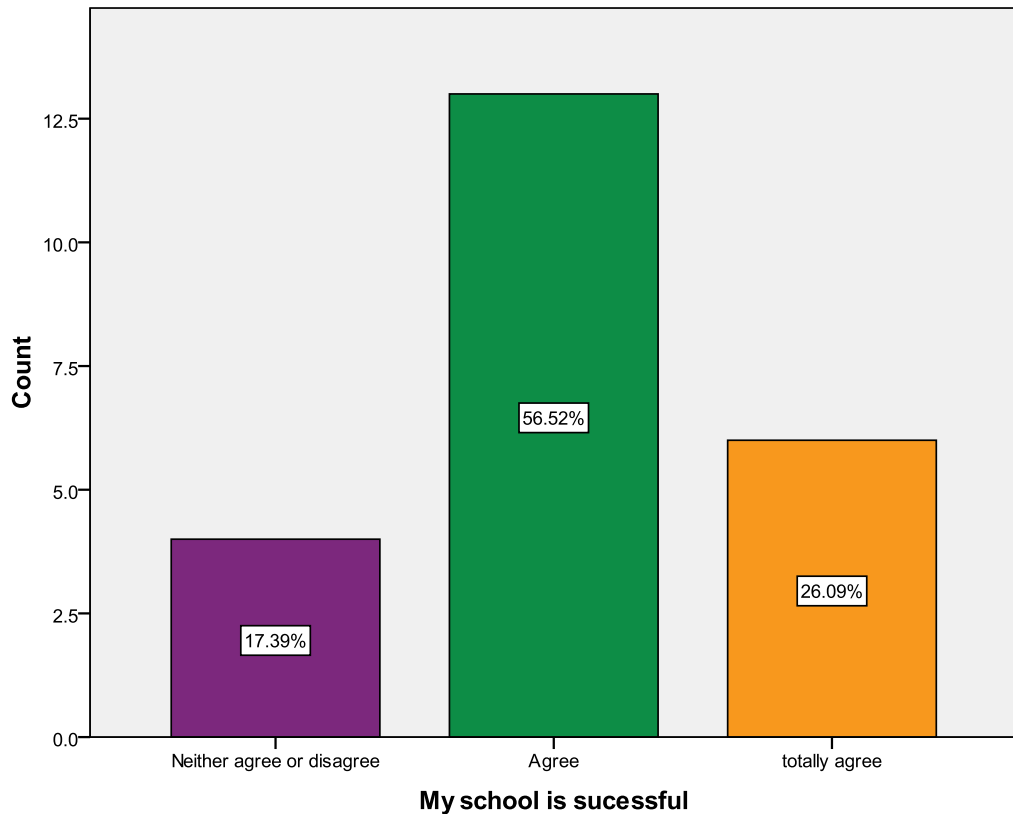


Figure 6.7 Perceptions of school success in School 1

Nevertheless, when asked to what extent the staff agrees with the statement ‘My school is successful’, almost 80% out of the 23 respondents either agree or totally agree with the statement (Figure 6.7).

According to the results from the survey, both pupils’ outcomes and leadership outcomes are better than the average pupils and leadership outcomes obtained in

the whole sample. At the same time, for this school, the scores for the general perception are below the average scores obtained in the general sample. This apparent discrepancy will be further explored by looking at the interview data with the seven staff participants by looking at understandings of school success and by attempting to draw the portrait of an ideal school as seen by the school staff. The results from the survey are also compared with staff's evaluations of school results and success.

***Interview findings. Contextualized meanings of school success***

The extent to which a school is successful is perceived differently across the schools that took part in the survey and the results show that members of school staff rate their school as being more or less successful, but how success is perceived and what are the meanings that the Headteacher and the school staff of a successful or a "good" school are also important for the understanding of these differences of views. In this school, when asked to what extent their school is seen successful the results from the survey show that the score for the perceived success is lower than the average obtained in the whole sample. On the other hand, the graduate rates are higher than the average and also the rate of graduates who progress into high school is 100%. Possible explanations of these findings are suggesting that perceptions of success are not as good compared with the actual student results. The following section will try to provide some answers for this question by looking into staff's understandings of school success.

### **A good / successful school**

School ‘success’ is perceived in very different ways by the participants to the interviews: the Headteacher thinks that the ‘European school’ is taken as the golden standard which all schools should be aiming for. Some of the qualities of a ‘European school’ are good facilities and excellent teaching quality. The Head believes that these two factors are key factors leading to success and also indicators by which a school can be evaluated as successful. The quality of teaching is reflected, according to the participants, in the use of creative and modern methods of teaching which are in contrast with the “traditional” teaching and learning and is also reflected in the teachers’ training.

On the other hand, success per se seems to be contested and this links into the criticism of the divide between good and weak students. The Speech Therapist is one of the critics of this divide and she believes that a successful school is not necessarily a school with good results, but a school that can provide for all children.

I don't believe there are good or bad schools; all children are good and as a school you need to discover their latent potential (...) I would say this school is the best because it has 13 years of integrated provision and can offer good services for children with severe learning difficulties and in the same time for “olimpici” [gifted and talented]”.  
(Speech Therapist).

In accordance with these personal understandings of success this school is seen as one of the better schools in the city and seems to satisfy the personal expectations of the interviewees. On the other side though, the school market is a free market and the more students a school attracts and the better reputation it



has, the more successful it is considered and vice versa.

### **School evaluation**

The formal evaluation that is undertaken by the Ministry of Education through District School Inspectorates and ARACIPs and which should be more objective, these do not seem to weigh that much for the parents who are the main stakeholders for the schools. From the interviews, there is no mention of the usefulness of the formal evaluation or of their impact on parents' decisions.

At the moment the external evaluation is done by ARACIP so I don't know how will that work out (...) If we were to take in consideration the performance criteria we say that the situation is good or very good (...)

There seems to be a consensus among participants in the interview that based on the formal evaluations carried out by the ARACIP the school is a successful school. One teacher says:

From the Inspectorate we always had good evaluations, very good. (IT Head of department)

Although the results seem to be good, there appear to be at least two flaws in the evaluation undertaken by School Inspectorates identified by one of the primary school teachers: one has to do with the evaluation of students' progress and work which is based on paperwork and not on real assessment of knowledge or skills and the second is with regard to teachers' evaluation who are assessed on criteria such as providing teaching material which should not be in the responsibility of the teacher.

This may explain why the participants to the interviews focus more on how parents evaluate schools and how they make their decisions of where to enrol their children. The fact that parents' evaluation of school is important in the overall evaluation of a school is important because it reflects the reality of what the so-called free market of schools when it comes to student enrolment. The Headteacher explains how this market is regulated by the law and how it functions in reality:

According to the regulations according to which each school functions, you must enrol children that are in your catchment area. This is the law. But this does not mean that you cannot enrol children from other catchment areas. Parents are free to choose their school. (...) If the child is not part of your catchment area and the number of pupils for each class is too large, then the administration committee decides whether the child is admitted to the school or not. The competition between the four schools in this area is not always fair, unfortunately. (Headteacher).

The Headteacher believes because of this unregulated market, schools need to have a unique selling point and she explains how this school is different from the others and although the school seems to have a clear specific that could attract more students to enrol, other teachers believe that parents have their own criteria for evaluating the school.

There seems to be a consensus among the interviewees about the important of the teacher for the primary school students. For their parents, the school is less important than the teachers themselves which creates the VIP teacher effect meaning that "teachers attract students if they are 'stars' VIP" (Primary school teacher 1). This might create tension as it was mentioned in a previous section

when leadership style were discussed and where a point was made that the Headteacher needs to regulate the allocation of students into classes so that the less known teachers or the teachers who are not VIP can have as many students as other teachers who are more known.

In summary, from the interviews, it seems that the school's success is influenced by the quality of teaching and facilities, also by students' results because parents look at the students' grades. Still, there is no objective evidence published or made available by the Government that could help parents make their decisions. Instead, reputation and mouth-to-mouth word, other parents' and kindergartens staff's recommendations are the key factors that influence the way the school market functions and parents' decisions.

When asked about school outcomes and success and their relationship with emotions and leadership, three out of seven interviewees think that the relationships between students and teachers (Speech therapist), the way the students "feel" at school (Deputy Headteacher) and the Headteacher's setting the tone (primary school teacher young) are key to school success. The primary school teacher summarizes:

From my point of view a school would be successful if it had a good manager. And there is a saying that fish starts to spoil from the Head and it's very true. (Primary school teacher young)

This relationship between leadership and school outcomes and also between the emotions experienced at work and the general school climate and results or

effectiveness either personal or organisational will be further explored in the next sections.

## **Relationship between leadership, emotions and outcomes**

### ***Leadership – outcomes***

The ways the Headteacher can influence the results are, according to the participants at the interview, by supporting and motivating the teachers. It is essential, nevertheless, that teacher get involved themselves and have initiative. The Head of the IT Head of department explains this relationship and illustrates with an example from her experience:

I personally, have always felt supported. And this was for me very important. (...) Many of my colleagues complain: “I can’t do that, I can’t do the other...” and I realized that it is a big deal to have Headteacher’s support. It is an extraordinary help, if you want to get involved as well. For example if I join a contest and I need to order a book and I need a certain type of equipment, the school will buy it for us. (...) But it has to start with the teacher and from the teacher to the Head. (Head of IT Department)

The speech therapist talks about this support coming from the Headteacher in the specific activities in which she as a professional is involved like various projects for the integration of students with special educational needs such as learning difficulties.

Headteacher’s the role in obtaining good academic results in national exams is considered important but it seems to be insufficient if the staff are not “conscientious” themselves. In contrast with the IT teacher who believes that the initiative should come from the teachers, the primary school teacher thinks that

it is the Headteacher to make the first step in creating a certain type of environment that encourages people to get involved. She explains:

An important factor here is how conscientious everybody is. I think the Head is indeed essential because as long as Heads manages to create a climate that does not necessarily have to be relaxed, it can be competitive which would be very good, then I myself, as an employee, or teacher or however you want to call me, I would go to my classroom wishing to prove myself, to show what I can do and this has an impact on children as well. So there is a loop here, things are linked, although there is the other side as well: yes, I want to prove myself even if the Head doesn't like me for example. (Primary school teacher 1)

Although there are different views on the importance of the leadership role in obtaining results in comparison with teachers' involvement and initiative, there is still a consensus that the Headteacher's support is essential for teachers in order to get the desired results. The main ways by which the Headteacher can influence the results is by individually motivating, stimulating and supporting teachers in their initiatives and / or by creating that environment of trust and even competitiveness that encourages and stimulates staff to get want to "prove themselves", as the primary school teachers said.

The next section aims to explore the role of the leader in creating the positive environment and culture and ways by which a Head can influence school environment.

### ***Leadership and emotions***

The qualities that a Headteacher should have in order to be able to create a positive climate that allows for the experience of positive emotions at work is, according to the Head of the IT Department:

To be sociable, open to staff's needs, to be a good listener because not everybody goes to see the Head with very important issues but they have to listen to everybody. And you know, our Headteacher is one of the best listeners, she's peace maker. So you have to be open to all teachers' problems, to listen to them even if you can't solve their problem (Head of IT Department).

From the thoughts of the IT teacher, individual consideration seems an important attribute that a Head should possess and this is what another member of staff thinks it is very important for a leader, but understands individual consideration not so much as the attention paid to everybody's needs, but rather to know about each teacher's skills and abilities so that the tasks and responsibilities are delegated to the people who are capable of achieving them.

She explains:

The Head teacher has a very important role. It starts from the way he/she chooses their team. They need to be careful when they name the teacher training teams; to not chose people who have difficulties in creating relations; how she delegates tasks, to know very well everybody's skills and abilities. (Speech therapist)

The stress or even the fear that is experienced in relationships with the Headteacher is not justifiable because the Headteacher does not have the authority to either employ or to fire staff. On the other hand, other teacher think that if teachers do their job there should not be any reason to be afraid of the

Head. Here are some of the staff's thoughts on the matter:

To be able to maintain a balance among the staff. Unfortunately, many Headteachers (...) don't understand that schools are not private businesses and schools are institutions in which the Heads do not have absolute power of firing or sanctioning people except for the administrative staff: secretaries, technicians, cleaners. In what teachers are concerned, the Head does not have absolute powers. (Primary school teacher 2)

The fear is only about the fact that you have to do your job. (Deputy Headteacher)

From what the teachers say, there is a pressure on staff to perform and this comes from the Headteacher, but participants in the interview suggest that if everybody does their job, there was no danger to be sanctioned. On the other hand, a teacher explains that the Headteacher cannot fire or employ staff which limits significantly their authority over the staff and therefore the staff should not feel pressure from the Head.

It seems that the Head can influence both the positive affectivity experienced by staff through individual consideration and through mediating relationships. On the other hand, the Head is to some extent made responsible for staff's feelings of *anxiety* due to the fact that teachers feel the pressure of performing and because they are accountable to the Headteacher for their work. This situation is not necessarily regulated by the law but it is rather an implicit consequence of the leadership role. But whether school climate and staff's emotional experiences are important to their work and to the school outcomes is to be further explored in the following section.

### ***Emotions, work and outcomes***

This is next paragraphs will give an account of how interviewees see the relationship between emotions of staff and work outcomes.

If the climate is positive and if they [children] feel good at school, I can do my work, if I am stressed because I had an argument with a colleague or something happens in the staff room then you go to class and you are affected by what happened. (Primary school teacher young)

This is what one of the primary school teachers think about the importance of the positive emotions at work. She explains that emotions affect the performance of the teacher and the relationships with the students suggesting that these would impact students' results as well. The same point is made by the IT teacher who thinks that between the emotional experiences in school and results:

It creates a tensed mood which affects the way you express yourself, the way you approach the students. It has no doubt an effect on work, yes. No doubt about it. (IT Head)

The speech therapist believes that in order for her work to give results her emotions and how children feel in her laboratory are crucial to the success of the interventions which are different from the usual classroom learning experiences. She says:

For my activity the climate is essential; if students don't like it won't come to the logopedic cabinet; It is me who creates the climate in the laboratory, but without a good relationship with my colleagues I can't work. They refer children to me and I have to help their academic performance which is noticeable in class. (Speech Therapist)



Tensed relationships that lead to a tensed climate in the school also affect the results of the teachers' work is what the more experienced primary school teacher thinks:

If there is tension, there is gossip as well; tension contributes to conflicts among teachers and some might believe that are better than others and this leads to a lack of cohesion and to poor outcomes (Deputy Head teacher)

But these views are not shared by all members of staff. The school administrator believes that the motivation of teachers and their involvement in the school activities are more important influences in students' results. In addition, when asked to what extent the climate affects students' performance in school, the administrator says she believes that there are other more important factors such as family.

Although there are different views on the impact of emotions on work and on school results, most of the respondents share the opinion that when they feel positive they can perform better and their attitude towards students is more likely to produce better results. Nevertheless, there are other factors that might be more important to students' performance and one of these is the family. As one of the interviewees suggested, the school can not compensate the lack of support from children's carers.

## **Summary**

The results from the interviews suggest that the style of leadership is democratic but sometimes passive and "superficial", the Head is not sufficiently present among the staff and not motivating enough and fair for all members of staff but

rather only to a small group who is closer to the Headteacher and share the main leadership responsibilities within the school. Issues such as *envy* and *gossip* seem to be particularly problematic in this school and this may be why interviewees emphasize the negotiating skills of the Head who is a ‘peace maker’. Moreover, most interviewees see a definite and direct impact of personal emotional experiences on their work and especially on their students’ engagement with activities. Less direct links were identified by participants between emotions and overall organisational outcomes.

## 7. Case study 2

The presentation of this second case study has a similar structure with Case Study 1 where separate sections are allocated for each of the themes investigated:

- leadership
- emotions
- school outcomes
- links between leadership, emotions and outcomes

For each theme the survey findings for this school will be firstly summarized and then narratives based on interview results will be accompanied by quotes selected using the same criteria as in Case Study 1.

### School 2

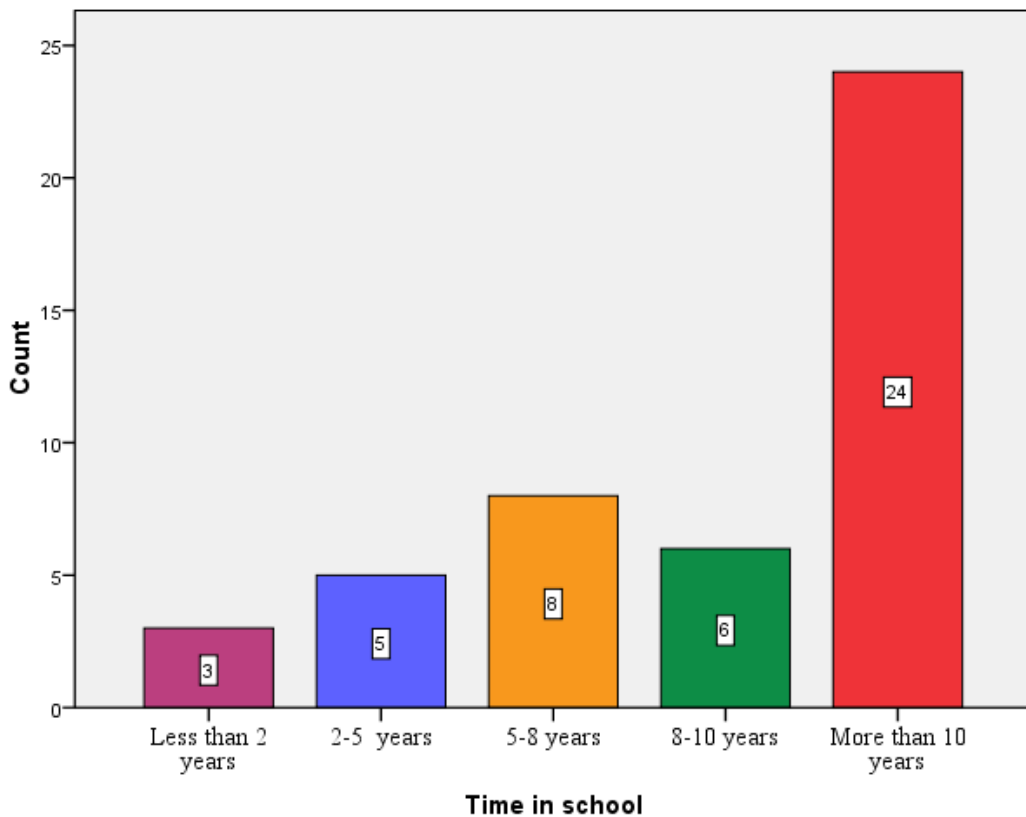
#### Background

School 2 is one of the largest 1-8 form schools including primary and lower secondary education in Timisoara and has over 1000 pupils enrolled and approximately 80 teachers. Teaching and other activities take place in four separate buildings and one of the buildings is situated more than 30 minutes walking distance further away from the main building. The building located further from the main school building includes ‘step by step’ primary education which is considered an ‘alternative form of education’ to the traditional schooling. This form of schooling is implemented with the support of an educational charity called *Step by Step Centre for Education and Professional Development* member of the Soros Open Network, an American educational charity. The ethos of this form of education is to emphasize collaboration, there

are no formal marks given to students, and competition between students is not explicitly encouraged. (CEDP, 2009).

The public reputation of School 2 is that this is one of the best 1-8<sup>th</sup> form schools in the city. Like in School 1, over 90% of the respondents are female.

From the total number of 46 members of staff from School 2 who took part in the survey 95% percent are teaching staff.

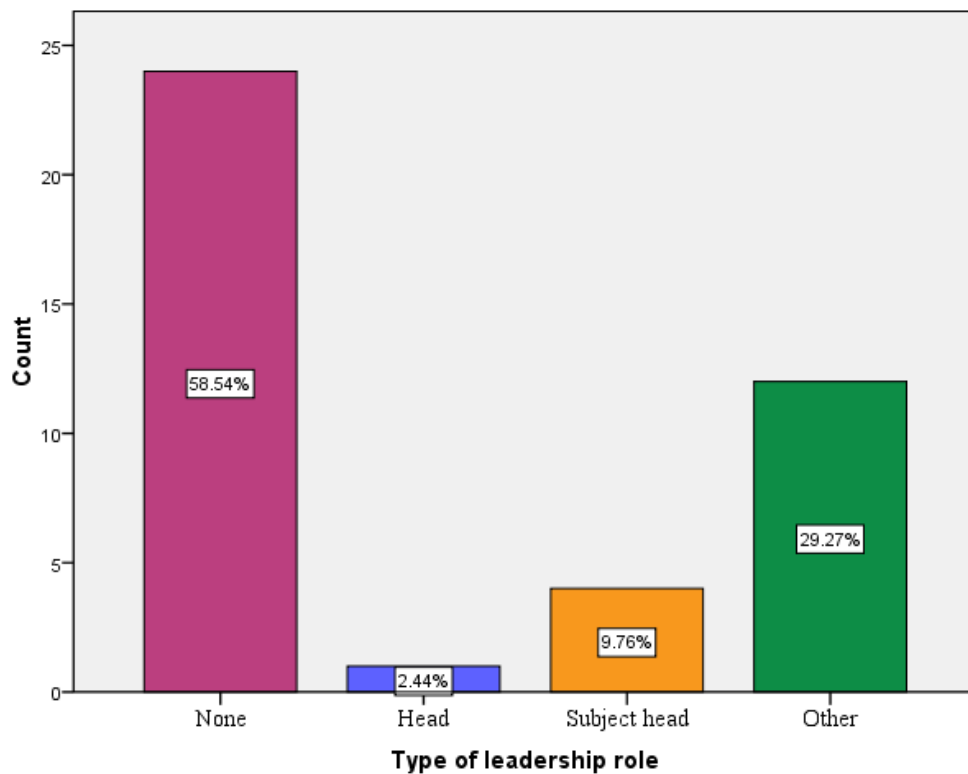


*Figure 7.1* Working experience in School 2

Unlike School 1, where only 25% of the teaching staff have more than 10 years teaching experience in the school, in School 2 more than 50% of the staff have been working in this school for more than 10 years and only 6 % of the staff

have less than 2 years experience in the school (*Figure 7.1*). This suggests a higher stability and possibly coherence of the teaching team

This either means that the new staff did not engage with the questionnaire as much as the experienced staff, or that indeed the more experienced staff represent the majority in the school.



*Figure 7.2* Type of leadership role in School 2

As *Figure 7.2* shows, almost 37% of the staff participating in the survey have some leadership role compared with only 29% in School 1. Some of the leadership roles reported by staff are: chair of various committees such as evaluation committees, projects co-ordinators, teacher trainers etc. Correlations between working experience and leadership role show that these two variables

are independent which suggests that staff in this school have leadership roles independent of their working experience. Moreover, a larger number of staff have some leadership roles compared to the general sample in which less than 33% of the respondents have some leadership roles. This is part of Headteacher's vision for the school of engaging all members of staff by giving them responsibilities across a variety of activities and projects as the Head herself explains in her interview. More about how leadership is understood by staff in School 2 and about the practices put in place will follow in the next section.

### **Leadership**

Like in the previous chapter which presented School 1, this section will be divided into two parts: one that describes the survey results obtained for this school, and one that introduces the interview findings accompanied by relevant illustrative quotes.

### ***Survey findings***

Mean scores and medians for each leadership style subcomponents as defined by the MLQ 5X form model are presented in the **Table 7.1**.

These results show relatively high scores for all transformational leadership components which are: individual consideration (IC), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IC), idealized influence attribute and behaviour (IIA and IIB).

**Table 7.1** Descriptive statistics by MLQ sub-components

<b>Transformational leadership</b>		Statistic
Idealized influence behaviour	Mean	3.42
	Median	3.50
Idealized influence attribute	Mean	3.52
	Median	3.75
Intellectual stimulation	Mean	3.04
	Median	3.25
Inspirational motivation	Mean	3.54
	Median	3.75
Individualized consideration	Mean	3.28
	Median	3.25
<b>Transactional leadership</b>		
Contingent reward	Mean	3.29
	Median	3.50
Management by exception passive	Mean	1.03
	Median	1.25
Management by exception active	Mean	2.96
	Median	3.25
<b>Laissez-faire leadership</b>		
Laissez-faire	Mean	.52
	Median	.25

Comparing with the general sample, both transformational and transactional components obtain higher scores, whereas laissez-faire leadership obtain lower scores. This is perhaps an indication that the Head has a clearer and more consistent way of applying certain leadership practices while avoiding being a passive leader.

### ***Themes emerging from the interviews***

Seven members of staff took part in the interviews and a opportunity sampling techniques was applied to select participants in the staff room by the researcher who asked various members of staff if they wished to take part in the interviews, apart from the Headteacher who kindly agreed in advance to take part in the interview. This was a very different approach in selecting the interview sample by comparison with the one used in School 1 in which the leadership team selected the staff themselves. The participants to the interviews in School 2

were: the Head, the school nurse, the school psychologist, the head of the mathematics department, two primary school teachers, one in the traditional education and the other in the 'step by step' class, and a Geography teacher. All interviewees agreeing to take part were female.

The interviews highlighted some of interviewees' characteristics:

- The Headteacher has been holding the leadership position for 17 years and says that she has always wanted to become a teacher.
- The school nurse is independently employed by the Ministry of Health and not by the Ministry of Education, so her activity is more independent of the school. Nevertheless, her work involves close collaboration with the teaching staff as she is sharing an office in the main school building.
- The school psychologist has recently graduated and this is her first year in this school and also her first job.
- The head of mathematics department has been a teacher for over 30 years and has been working in this school for more than 18 years. She holds a PhD.
- The Geography teacher has less than four years teaching experience in the school. She says that she did not want to become a teacher and feels that teaching is not something that she would wish to continue as a career especially because of the long working hours and the low pay.

The presentation of the themes emerging from the interviews will follow the same pattern applied when describing School 1: the first sections will include an overview staff's understandings of leadership role and responsibilities and their description of how an ideal school Headteacher looks like; secondly, the current leadership style will be explored and finally other themes emerging from the interviews will be briefly summarized.

### **Understandings of leadership roles and responsibilities**

The two main responsibilities of a school leader are, in the Headteacher's opinion, that of making decisions based on consultations with staff and of



relating and communicating with people. These are, nevertheless, very difficult tasks, as the Headteacher emphasizes:

I think that to make decisions is the most difficult because sometimes you need to make decisions ad hoc, so basically you can't move on without making a decision and if the decision can be postponed you clearly have to consult the others. But even after this consultation at the end of the day it is still you [the Head] who has to decide.

(Headteacher)

The role of the staff in the decision making process seems to be an essential component in distinguishing between two opposite leadership styles: the democratic and the 'dictatorial'. In line with this, the Head of the mathematical department argues that the first style is more desirable even though both styles can be effective. She explains the difference between the two styles as follows:

[A democratic leader makes] ... known the objectives that the Head has set to the staff, then she tries to engage staff and let them choose their roles and only if they don't volunteer, the Head will propose roles for them... [a democratic Head will]... allow teachers do what they are good at and won't impose roles and responsibilities on them. The way I see the dictatorial style is when you force somebody to do something they are not good at (Head of Mathematics Department).

The same Maths teacher touches on the distinction that the literature makes between leadership and management. She underlines the fact that a leader should be the one with the vision and the one who sets targets and gives a clear direction to the school. It should be the deputy Head (s) the one(s) in charge with turning these targets into action. The department Head also suggests that this is not the case in their school where, although it is a very large school, there

is only one deputy Head and she acknowledges the difficulties of this situation that have a negative effect on the way things are running at school level.

The Head should just give the ideas, the perspective, the plan. We have these targets and for these targets one deputy Head could be in charge. In our school we have only one deputy Head. We are a big school and we have many buildings which makes it difficult to have an effective management. Communication is difficult (Mathematics department Head)

While the Head and the Maths Head think that knowing how to engage staff in fulfilling school vision are core to what a leader should do, the school nurse who is not involved in teaching and is not actively engaged with schools activities other than the medical side, believes that a Head's focus should be on ensuring that the school has the necessary facilities and equipment, and that teachers have appropriate training.

Another way to explore staff's views on leadership was through asking the interviewees to describe the ideal school Head. One of the most frequent answers from four out of the seven respondents mentions Head's ability to communicate and related to staff and other stakeholders. This quality is also recognized by the Headteacher as being essential for a good school leader. The school psychologist who is in her first job and a fresh graduate summarizes this idea:

I think it is fundamental for a Head to have good relationships with staff; to be an open person, to be able to communicate with him/her, to (make them) listen, to emphasize collaboration rather than 'forced relationships' like 'I'm the boss and you don't matter' sort of thing (Psychologist).

This view is differently presented by one of the very experienced primary school teachers who says:

[The Head] should not neglect relationships with the colleagues (...), should have a strategy in place in order to motivate and stimulate staff, not necessarily financially, but to praise them. I think not only children need that (Primary school teacher)

As pointed out in the above quotes, good relationships with staff imply the ability to be open and to communicate easily with people, to encourage collaboration with staff rather than to impose things onto the staff. Moreover, as emphasized in the above quote, good relationships with staff equally mean that the Headteacher rewards them for the good, inspires and stimulates them and at the same time is diplomatic and a good conflict mediator. These qualities can be translated in transformational-transactional terms suggesting that inspirational motivation, individual consideration and contingent reward are key in how staff appreciate Head's approach to leadership.

The interviews emphasize some other qualities that an ideal leader has, some more practical, other more abstract such as:

- ✓ Making decisions,
- ✓ Putting effort and energy into their work, being motivated and dedicated
- ✓ Being available to people outside the school as well as for people from inside the school
- ✓ Having all the paperwork in order
- ✓ Being exacting and firm when necessary
- ✓ Having a clear vision
- ✓ Not having to teach or have other administrative tasks

The primary school teacher from the step by step class illustrate the necessity of the practical focus, while the school psychologists emphasizes the dedication and passion for the school:

[The Head] should not have teaching hours, should have all the documents in order, because of inspections, this is what matters in the end” (Primary school teacher)

[The Head should] to be involved, be a person that enjoys what is doing who come to school and to wants to do things. (Psychologist)

The school nurse was the only member of staff who mentioned that an ideal Head should check on staff if they attend their classes and do their work properly. This is what is a transactional practice called by Bass management by exception active. This dimension received very low scores in the survey and it is only mentioned once in the interviews. Nevertheless, the nurse also mentions that a good leader takes an interest in children’s activities and has good relationships with staff which is in line with what the others members of staff think an ideal leader should do.

While these were some of the qualities that are expected from a school leader, the following section will draw on staff’s views of the leadership styles put in practice in their school.

### **Current leadership style**

When asked what they think about the current leadership, the respondents were generally pleased with the way their Head leads the school.

Two of the respondents mention that it is a ‘democratic’ leadership style and the Head of the Maths Department explains what she means by this. One teacher explains in what way their Head is ‘democratic’:

The type you would want to be your boss and that is why many teachers from others schools have made requests (...) to come and work at this school because they heard that the atmosphere in this school is not tensed one. The Head doesn’t spy on you, there are no conflicts. (Head of Mathematics Department)

The distinction between ‘democratic’ and ‘dictatorial’ leadership seem to be important for the interviewed staff because whenever the ‘democratic’ qualities of their head are mentioned, there is also an emphasis on her also being exacting and firm when necessary. Thus, while the general agreement among interviewees seems to be that the Headteacher is dedicated and effective, at the same time, participants in the interviews find that the Head manages to keep a good balance between being nice and using humour in relations with staff, while at the same time having the authority and ability to be demanding and setting high standards for staff. One Geography teacher explains:

She knows how to take jokes if that is the case and she knows how to be strict, firm when we need to get things done and we know that when we have to do things, we have to get them done because they need to get done and not because the Head has something against us. If she has something to tell us, she will tell us right away, even if she is upset and next day we are friends again. (Geography teacher)

Similarly, a primary teacher who works in a different building thinks:

She [the Head] has the authority that is needed, so if needed, she is firm, strict. But she knows how to deal with things so that she won’t create a tension in relation to

colleagues. So she's ok, I don't know how she manages, but she's doing ok. Maybe I can't appreciate the rewarding system put in place by the Head because for me the satisfaction comes from another place [from the context I understand that the teacher is referring to working with children]. (Primary school teacher, 'Step by step class').

A different dimension of leadership is picked up by three interviews and this includes public relations and marketing skills. Representing the school in the community, in front of the local educational authorities and being a good manager who ensures that the school is attractive for a large number of parents and students are two key elements of the current leadership style. On the other hand, being a leader that emphasizes results and success sometimes is at risk of jeopardizing relationships and teachers' personal pride. This is how the most experienced primary school teacher reflects on some of these issues:

Our Headteacher is a very good manager, she's very involved with the school problems, she puts a lot of effort into the school, she thinks of the number of pupils, although in other schools the number fluctuates a lot, but it is not the case of our school. (...). Unfortunately, there is a downsize to that. When you try really hard to achieve something there is the risk to offend some people, parents, pupils, teachers. (Primary school teacher)

Head's and staff's desire and dedication to achieve things were some of the first impressions that the school psychologist had when she first started working in this school. She says:

The first day when I came to this school I was really impressed when I saw all the results obtained by the school, prizes, achievements, collaborations with all sorts of organizations and public institutions, association for parents. I really enjoyed seeing

that there is an organized thing going on and that there are people who are really involved and this could be seen at leadership level as well. (Psychologist)

When asked about her leadership style, the Head hopes that she ticks many of the points listed before when she talked about the ideal school Head. She thinks she sets herself targets and deadlines and short-term projects to work on as well as developing a long-term development plan for the school as the managerial plans in Romania are usually implemented over a 4 year period.

The other aspects that are emphasized by the Head are the fact that she is not a passive leader and it is important for her to be aware of what people think and feel about her leadership style. This is in line with the survey findings that suggest that she is also not perceived as a passive leader. She conveys this clearly when saying:

(I am) active, in no way passive. Sometimes (I am) directive. I think that you can't have only one managerial style. At the same time, I think I make an effort to know myself, but also to feel from the others the pulse of things. So I am interested in how I am perceived school, but I don't do things to be loved by people. (Headteacher)

The Head makes it clear that she needs to use various styles that she calls 'managerial styles' and is aware that she needs to pay attention to people's feelings and concerns, to know how she is perceived. She is equally aware that she cannot please everyone and has to be strict and authoritative at times therefore, in her opinion, a combination of styles is the most effective. This is in line with the survey results obtained in the general sample which pick up on the idea that a pure transformational or transactional style could not be identified

and that a ‘hybrid’ leadership styles seems to be more appropriate according to school staff’s views.

According to the interviewees, there are two main leadership styles that can be found in schools: one is democratic and means that the Head involves the staff in the decision-making process and in the implementation of these decisions and a “dictatorial”, more authoritative leadership style which can be as effective as the democratic style but with an enormous emotional cost from the staff. The participants in the interview are generally pleased with their leader who is considered a passionate, democratic leader able to create an environment that encourages people to get involved. The Head herself believes that the most effective style for her is a combination of being authoritative and being democratic and caring.

The school as a whole is described as a very pleasant working place and this suggested being due to the Headteacher’s ability in setting a positive tone and in maintaining good relationships with staff. A more in depth analysis of the emotional experiences and practices that are specific to this school will be the focus of the next section.

### **Emotions**

As in previous sections, findings providing information about the experienced and displayed emotions at work will be presented under several sub-headlines: one describing the survey results, on presenting the main themes drawn from the interviews with illustrative quotes and a brief summary at the end of the section.



### ***Survey findings***

For describing the positive and negative emotions reported by the Head and the staff the total scores for each emotion will be compared. These scores are obtained through the aggregation of data for experienced, self-displayed and perceived display of others' emotions. Thus, the score for each emotion incorporates the extent to which staff and the Headteacher feel that these emotions are present both in their experience and display and in the display of others' in the school. As shown in *Figure 7.3* Head's scores obtained for the positive emotions tend to be higher than those obtained by the staff. The dominant positive emotions for both staff and Head are: *hope*, *joy* and *satisfaction*. These are the highest mean scores in the larger sample as well ('Sample mean' in *Figure 7.3*). The lowest scores for positive emotions, as expected from the general sample are the ones for *compassion* and *surprise*, result which is reflected in clusters identified through factor analysis and which will be discussed further in this section.

*Figure 7.4* presents comparatively the results for the negative emotions self-oriented and a difference between Headteacher's scores and staff's score can be noticed for *fear* and *embarrassment*. Headteacher's scores are also high compared to the means obtained in the general sample which suggests that *fear* seems to be a dominant experience for the Head. Although the Head often feels *proud* with her achievement and the school as the previous figures suggest, *embarrassment* and *guilt* felt in the failure seem to affect the Head more than it affects the school staff. Because these two emotions are self-conscious emotions that are triggered and experienced in social situations, in this case the may be

linked to Head's feeling more accountable for school's results compared with how other members of staff feel about their accountability.

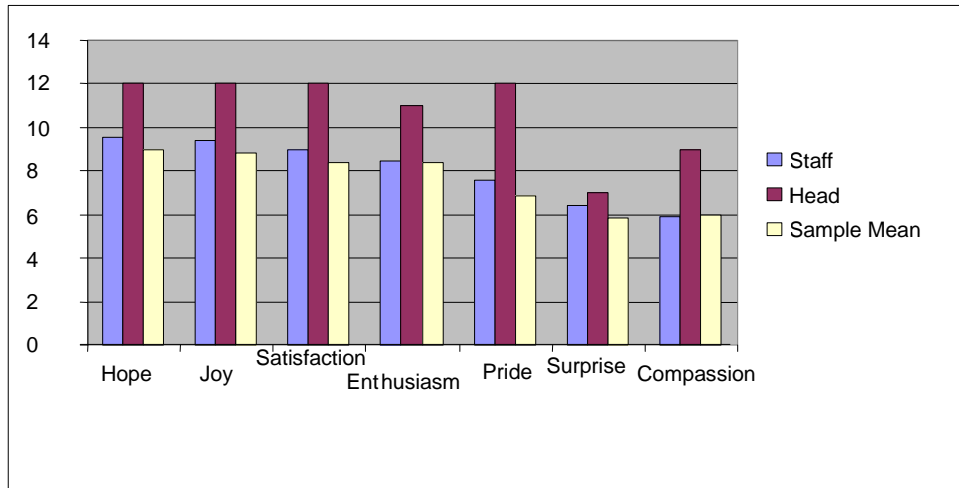


Figure 7.3 Descriptive statistics for positive emotions of staff and Head from School 2 and from the general sample

On the other hand, there are two missing values in the Head's questionnaire of emotions: for *sadness* and *guilt* and it is difficult to speculate why that is. The scores obtained by staff for these two emotions are close to the mean of the general sample ('Sample mean'), so there is no indication to suggest these may be particularly problematic in this school (Figure 7.4).

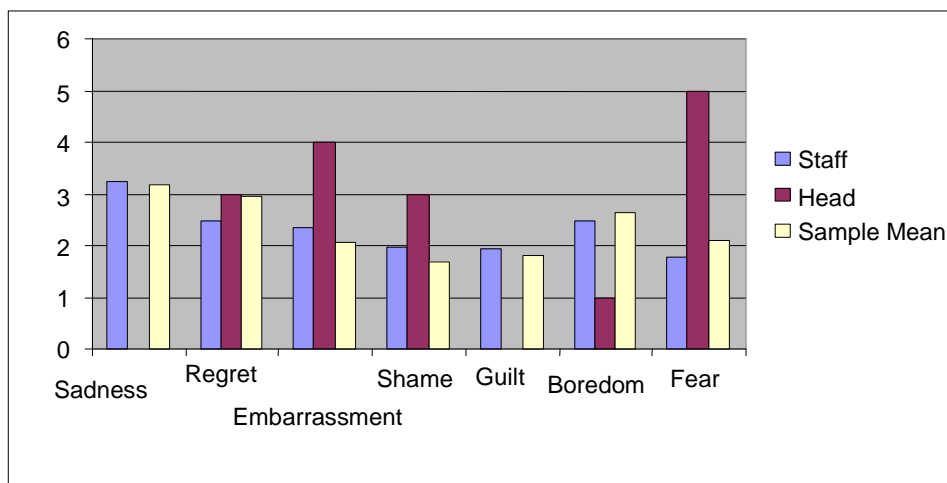


Figure 7.4 Negative self-oriented emotions. Comparison of views within School 2

Negative emotions other-oriented obtain lower scores compared to positive emotions in both staff sample and Headteacher's data. Nevertheless, *irritation* and *upset* seem more dominant than other self-oriented or other-oriented negative emotions but both staff's and Head's scores are very close to the mean obtained in the general sample suggesting that these emotions are not more dominant than in the average school.

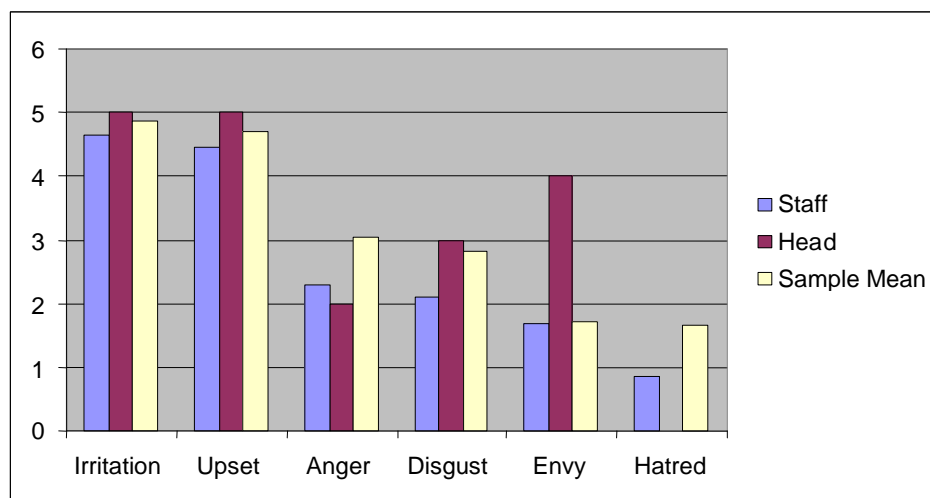


Figure 7.5 Negative other-oriented emotions. Comparison of views within School 2 and the general sample

It might be significant to note that the scores for *hatred* and *envy* are very low both in staff's and the Headteacher's scores (Figure 7.5). Unlike in School 1, *anger* and *disgust* seem again very close to the average experiences and do not seem dominant in this school.

In summary, the dominant emotions experienced, self-displayed and perceived in others displaying at work are positive such as *joy*, *enthusiasm* and *hope*. Among the negative emotions the negative, *irritation* and *upset* have the highest scores, but they are not atypical for the average school. Unlike in School 1 where *envy* which is and negative other-oriented emotion that was quiet

predominant, in School 2 the other more dominant negative emotions are self-oriented such as *sadness*, *regret* or *embarrassment*. This is an indication that the negative experiences may be linked to feelings of personal underperformance, whereas in School 1 the negative experiences seemed to be associated with a feeling of being treated unfairly compared with other colleagues.

Generally, the Head has higher scores for both positive and negative emotions than the mean obtained in the staff sample which is an indication of the emotional impact and sometimes cost of the leadership responsibility. The highest differences are for *pride*, *compassion*, *satisfaction* and *fear*. For these four emotions the Head's scores are higher than the mean score obtained by staff. Very small differences between Head's and staff emotions are registered for *irritation* and *anger*. The means that scores obtained for positive emotions in School 2 are generally higher than those obtained in the general sample. In terms of negative emotions, *embarrassment*, *shame* and *guilt* are higher than the means obtained in the general sample.

As a result of factor analysis there were six clusters of emotions identified in the larger sample. For this particular school the distribution of these clusters is shown in *Figure 7.6* in which 0 indicates the mean obtained in the overall survey sample that included all 18 participant schools. Like in the overall results obtained in this large sample of schools, in School 2 positive emotions seem to be the dominant as well and have the highest scores. The second highest scores are for experienced negative emotions self-oriented which are followed by negative self-display. Unlike results obtained in School 1, the least dominant

emotions in School 2 are negative experiences oriented towards others such as *envy* and *hatred*.

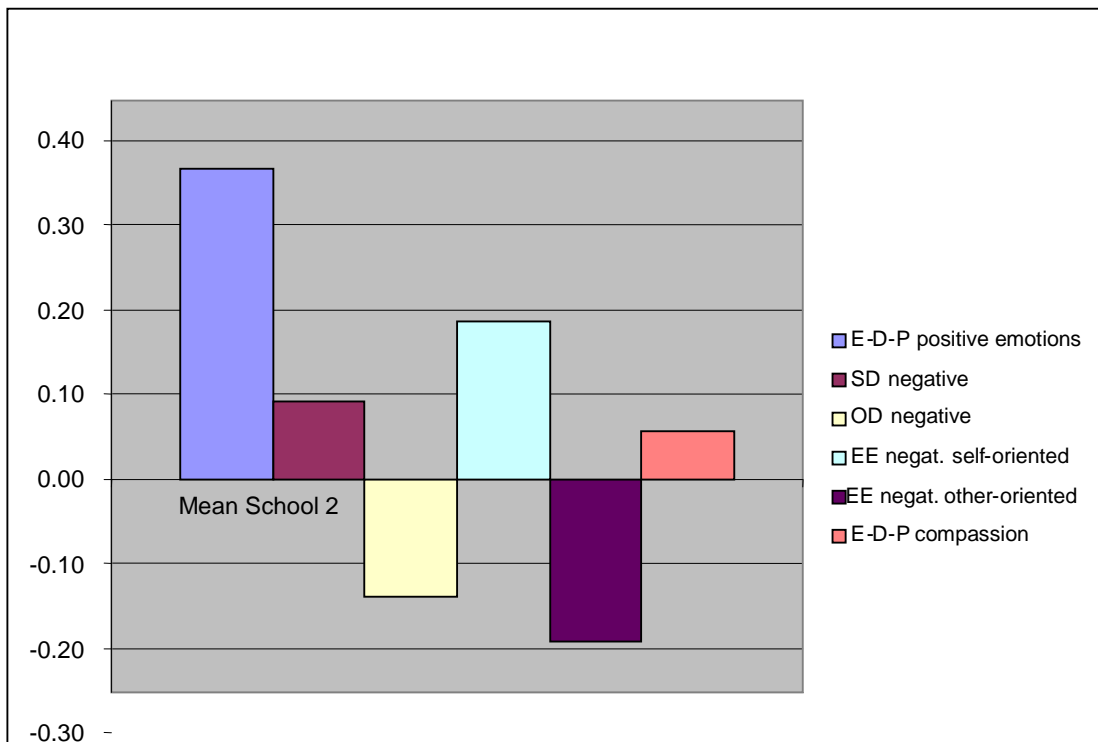


Figure 7.6 Clusters of emotions in School 2

A deeper understanding of what these emotions mean for the interviewed staff will be detailed in the following paragraphs that explore some of the themes resulting from the interviews with staff which will be accompanied by some illustrative quotes.

### ***Interview findings - Contextualized meanings of emotions in School 2***

The themes explored in this section refer to the positive and negative emotions experienced in school and the antecedent events that trigger those emotions, and also more generally to the general school climate and the type of relationships established among staff, the activities staff enjoy more or less at work.

#### **Positive emotions**

Starting from a list of seven positive emotions (*joy, compassion, pride, satisfaction, enthusiasm, surprise, hope*), the interviewees were asked to identify and discuss the dominant emotions experienced by them at work.

The results of the seven interviews are summarized show that six out of seven interviewees mention *satisfaction, enthusiasm* and for the Head – *pride* as a being dominant experiences at work. One participant only talks about *surprise* that comes from students who show unexpected progress, but *surprise* is not on the list of most positive experiences. In line with the survey results, *compassion* is not mentioned at all in the interviews.

The main source of the most experienced positive emotions which are satisfaction and enthusiasm are students' progress and achievements. The Head also mentions that the acknowledgement of school achievement by external stakeholders or media is a source of personal pride for her. These are some of staff's reflections on triggers for positive emotions:

I am often proud. For example, when somebody praises us (... ) parents of children from the fifth grade say that children are enjoying school so much that they all want to stay in the same school after they finish their four primary school years. So I am proud. (Headteacher, School 2).

Although most members of staff perceived *pride* as a positive emotion referring to the feeling of achievement, one teacher thought of *pride* as being a negative emotion associated with arrogance and sensitive ego and she confesses that she as well as other teachers are proud and sometimes take offence when they are

not respected and valued by the students, parents, government or the society as they should be.

Moreover, the Head explains how positive emotions are not something that can be experienced every day and that these experiences are related to a sense of achievement and that if there is a lack of enthusiasm this is not because the school does something wrong, but because there are other external economic, political and social factors affecting the country.

Enthusiasm... not all people can feel it every day. They do have their moment of enthusiasm [referring to staff]. But I cannot generalise that they are they are discontent or upset. In general, I think they have the satisfaction of a thing well done. (...) They [teachers] are discontent but [this] is not necessarily because of the school. (...) They might be discontent about the general situation in Romania (Headteacher, School 2)

Most participants to the interviews agree with the Headteacher in saying that the negative experiences are mainly caused by external factors. More about the understandings and triggers of negative experiences in schools follows next.

### **Negative emotions**

In terms of negative emotions, the list that was discussed with the interviewees included: *disgust, envy, embarrassment, anger, irritation, boredom, regret, fear, shame, upset, sadness, guilt, hope*. To these emotions, the interviewees added: *discontentment, complaining* (or moaning) which are most commonly related to the requirements that come from the Government especially as paper work and producing various statistics.

The only negative emotion that was mentioned in all interviews was *irritation* perceived as a softer form of *anger*. This is in line with the overall survey findings that suggest that *irritation* is the most experienced and displayed negative emotion among the participating staff. Government initiatives and requirements are the main trigger of *irritation*. The implications of some Governmental policies for teachers' work are significant as the Maths Head advises, so it seems sensible that staff are annoyed or irritated with some of these measures. Here are some thoughts illustrating this:

When you are trying so hard to evaluate children and you take in consideration each point, and then you see that they are evaluated [in national exams] on a 'halo' principle and you see that the national exams go against the values (...) you are wondering 'what's the point of my work?' (Head of Mathematics Department).

The second important source for irritation is children's problematic behaviour in school.

Irritation, yes. [laughs]. Inevitably... it happens. There is always a student who annoys you all the time in the class [laughs]. (Geography teacher)

The survey results summarized for School 2 highlighted negative experiences self-oriented such as *regret*, *embarrassment*, *guilt* as being also predominant. This finding is reflected in spontaneous comments that most interviewees make when they read the list of negative emotions.

Some said:

What it can happen is... regret, you forget something. We have so many things to do and a lot of paperwork and statistics to write, and you forget to do something and you



have moments when you feel embarrassed or you regret saying “Ah! I didn’t do that or that yet’... but other than that...no, No fear, we can’t say that we are afraid, no (Head of Mathematics Department)

I might sometimes feel guilt probably if I don’t bring their assignments on time although I had promised them I would or I forget something at home because it happens; regret because of the salary, we are not appreciated at the true value, people say: teachers, you work 4 hours a day and so you don’t deserve more money and it is not really like that. (Geography teacher).

Some of the sources for guilt, embarrassment and regret are, as hypothesized in the section where the survey results were presented for this school, a pressure to perform and a feeling of not achieving as much or as well as expected. Also, one teacher says that she feels regret of working in a school because of the very low wages, which are mentioned in other contexts by other interviewees as well. This finding is in line with the survey results which suggest that contingent reward is an essential component of an effective leadership style and links into the idea that it is important for school staff to have their work acknowledged and rewarded as deserved.

### **Relationships and school climate**

All interviewees agreed that, generally, the school climate is positive and pleasant and for one teacher this reality made her adjustment period as a newcomer easier to go through. She says:

I was coming from a small town and I thought people would be arrogant but it wasn’t like that at all. It was an easy adjustment for me and I like my colleagues. (Geography teacher)

The main difficulty identify by several members of staff is the size of the school and the fact that activities take place in four separate buildings which has an negative impact on communication and relationships among staff. One primary school teachers working in a different building of the same school thinks that:

The climate in this school is very good from all point of views: from the support that the Head provides to the collaboration between staff, it is a pleasant climate. I have never felt tension since I have been in this school. (Primary teacher, step-by-step)

On the other hand, another primary school teacher from yet another building that accommodates only four classes, feels that the general climate in the small building where she is teaching is very good.

Here I could say that we are privileged. This is sort of an elephant cemetery (smiles). Because there are so few of us and we know each other since high school, we are more than colleagues. (...) We, here, have an ideal situation, if I may say so. We don't need 'churches' [meaning coteries] because we are very few, we learned to respect each other, we know each other very well, we know what to expect from each other. This is the best atmosphere. (Primary school teacher).

Nevertheless, she feels less positive about the climate and about the relationships with colleagues from the main building. She says:

I am a bit reserved. I know all of them, I've known some of them for a long time (...), but I have to admit that I do not have good relationships with all, I have reservations towards some. (Primary school teacher).

This same teacher also explains that her reservations towards the colleagues from the "big building" come from the fact that there are exclusive groups in the

schools that form according to teachers' social background or loisir activities. She disapproves of these coteries who she thinks are not based on true friendship, but at the same time is feels discomfort in relations to people belonging to such groups who sometimes are back talking and discounting other teachers. When asked whether she thinks the physical distance is a barrier in having better relationships with some of the colleagues in the main building the teachers replies:

No, not at all. Maybe it is the distance because we are not in physical contact, but we meet in many situations and there are people with whom I would hardly speak. I think is their personalities that stop me from being closer to them. I think it is a matter of chemistry. (Primary school teacher)

The Headteacher agrees with the last point highlighted by the primary school teacher.

I don't think I can generalise. It all depends on the type of person. (...) There are some people who come to school moaning. (..)But still let's try to generalise, and to say that in general the perception is that people see the positives, and there are many teachers that joy. I am not sure whether it is enthusiasm. We can't all be enthusiastic every day. (Headteacher, 19)

The Head explains that it is hard to generalise when talking about what can affect relationships and climate and thinks that relationships depend on the type of person. Some people tend to be more discontent than others but at the same time she supposes that it is not the school that makes people unhappy, but there might be other external events or their personalities.

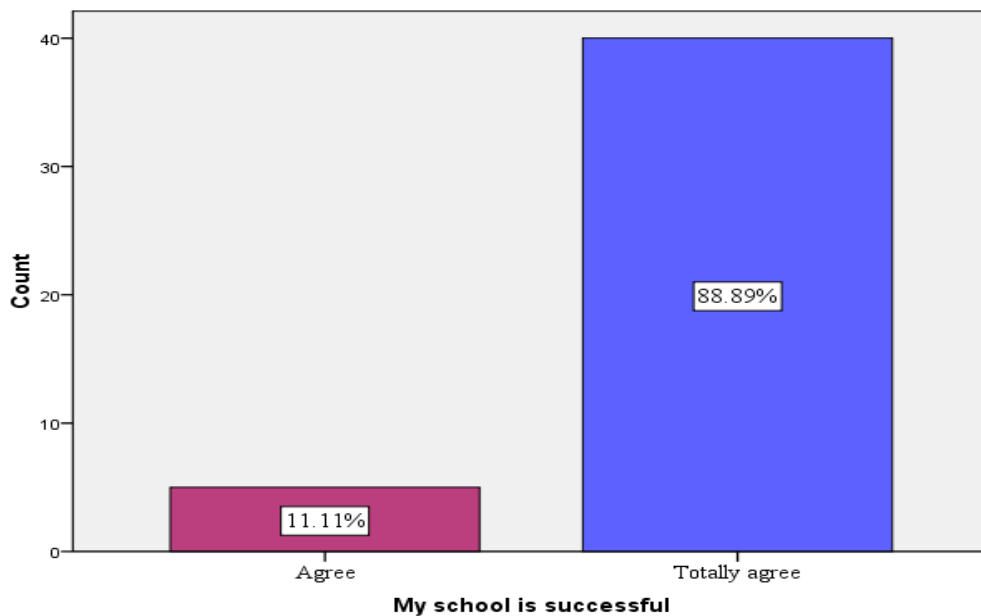
For school 2, there seems to be an agreement between survey and interview findings. The predominant emotions are positive: such as satisfaction, joy and pride and they are triggered by personal achievements, students' progress and the school performance overall. Unlike in School 1, pride is more often mentioned, whereas *hope* is not mentioned at all. Moreover, like in School 1, in this school Head's experiences of both negative and positive emotions tend to be stronger and this may be because their sense of responsibility and accountability. The most spoken about negative emotion is *irritation* which is mainly caused by external factors to the school like Government initiatives, but also by students' bad behaviour which is not uncommon. Unlike in School 1, where *envy* seemed to be quite problematic, in School 2 negative emotions other-oriented obtain even lower scores than the mean of the overall survey sample. Nevertheless, teachers in this school seem to be more conscientious which is reflected in their emotions of *guilt* and *embarrassment* if they do not obtain the desired results about which they talk about quite extensively in the interviews.

### **School outcomes**

The outcomes in discussion are of two types: subjective perceptions of school success and perceptions of leadership outcomes (leadership effectiveness and extra effort and satisfaction with leadership) on the one hand; and on the other hand objective outcomes that refer to pupils' graduation rate and the rate of graduates who enrol in higher levels of education.

### ***Survey findings***

There is a strong agreement among all survey participants from School 2 that their school is successful as shown in *Figure 7.8*. Unlike in School 1 where 17% of the staff could not agree or disagree with the sentence ‘My school is successful’ and only 26% of the staff totally agreed, in School 2 all staff either agree or disagreed. Moreover, the percentage of the strongly agreement is impressive (almost 89%) which indicates a strong confidence that this school’s staff have in their school success.



*Figure. 7.7* Perceived school success in School 2

Also, when compared with the general sample that includes all 18 schools taking part in the survey, all subjective and objective measured outcomes are better than the mean obtained by the general sample (*Figure 7.8* and *Figure 7.9*). Because the MLQ 5X form questionnaire was not filled in by most of the survey participants from School 1, the data was not available for that school. For

School 2 nevertheless, all three leadership outcomes are in staff's views better than the average.

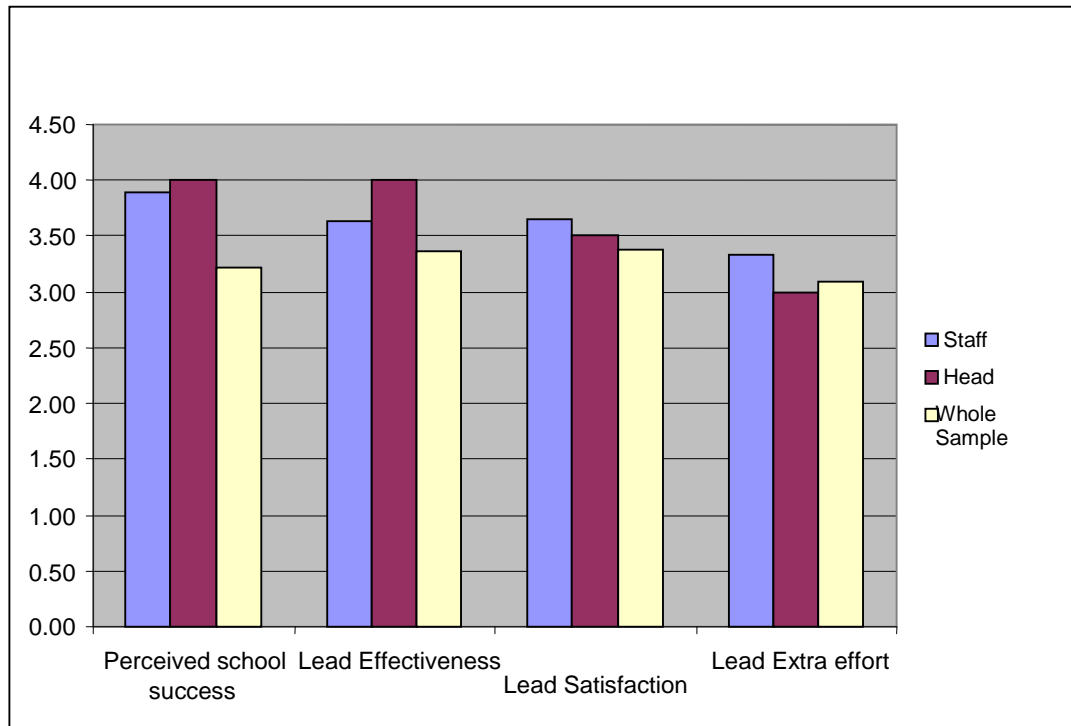
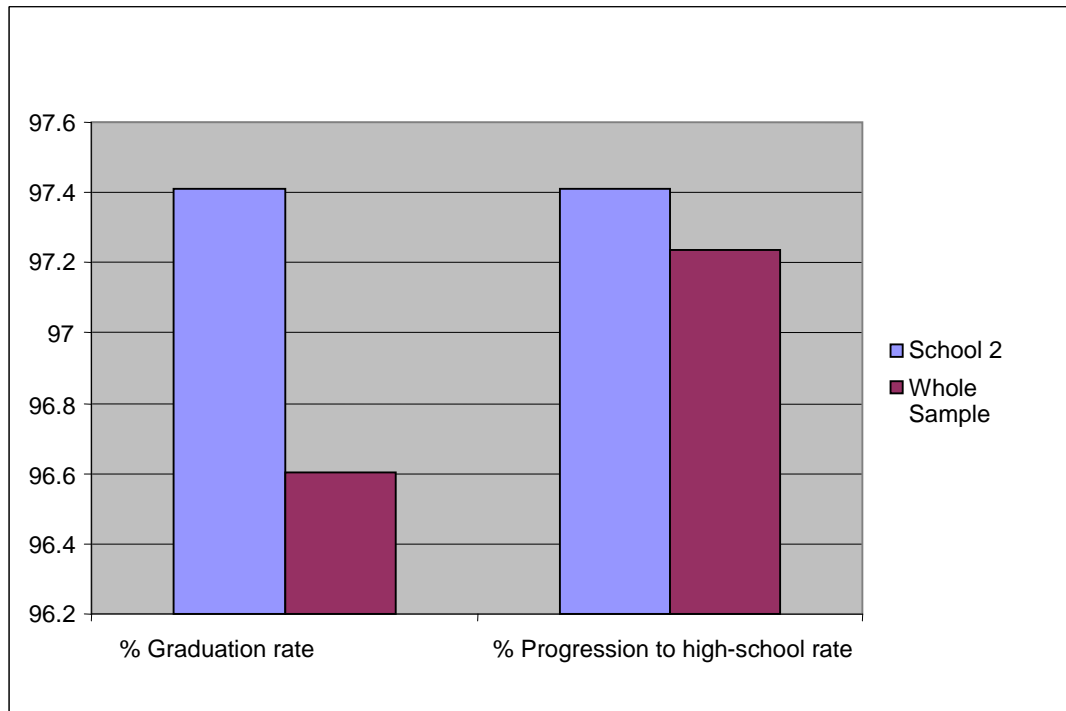


Figure 7.8 Perceived school outcomes. Comparison of views in School 2

The Headteacher perceives the school more successful than the members of staff do and she is more optimistic with regard to her leadership effectiveness compared with the views of her members of staff. Even though, staff are more satisfied with the leader than the leader is with herself and also seem to appreciate Headteacher's extra effort, the Headteacher's own perception of extra effort put into her work are less than the average obtained for the overall sample which suggest that the Head has high expectations for her performance.



*Figure 7.9* Pupils outcomes in School 2 compared with the whole sample.

*Figure 7.9* shows rates for pupils' outcomes as reported by the Headteacher who provided the researcher with these numbers. These rates are higher than the average obtained in the larger sample which suggests that this is one of the better schools in the city. This finding is supported by the results for the leadership outcomes and perceived school success, scores which are also higher than the average scores obtained in the general sample. The interviews provide more in depth data on what are how do staff describe a successful school and to what extent and why do they think their school is successful or not. These themes will be presented in more detailed in the next section.

### ***Themes emerging from the interviews***

The interviews with the school staff explored the respondents' views on school outcomes by answering questions such as: What would be your criteria for a good or a successful school? What are the factors that contribute most to school success? The purpose of the interview was also to identify how people view the existing system of school assessment at the organisational level and to what extent their school is perceived as successful when assessed against their personal success criteria and against the formal evaluation criteria. The following section will summarize and exemplify some of these views.

#### **What makes a successful school**

There are at least two trends that can be identified in the participants' responses from the interviews with reference to school success: one in which success is seen in terms student outcome, especially pupils' academic achievement and one in which a good school is seen in terms of climate and relationships.

First, it is the number of children attending the school. Because if the children join, it means that the school is attractive: the school has interesting "options", that the teachers are good (...) And then, of course I would say that the climate in the school matters as well. Also how the school looks as an ambient. (Headteacher, 19)

When looking at respondents' role within the school, one could notice that people who hold a leadership role, like the Headteacher and the Mathematics Head of department, put more emphasis on the number of the pupils who enroll every year as an indicator of school's attractiveness, and hence, success.



As a teacher trainer, I am in contact with other schools, I take part at different activities in the district and I know what is happening at high-school level and at University (...)  
We have good students that go to the best high schools in the city. (Maths department Head)

These members of staff also talk about pupils' progression into higher levels of education and joining the good high schools in town. The two members of the non-teaching staff, the nurse and the school psychologist, also look at the student outcomes as primary indicators of success. Here are some of their thoughts:

First of all, pupils' compulsory school attendance (...) In this school I haven't notice many students to skip classes. I was actually surprised. Maybe this is because of the teaching staff, maybe there is another explanation. So everything depends here on the teaching staff. This depends on the good organization and discipline. (Nurse)

The Headteacher supports the idea that school climate is important to school success, but she thinks that there are other more important criteria by which a school can be labelled as "good" or "successful". The priority of student outcomes is also highlighted by the school Psychologist who says:

For the majority (outcomes mean) achievements, graduation rates, prizes, competitions, high school attendance rates. Climate matters, [if there are] no conflicts, if children come to school with pleasure or not; extracurricular activities. (Psychologist)

Nevertheless, most of the other members of staff interviewed put an emphasis on the school climate and on the positive relationships among staff and students as the main criteria for what they consider to be a "good" school:

A good school is a school in which the kids feel good, the teachers feel good, and people in leadership positions feel good. Everybody feels good and not necessarily for fantastic results obtained with more work done outside the school rather than in school. There are schools – so called ‘elitist schools’ in which the results come from a different place and not from within school. (Primary teacher, ‘step-by-step’)

When asked what are the factors that make a school successful the Geography teacher who talked about the importance of climate and feel-good atmosphere in the school explains that it is the teacher’s role to create such an environment for children. She says:

If a teacher knows how to attract students and how to make their work seem pleasant and enjoyable, then the results will come. I might as well I raise my voice or threaten them with bad marks and they could get good results, but it is more enjoyable on both sides – both for the teacher and for the students – if we feel good together. (Geography teacher)

There is one point made by the Head of the mathematics department supported by another colleague who both suggests that for a school to be considered successful it is important that major systemic changes take place in terms of decentralization, financial and administrative autonomy in the recruiting and selecting staff and in managing the funds. She explains:

In order for a school to be successful there has to be decentralization. Everybody talks about it but it has to be put into practice, meaning that the school manager should have the power to decide what staff to employ based on certain qualities, or performance, to know who they work with. (Head of Mathematics Department).

This is not a singular view as one primary teacher advises:

The school should have more autonomy. The Head and the leading committees of the school who know the real problems of the school should be able to do some investments for the school. So leadership should have more autonomy and power to decide what is best for the school because at present this is not happening. (Primary teacher, step-by-step)

A second area that was explored in the interviews when discussing school performance and development refer to the changes that staff would make and which may be an indication of what they think about school success and about what school is lacking in order to improve.

We want to refurbish the sports centre, and I really want to do that. This was the only objective that I did not manage to achieve until now. (...) Then we would like to do a school monograph. (...) Every respectable school should have one. (...). (Headteacher, 19)

Most staff including the Headteacher thing that the one area that they would want to improve most is school facilities including more teaching space, a new sports centre, and teaching materials.

### **School evaluation**

As mentioned in previous sections, the formal assessment at school level is currently under reformation and a new combined system based on internal and external assessment is currently implemented for the first time in the Romanian education system and it is led by an organisation called ARACIP which has local evaluation committees made of teaching staff in each school. An external evaluation is also done by the District School Inspectorate which involves classroom observations, participation at school activities and which can

sometimes take place during a whole month. The internal assessment is undertaken by the managerial team and it is called self-evaluation.

In the same school it was less unclear though how were the members of the evaluation committee selected for the job. The Headteachers seems to contradicts herself saying that it was a random selection but that, at the same time, the teachers who are part of the committee are the most competent and strict ones:

This particular school which was part of the present study and which provides two alternative forms of educational provision – the traditional and the “step by step” – is doubly assessed: firstly it is assessed like all the other schools. Externally it is assessed by the School Inspectorate and internally by the evaluation committee. At the same time it is assessed by a government committee specialised in *step by step* education. The teacher who teaches in the *step by step* classes reported that the results from the last government assessment of these special classes were very good.

The Headteacher and the Head of mathematics department comment on the various evaluation systems that used to be in place suggesting that this school has always been amongst the best schools of this type in the city:

We had an inspection last year from the Ministry, an inspection of all departments and documents and we had very good feed-back. We were happy. (Head of Mathematics Department)

The interviews suggest, like the survey findings, that overall staff think their school has always been and still is a good, successful school compared with similar schools. In addition, they find that it has a pleasant climate and positive relationships among staff and between staff and pupils.

Nevertheless, there seem to be split views on what it means for a school to be good or successful: the teaching staff that do not necessarily hold a leadership position think that it is the school climate that makes a good school. The Headteacher and the one Head of department and also the non-teaching staff emphasize pupil outcomes as being the main criteria for school success, these outcomes including: school size in terms of number of pupils, their results in national exams and students' progression to higher level of education.

### **Links between leadership, emotions and outcomes**

The next paragraphs will look how the relationship between leadership, emotions and climate and school outcomes is reflected in the interviews with the school staff. There will be no findings presented from the survey as the small sample does not allow for computing correlations that could provide relevant information on these issues. Thus, the interviews will probe for the existence (or non-existence) and the nature of these links.

The questions asked in the interviews aim to explore what people felt about Headteacher's role in creating a positive atmosphere in the school and also about Head's role and impact on school development and performance. The other major theme in the interviews was related to the link between emotions and school results and whether people felt that the emotions experienced in

school and school climate are important to school outcomes. Some of the respondents also make suggestions of how a leader could improve the general school climate which will be described in the following sections.

### ***Head – outcomes link***

The interviews suggest that staff believe that the Head has a significant impact on school outcomes. One teacher explains how a Head can have that influence by describe an active type of leader in comparison with a laissez-faire type of leader suggesting that it is impossible for a passive Headteacher to have results or to keep the job for too long.:

At this moment in Romania the Head has an impact, yes...starting with external qualities like reputation and they have to be persistent and consistent in decisions, to have authority and to be firm, not to give in. (...) If the Head is indifferent, laissez-faire type [saying to staff]: 'it's your business, do what you think it is necessary' it's not going to work. (Maths department Head).

This view is in opposition with the opinion of one of the leading members of staff from School 1 who believes that teachers should initiate in order for the school to be more successful.

This same Maths teacher from School 2 elaborates on how different leadership styles impact school outcomes and she thinks that both democratic and dictatorial approaches can be effective in terms of outcomes. Nevertheless, she thinks that when the leader is very authoritarian the results are obtained at the expense of teachers and with great emotional costs.

As this interviewee suggests, the authoritarian Head who disrespects her colleagues will lose their trust and respect and the tasks will be done in the end but out of fear, not pleasure or respect for the leader.

The responses related to the impact of the Head on school outcomes were far less elaborated than other responses and this might be due to the teachers' reservations to this issue which could be seen as more sensitive or because they found it harder to explain how Heads on their own could directly impact school outcomes.

Nevertheless, the words of the Head of mathematics department summarize the themes that were discussed in the interview with regard to the impact of the Head on staff's emotions and on the general school climate, the impact of staff's emotional experience on their work and ultimately onto the children:

The climate is important because here [in Romania] leadership is still very subjective, if the leader behaves in a certain manner – e.g. has moments of exaltation in which they praise you and then moments in which they put you down – this won't help you, it won't stimulate you and leaves affective marks that will transfer to the children (Head of Mathematics Department)

These thoughts also suggest that the fact that the Head has an important emotional impact on teachers and on children as well. What is striking in this teacher's comment is that she believes this 'subjective' leadership is not an ideal, that it is abnormal for a headteacher to have such a huge role in people's feelings and motivations.

### ***Leadership and emotions***

All participants in the interview agree that the Headteacher is an important factor in creating a general positive environment in the school. One of the teachers illustrates this idea by giving an example from a different school where she used to work and where she had less pleasant experiences with a Headteacher who managed to create a negative climate. The descriptions of how a Head can affect in a negative sense the school climate are suggestive of how leaders could create a positive climate of trust and respect:

The Head would pick up on these mistakes in front of the children and colleagues, and was checking if teachers were at school a quarter of hour before the classes started and used bad language (Geography teacher)

The idea that a leader is important in setting the tone is supported by another colleague who explains how the Headteacher of this school manages to do achieve that by being close to people's individual problems and giving them advice when needed:

I think that Head's influence on school climate is very important. For me the Headteacher is not so much the Head as she is a colleague. She has always listened to my problems, she gave me advice, I never felt a distance between us because I am the follower and she is the leader. (Primary teacher, step-by-step)

One teachers feels that there are certain qualities that a Head should possess that would help creating an environment that allows staff to experience positive emotions.

[To be] open minded, unprejudiced, smart and having an understanding and empathy for people, strict, firm, but nice, knowing how to get things done, how to distribute



tasks and to make people enjoy the tasks as well, to praise you if you did a good thing, to appreciate that. (Geography teacher)

Others refer to working in team and mention communication as key to ways through which the Head could impact school environment, a view that is supported by the Head herself.

First of all, through a very serious communication, so I don't ignore them, I am not passive to what is happening around me. This seems essential to me. (...) I try to be as stimulating and encouraging as I can. (Headteacher, School 2)

As another colleague mentioned before, teamwork and doing things together it is also essential to group cohesion and to a good working climate and the Head agrees giving examples of things such as trips and taking part in events that staff do together to enhance team cohesion.

### ***Emotions, work and outcomes***

The results from all the interviews undertaken in this school suggest that school staff find positive school climate crucial to them and also that the Head has a significant role in how the organisational tone is set. One of the teachers emphasizes this idea:

If I was to choose between a school with relaxed atmosphere but worse results and a stressful school with good results, I would choose a school with positive climate, absolutely. This school is good, but also with a relaxed atmosphere at the same time. I feel good here.

This, nevertheless, does not imply that school climate is directly related to good work outcomes or to better organisational outcomes. This relationship between

emotions and school climate is explored in the following section. The question that was asked was an open question where respondents could comment on how they think the emotions relate to their work and to school outcomes. The school psychologist's view on this relationship is as follows:

Even though schools seem very different of other types of organizations or work places, the school is still a work place and teachers are employees. (...) If a person comes to work and the first things she sees is a smiley face and somebody asking 'how are you' or 'how have you been this week' etc., I think this person will be different in classroom comparing with somebody who comes at work and does not communicate with anyone, doesn't find any support. (Psychologist)

What is clear from what the psychologist says is that the way teachers feel at work impact their results of their work, but it is less clear in what way and with what exact effects. The same idea is emphasized by a primary school teacher who does not seem to clearly make the connection between emotions and results but rather between personal feelings and emotions and enjoyment of work. She says:

I don't know, maybe climate has an impact on results because if the climate is not positive you cannot enjoy your work and if you don't enjoy your work at least I if come to school stressed from various reasons, I don't think I would have the same pleasure to work. (Primary teacher, step-by-step)

Another teacher is more explicit and thinks that students enjoy a certain class because of a teacher and she suggests that children prefer some teachers to others but it is still not clear if this is due to the way teacher feel or expressed

their feelings towards the kids or due to other factors related perhaps to the teacher's personality:

(...) it is important because if you are inhibited, and stressed and terrified and you go to the classroom in front of the children – willing or unwilling – with this fear and you will transfer it without wanting to because you can't be like a mechanism that shuts down only because you pressed a button. (Head of Mathematics Department)

Headteacher's view can bring more light into unpacking this complex relationship. She thinks that the fact that teachers are “nice” and the climate in the school is good, students find the school attractive and this is the school's main strength. She comments:

Children come in such big numbers because we are one of the biggest schools in the city, as they say: teachers are so nice in this school. This is what they say. It is so nice, coming to this school. The majority are saying that. (Headteacher, 19)

Although the Headteacher points out that it is the school positive climate that is the major factor in attracting students to join the school and this is one of the success indicators in her view, still the results from the interview did not suggest that the participants could make a direct connection between the emotions they experience and express at work and the quality of their work or the results of their students. The only link that has been suggested is that students might enjoy a class better if the teacher was nice, but still it was not clear whether that was due to teacher's personality or to the way they express their emotions in relations to children. The following paragraphs will summarize the respondents' views on how the Headteacher could affect the school outcomes.

## Summary

The data collected from the questionnaires and the interviews undertaken in School 2 suggest that leadership is seen as democratic and inspirational, although sometimes the leader might neglect or even hurt people's feelings while focusing on results and performance. Also, the interviewees thought it is essential for them to work in a relaxed positive atmosphere and believe that the climate has an impact on their work and which in turn affects students' attitude towards learning.

The dominant emotions that are described by the members of staff interviewed are the positive emotions of *satisfaction* and *enthusiasm* which are triggered by students' results or teachers' sense of achievement and the least dominant are surprise and *compassion*. The only negative emotion that most of the interviewees talked about extensively was irritation which is very often induced by Government initiatives or requirements and sometimes by children's behaviours. Some teachers also talk about guilt and regret for not being able to finish on time what they promised to students and regret for the low wages and for the lack of appreciation from the community.

So what are the results from these two schools tell about leadership practices and emotional experiences in these two schools and what conclusions can be drawn with regard to the role of the leader in setting the positive tone of the school and the role of emotions in obtaining better results? The next chapter summarizes and compares the results obtained for the two schools and draw some conclusion on these findings.

## 8. Analysis of findings

This research project set out to explore a complex organisational relationship that takes into consideration factors such as leadership, emotions of staff and school and student outcomes, as well as other indicators like school size and headship experience. This approach was informed by a well-known framework proposed by Hallinger and Heck (1998), which assumes that leadership effects on organisational outcomes are indirect and can be affected by school conditions, and by external conditions such as demographic context. The assumption of leadership's indirect effects on student learning, for instance, has been confirmed in recent educational research (Day et al., 2009) and in reviews of empirical evidence (e.g. Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). Leithwood and Jantzi's review lists among school conditions that can mediate leadership effects: teaching methods, organisational culture, job satisfaction (ibid). Inspired by recent research evidence (Crawford, 2007, 2009; Leithwood & Betty, 2008), this thesis examined emotions within organisation and sought to better understand their place in the leadership – organisational development relationship in several Romanian schools.

This chapter aims to describe and discuss the complex relationship mentioned above as it is reflected in the overall findings from the survey questionnaires in 18 schools, as well as in the case studies undertaken in two selected schools.

This means that overall tendencies and patterns found in the participant schools based on the survey findings aimed to capture leadership practices, general patterns of experienced and displayed emotions, and overall perceptions of

organisational outcomes, as well as some objective outcomes, such as progression to higher levels of education and graduation rates. The case studies provide a more in-depth analysis of the individualized conditions of two schools that share the same catchment area and illustrate differences and resemblances between these schools' profiles, which are compared with the overall general school profile sketched based on the survey findings.

The approach discussing the findings of this study will be thematic, structured to explore:

- leadership styles
- emotions
- school outcomes
- organisational relationships between these themes

## **Leadership**

In understanding what are the most common and most desired or needed leadership practices in primary and lower-secondary schools from Timisoara, Romania, this study took a two fold approach. First, the survey has a strong theoretical framework inspired by the well established model of leadership – the transformational-transactional model (Burns, 1978; Bass 1985, Bass & Avolio, 1997). It employs a standardized questionnaire called the MLQ 5X form and aims to identify certain leadership behaviours that this body of literature finds relevant within educational contexts. Secondly, the study seeks to find contextualized meanings of leadership captured in interviews with members of the teaching and non-teaching staff in two selected schools. These understandings of leadership are explored through looking at staff's expectations and views on the ideal characteristics of a school leader, and on responsibilities

and roles of a Head. Moreover, participants' accounts of leadership are compared with recent evidence from published research.

### **Contextualized meanings of leadership: The ideal leader**

Overall the survey findings show that transformational characteristics, such as inspirational motivation and idealized influence, and transactional features, such as contingent reward, are the predominant behaviours identified overall by school staff in their Headteachers' leadership practices. This finding emphasizes the importance of Heads' ability to facilitate feelings of optimism and engagement to organisational vision and goals, an idea which is incorporated in the concept of inspirational motivation (Kelloway et al., 2003). Also, it shows that charismatic behaviours, such as idealized influence, result in staff's admiration, respect and commitment (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998), but also that leader's ability to deliver rewards and punishments within a clear frame is important for staff.

These findings are supported by the interview data showing that the most important qualities required from a leader are perceived by staff to be the ability to make decisions based on consultations with staff and the ability to communicate and maintain positive relationships. In summary, interview results show that the ideal leader should put effort and energy into their work, to be available to people outside the school as well as for people inside the school, to have all documents and paper work in order, to be firm and strict when necessary, and to create a clear vision and direction without having too many teaching or administrative tasks.

Communication and relationships seem to be at the heart of effective leadership and this is one of the prevalent themes throughout the interviews. By good relationships, participants mean the ability to be open to consultations with staff, and encourage collaboration among staff, when making decisions, rather than imposing their individual views on others, and also implementing a transparent reward system for all. These findings are in agreement with previous evidence showing that authentic relationships based on trust are at the basis of school improvement (Harris, 2003). Moreover, Headteachers can be most effective through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions in countries such as England (Day et al., 2009), Canada and Netherlands (Geijsel et al., 2003), but also in less developed countries such as India (Krishnan, 2005).

Other leadership theories, such as the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Wang et al., 2005) all support the need for a more balanced relationship between leaders and members and the idea of fair treatment of the individual.

Furthermore, the interviews differentiate between ‘democratic’ and ‘dictatorial’ leadership styles. These terms are used by the majority of the interviewees when describing two opposite styles of leadership. This finding links into Lewin et al.’s leadership theory (1939), which distinguishes between democratic, authoritarian and laissez-faire styles of leadership. Other relatively synonymous terms used for these styles are ‘participative’ (Yukl, 2002) or ‘invitational’ leadership (Stoll & Fink, 1996) for democratic leadership, ‘autocratic’ (Lewin et al., 1939) or ‘despotic’ (Allix, 2000) for the authoritarian style and ‘delegative’



or ‘free reign’ leadership (US Army Handbook, 1973) for laissez-faire styles. A ‘democratic’ school leader is one who encourages teaching staff to express their opinions and who is open to take into consideration these opinions when making a decision. In contrast, the ‘dictatorial’ leader is inconsiderate towards others’ views and imposes their opinion when making decisions without consulting their staff. In terms of effectiveness, one Head of department in one of the case studies points out that both styles can be effective and bring very good results at school level, nevertheless, the effectiveness of the ‘dictatorial’ leader comes with an immense emotional cost for the teachers. Unlike the ‘dictatorial’ leader, the ‘democratic’ leader creates a friendly and warm environment in which members of staff enjoy working.

This finding is in line with what Woods and Gronn (2009) advise to be significant evidence of the influence that democratic leadership has in education. The authors define democratic leadership in relation to three main ideas – self-governance, protection from arbitrary power and legitimacy grounded in consent (ibid, p. 433). Similarly, recent educational reviews (Woods et al., 2004; Hartley, 2007) and monographs (i.e. Chrispeels, 2004; Spillane, 2006) support this claim. These reviews and monographs summarize evidence suggesting that democratic leadership styles are linked to improved organisational effectiveness (Harris & Chapman, 2002), but also to increased engagement and student self-esteem (Ruddock & Flutter, 2004).

## **Contextualized meanings of leadership: roles and responsibilities**

### ***Leadership and management***

While decision-making and vision creation are both suggested to be important aspects of a Headteacher's responsibility, the interviews show that the discussion of leadership roles, in comparison to management and administrative roles is equally important for its implications to school performance. These distinctions between concepts of leadership, management and administration have also been discussed extensively in the literature (Bush, 2008; Cuban, 1988) and some authors argue that equal attention should be given, for instance, to both leadership and management if schools are to achieve their goals (Bush, 2008).

Moreover, participants' in the case studies reveal an existing tension between some of the Head's roles and responsibilities that have negative effects on leadership practices and school development. It is believed that the leader should create the school vision, set targets and give direction, while deputy Heads should be the ones responsible for turning these targets into actions but, for larger schools, one deputy Head is not sufficient to carry out administrative tasks.

### ***Decentralization and self-management***

One of the key administrative responsibilities of a Head, according to the participants in the interviews, is that of recruiting, selecting and employing teaching staff, a responsibility which Romanian Heads are not allowed to have in the current Romanian educational system. The centralized, sometimes corrupt (SAR, 2008), system of allocating staff to schools is perceived as a serious

barrier to obtaining the desired results at school level because the Headteacher has to work with staff who are not always motivated to be there. Finding better ways of allocating funds to schools was also found challenging in Western and more developed countries as Caldwell (2009) suggests but progress has been made since the '90s in these countries where allocations started to be more student-focused and needs-led (ibid, 2009, pp.248-249).

But the idea of self-managing schools is not welcomed by all members of staff, according to the interviews who believe in a centralized system of being more effective. A minority view is voiced by one of the primary teachers from School 1 who strongly believes that the Headteacher should not be allowed to hire or fire teachers. This participant advises that schools are not the private businesses of the Heads and that is a situation in which the Headteacher holds the power to fire people would only create a climate of fear among staff.

### ***Pupils' allocation to classes***

The teacher mentioned in before also believes that parents should not be given the freedom of choosing the primary school teacher for their children because this leads to some classes being oversized, whereas other classes too small. Encouraging parents' choice for teachers based on staff's personal reputation is suggested to create a disadvantage for the inexperienced or unknown primary teachers coming to teach in the school.

The issues of the Headteacher's role in staff selection, and in pupils' allocation to classes, link into debates around school effectiveness and student outcomes, debates set in a context in which the marketisation of education in Romania

seems to be unregulated from within the educational system. More about how schools are evaluated in Romania, and how effectiveness is perceived, will be discussed in a separate section in this chapter. This discussion has important implications for leadership, which will also be discussed later in this chapter.

### ***Headship and distributed leadership***

Although most of the participants think that the Headteacher has the main leadership role in the organisation, which confirms findings from leadership studies in other types of Romanian organisations (Aioanei, 2006), it was nevertheless surprising to find a minority, but strong, view of one teacher who believed in a distributed leadership style (Harris, 2004), according to which teachers not only take part in consultation for decision making, but also initiate actions and take leadership responsibilities with the support of the Head.

### **Leadership styles: Current practices identified**

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the survey data show that overall transformational components, and especially charismatic components such as inspirational motivation (IM), idealized influence attributes and behaviours (IIA and IIB), as well as one transactional component, which is contingent reward (CR), dominate the list of current leadership practices identified in the participant schools. This suggests that, overall, Headteachers from the 18 participant schools behave in a way that motivates and inspire school staff by providing meaning and displaying *enthusiasm* and *optimism* (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Charismatic leadership has been criticized in educational and generic leadership research for its risk of being manipulative and despotic (Bush, 2008; Allix, 2000). Unlike the findings of this study, Lunenburg (2003) shows that charismatic behaviours were less dominant in educational settings. The author (ibid) calls for de-emphasizing the importance of charisma and a focus on identifiable behaviours. Nevertheless, the importance of contingent reward, which is a transactional behaviour, has previously been proved to be significant in improving staff attitudes and behaviours (Podzakoff et al., 2006) and was also found significantly linked to transformational leadership (Heinitz et al., 2005).

The survey findings are supported by the case studies which suggest that, particularly in School 2, the leader plays an inspirational role in the school and members of the staff believe that school climate and school performance rely mainly on the personal qualities of the leader.

The descriptive statistics may not prove sufficient to understanding the dominant types of leadership applied to the schools investigated in the survey as they do not provide, for instance, any information of how these factors compare to each other (Mises, 1981). These relationships were tested using exploratory factor analysis, more extensively presented in Chapter 3 and 4, which is also important in exploring the relevance of the transformational-transactional model in the studied context.

The results from the statistical analysis revealed three main factors that were called in this thesis: *rewarding considerate*, *passive avoidant* and *inspirational*

*charismatic leadership*. These are discussed below and linked to the views expressed in the two case study schools.

### ***Rewarding considerate leadership***

According to the survey results from the 18 participating schools, *Rewarding considerate* style combines elements of transformational leadership, such as individual consideration (IC), with transactional behaviours, such as contingent reward (CR). The idea of ‘hybridism’ is central to understanding leadership in the current debate of distributed versus ‘solo’ leadership (Gronn, 2009). This debate refers to a ‘configuration’ of leadership behaviours, labelled as ‘hybrid’ by Gronn (2009), and comprising parameters, dynamics and relationships between parameters such as number of leadership actors, time, space, context and membership.

This is a different ‘hybridism’ from the one this study refers to when discussing the interplay and connection between leadership practices that are considered distinct in the theoretical literature (see transformational versus transactional, Burns, 1978, Bass & Avolio, 1997). One dimension of leadership ‘hybridism’ can be found in this study’s results in the strong correlation between transformational elements and CR which is considered a transactional behaviour in the original theory proposed by Bass and Avolio (1997). This finding may not be considered surprising because it compares with similar results from surveys conducted in other countries, and in different or similar contexts (Heinitz et al., 2005; Shahin & Wrigh, 2004). Similarly, Hinkin & Schriesheim (2008) advise that contingent reward should be measured independently because, in their research, as in the present study, it did not correlate with the other transactional

factors. These findings arguably support the universality claim made by the authors of the transformational-transactional model (Bass & Avolio, 1997) because all the sub-components of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership proposed in the original model (Bass & Avolio, 1997) could be identified through statistical methods of analysis in this study's data. Nevertheless, these data also advise that the model needs adjustment in terms of how these sub-components related to each other and these adjustments are recommended, especially in non-western countries (Shahin & Wright, 2004; Boehnke et al., 2003).

The two case studies are useful in teasing out issues related to Headteachers' role in the evaluation and rewarding of teachers. Case study 1 seems to have a closed culture from the point of view of communication and how the Headteacher relates to her colleagues. The interviewed staff also say that the Head does not have a clear and fair rewarding system for the staff. Both aspects of this type of leadership – reward and individual consideration - seem to be lacking in consistency. The very low response rate to the survey in this particular school may also be an indication of difficult relationships between staff and the Head, especially as the response rate for the emotions questionnaire is very good. The Methodology chapter acknowledges this weakness and generalizations regarding leadership practices based on the survey results in this school are made with caution.

In contrast, in School 2, results indicate that the Headteacher has a more transparent approach in her relationships with staff and the climate seems more positive and open. The Head herself admits her commitment to involving every

member of the teaching staff in some school activity. This shows that individual consideration is a key element of her leadership, a finding that is also supported by the survey results. Moreover, when comparing survey results for this school with the general sample, transformational and transactional components are stronger and laissez-faire leadership is weaker. On the other hand, being a leader who emphasizes results and success sometimes is at risk of jeopardizing relationships, as one primary teacher points out. By this the teacher suggests that the Head is putting pressure on teachers to perform and their individual needs are not top of leader's priorities. This may affect teachers' pride, as one member of the staff advises.

### ***Passive avoidant leadership***

The second strongest factor resulting from the CFA was a combination of transactional elements, such as management-by-exception passive, and laissez-faire, and called *passive avoidant leadership*. This result is similar to those of Heinitz et al., (2005) and Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), where these two MLQ subcomponents are highly correlated in many of the samples investigated.

In contrast, laissez-faire and management by exception passive obtain significantly lower scores in the survey results for the overall sample of 18 schools participating to the research. Evidence from Case Study 2 confirms the general survey findings showing that laissez-faire leadership is the least dominant leadership practice obtaining the lowest scores in the leadership questionnaire. In contrast, in case study 2, the interviews revealed some concerns related to Head's perception of being insufficiently involved with school problems. The Headteacher herself advises that she is engaged with



many other activities outside the school, like training for professional development and teacher training in educational counselling which is one area she shows strong interest in. Two of the seven interviewees are critical of the head, suggesting that she fails to address critical events when necessary. Furthermore, the style of leadership although ‘democratic’, is labelled by one member of staff as “superficial” because the Headteacher does not spend enough time with the staff and does not provide a fair reward system for all members.

### ***Inspirational charismatic leadership***

The third factor identified in the survey data is considered a ‘pure’ transformational style and is called *inspirational charismatic*, as it includes exclusively transformational elements such as charisma and inspirational motivation. As the literature suggests, the charismatic leadership attributes and behaviours are possibly the most controversial of all transformational practices (Bush, 2008). Allix (2000), for instance, argues that transformational and especially charismatic leadership implies that:

Leaders have some sort of monopoly on moral truth, knowledge and wisdom, which they exploit to draw followers up to their own perceived ethical standards (ibid, p. 15).

This apparent ‘despotic’ approach to leadership contradicts Burns’ own original idea (1978) that transformational leadership is a collegial and democratic process. Allix further argues (ibid.) that ‘anti-democratic’ features are inherent in Burns’ contradictory conception of leadership. Nevertheless, this study’s findings support previous research evidence claiming that some transformational leadership qualities are universal expectations of employees (Boehnke et al.,

2003). Therefore, regardless of its support for transformational theory, the strong message highlighted in this study is that the most valued leaders appear to be transformational in the sense that they inspire, have the skills to develop personal relationships, while knowing their colleagues' individual needs and interests, and have the ability to develop and maintain positive relationships.

Although the two case study schools are comparable organisations, as they are neighbouring schools that target the same student population, School 1 has a strong inclusive component and provides services for children with learning difficulties and a Headteacher that has a strong vision for the school but seems less supported by her staff, while School 2 has a strong emphasis on performance and visibility in the community and the Headteacher seems strongly supported by her staff. Ingram argues (1997) that very limited attention has been focused on leadership behaviours in inclusive educational settings and this seems mostly unchanged since 1997. Results reported by Ingram (*ibid.*) suggest that leadership behaviours of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms are perceived to be more transformational than transactional and that highly transformational leadership, opposed to highly transactional, have a greater impact on teachers' motivation to perform beyond expectations (*ibid.*).

To confirm interview findings, the survey data, although limited in School 1, suggest that, although transformational leadership components can be identified in both schools, the Head from School 2 is more transformational in almost all aspects as she obtained higher scores on transformation sub-components which was confirmed by the interview data. Moreover, in agreement with views

expressed in the interviews, survey findings reveal that staff are more satisfied with their leader in School 2 who is perceived as passionate, dedicated and effective. Nevertheless, the interview data suggest too much emphasis on performance can make the Head in School 2 inconsiderate towards her staff's individual needs, while in School 1 the Headteacher is believed to be a very good mediator having excellent listening skills. Also, in School 1 interviewees speak more openly about the negative aspects of leadership, pointing out perceived inconsistencies and weaknesses in relationships with staff and in dealing with school problems.

### **Factors influencing leadership style**

#### ***Headship experience***

Recent reports on the impact of Headship experience on pupil outcomes (Day et al. 2009) suggest that:

For the secondary sample, heads with less total experience of headship tended to be more likely to serve high disadvantage schools, but this pattern was not identified for primary heads (idem, p.85).

Moreover, these authors found that the number of Heads in post in the past ten years was also significantly related to school context, but only for the secondary schools sample. The sample that took part in the study reported in this thesis is a combination of primary schools and low secondary schools but, unlike the findings from the study by Day et al. (2009, p. 87), the results from this study show no significant relationship between time spent in Headship and leadership style with one exception: *rewarding considerate leadership* negatively correlates with time spent in Headship.

Providing a possible explanation for these results, Krishnan (2005), in a study on the effects of transformational leadership on employees' value system congruence and identification, suggests that the positive effect of transformational leadership on outcomes is enhanced by the duration of the relationship between leader and follower in the case of congruence and identification, but not in the case of attachment and affective commitment. Moreover, Krishnan's study (ibid.) suggests that the duration of relationships between leaders and followers can have a positive impact on the organisational outcomes, but this all depends on the type of relationship established. Affective commitment is not enough in the relationships between Headteachers and their staff, there has to be congruence between the two sides.

### ***School size***

When looking at the relationship between leadership styles and size of schools, the statistical tests show significant correlations. Larger schools tend to have more *inspirational charismatic* leadership (pure charismatic, transformational) and the correlation coefficient is very strong as provided in Chapter 5. Also, smaller schools are significantly linked with the *avoidant* leadership style. But *rewarding considerate leadership*, which is the hybrid style identified as the strongest, more dominant style in the schools investigated, is independent of school size according to correlation tests. There is insufficient evidence to make conclusive assumptions about school size and school outcomes, for example, as Opdenakker and Van Damme suggest (2007). Contrary to some empirical evidence (Fowler & Walberg, 1991), but in line with other sources (e.g. Rumberger & Palady, 2004), Opdenakker and Van Damme (ibid) found a

positive connection between school size, school practice and school outcomes. Little is known, nevertheless, about the links between school size and transformational and transactional leadership practices. In a Ugandan sample, Headteachers from smaller schools felt less confident in implementing government regulations than their counterparts from medium and large schools (DeJaeghere et al., 2009).

## **Emotions**

The previous section discussed the main leadership characteristics and factors that are linked to these features. It has also briefly mentioned some of the implications that the contextualized meanings of practice of leadership may have on school outcomes. Reviews reveal that leadership impacts organisational outcomes through creating certain school conditions that allow or hinder the achievement of the desired outcomes (Day et al., 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). This next section looks into the emotional dimension of the school organisation and aims to provide an alternative perspective on understanding emotions at work. It also gives the opportunity to compare these understandings with the main assumptions made by researchers and academics studying emotions in general, and emotions at work in particular.

### **Contextualized meanings: positive emotions**

Participants' understandings of what specific emotions mean to them are valuable personal accounts that can be compared with theoretical assumptions and published research evidence in order to provide a clearer picture of the emotional life of staff working in schools in a Romanian city. These personal accounts are marked by tensions revealed not only in how specific emotions

such as *pride* and *compassion* are viewed, but also in the ‘self-other’ relationship expressed when comparing the reported subjective experiences with self-displays of emotions and perceived emotional displays of others.

Survey results show that *enthusiasm* and *hope* are the most dominant emotions as they obtain the highest scores in the general sample. Similarly, the CFA analysis identified six clusters or composites of emotions, which will be referred to by the term ‘emotion cultures’ in the next chapter that introduces the grounded theoretical model emerging from this study. The strongest and the predominant cluster is the positive one, including experiences, self-displays and others’ displays of positive emotions (such as *joy*, *satisfaction*, *enthusiasm*), but which does not include *compassion*.

These findings may seem strikingly contradictory if compared to the disappointment and pessimism of the interviewed teachers when they speak about the failings of the Romanian educational system. The tension between the reported *enthusiasm* and *hope*, and the disillusion experienced by school staff, may be better understood by looking at what *hope* means for school staff and how they experience *enthusiasm* in relation to their work.

*Hope*, as well as *enthusiasm*, is mainly described by participants in the interviews as a dominant emotional and motivational force in their work which suggests that these emotions may hold compensatory functions for the negative affectivity these teachers and other members of school staff experience.

Nevertheless, one participant’s experience was in striking contrast with the others because it seems that for this teacher *hope* fails to counterbalance the

*regret* and the *disappointment* she experiences in her daily work life. The confession that she holds no *hope* for the future was even more surprising as it contrasted with her *enthusiasm* for the school, this lady being a Head of department and very dedicated to her work. This may be an illustrative example in which a strong work ethic inspires and motivates, despite the obvious emotional tension between positive and negative experiences related to work. *Enthusiasm* appears to find its sources in achievements and results of the work. Participants advise that feeling appreciated and respected are important resources that can maintain their motivation and dedication.

Another finding was that emotions such as *pride* and *compassion*, which are generally considered as positive emotions (Michie, 2009) receive very low scores in the survey. From what the participants suggest, *pride* can be seen as both a negative emotion, synonymous with arrogance, and a positive emotion as well. This ambivalent meaning of *pride* could be the key to understanding why *pride* is not something that is experienced often by school staff, but on the other hand it might be that most of the participants feel disappointed and hurt for not being given the respect and appreciation they deserve.

*Compassion* stands out as having the lowest scores among positive emotions and not being linked with any other positive emotion. There are several possible explanations for this finding. One explanation could be that the professional culture of the investigated schools gives little encouragement for teachers to express *compassion* towards students. This may be due to an emphasis on performativity and competitiveness rather than on cooperation and teamwork (Iosifescu et al., 2002). Moving from individualism to collectivism can create a

climate of trust in the ability of schools to help other schools (Harris et al., 2009b).

This finding is consistent with Lampert's (2003) suggestion that the organizational, psychological and functional difficulties of today's public school prevent the adults working there from taking responsibility for, and acting to alleviate, the distress of children. He argues for the possibility of a radical *compassion*, understood as an empathic identification with the pain of another person, which is translated into real action, into an imperative to change the reality.

### **Contextualized meanings: Negative emotions**

In participants' views, the negative affectivity is predominantly influenced by relationships, both among the school staff and between staff and the Headteacher, who is considered accountable by the staff for the presence of envy and gossip among the teachers, this being due to the flawed rewarding system. These findings are yet another reminder of how important the relationships are for school staff and of the expectations that they have from their leader to be able to build and maintain positive relationships.

Another key finding, is the negative feelings especially those oriented towards others, such as *hatred*, and are not socially 'acceptable'. The most 'acceptable' negative emotion seems to be *irritation*, a softer version of *anger*, which is found very common in the everyday working life of teachers and school workers, especially when dealing with unwanted behaviour by the children, but in connection to government expectations and overload. Similar findings



suggest that, where teachers experience stress and dissatisfaction. This is due to working conditions and compensation (Liu & Ramsey, 2008). A recent study on teacher *burnout* (McCarthy et al., 2009) showed that this is predicted by individual differences, and not so much by school context (ibid), whereas other studies suggest that teacher's sense of positive professional identity is regarded as an important contributor in their effectiveness (Sammons et al., 2007). Furthermore, as Crawford (2009) suggests, negative emotions such as hate or fear can cause disruption and harm, and dealing with these emotions can be energy consuming for staff working in schools. In order to cope with unwanted emotions, people resort to social mechanisms such as projecting emotion elsewhere or on somebody else (Crawford, 2009) which help avoid emotions that may prove potentially harmful and destructive for relationships (Lupton, 1988).

### **Tensions and meanings of emotions**

These personal accounts of the emotional experiences of *hope*, *enthusiasm*, and also of negative emotions, all reveal a tension which is reflected in many contradictions when it comes to the emotional life of people working in the school. It seems that *hope* and *enthusiasm* are more declarative than real and that there is a huge amount of emotional labour from teachers' part as well as from other members of staff. On one side, this might be explained by the expectations that society and members of the public have from teachers as educators of the young generation. On the other side, as some teachers argue implicitly, there are some emotional display rules which are not to be broken. One teacher says about her leaving her negative emotions outside the classroom

so that she does not influence children in a negative way. Sutton et al., (2009) similarly find that the emotional labour of teachers makes them more effective in management, discipline, and their relationships with students.

The idea of the ‘detached’ teacher who need to be a professional no matter what she or he feels seems very much present in the collective mentality of the people who took part in this study and this finding was reflected in the accounts presented in the two case studies. Emotional labour has been researched in various working places and, therefore, it is not surprising that these phenomena could be identified in the investigated schools. For instance, results from this research suggest that emotion management is always connected with the existence of a certain set of display rules that are in place (Ekman & Friesen, 1974, 1982), which might be considered the emotional standard for a job, profession or organisation. In this study, the main display rule that participants talk about is hiding negative experiences and ‘putting on a brave face’ so that children’s mood is not affected in a negative way.

The significant effort and the emotional costs of keeping detached and ‘professional’ are transparent from the discussions with the teachers taking part in the interviews. The social rules of emotional display suggest that positive emotions are expected to prevail at work, whereas negative emotions ‘must’ be contained. Still, the novelty of these findings comes from the detail of the specific emotional tensions. These tensions are between the *hope* and *enthusiasm* of working in a wonderful profession that gives great *satisfaction*, as many of the participants recognize, and the anger towards the failings of the system, the sadness and the pessimism about the change possibilities for the

future, but also the sadness and regret that come from not feeling appreciated and respected for their work.

There is a complexity of meanings emerging from this study in regards to emotions. The reasons behind this may be twofold: one may be due to the fact there is an important variation of meanings in the personal, social, professional or cultural domains and, therefore, emotions will have different meanings for different people and in different cultural contexts (Matsumoto et al., 2009). For example, in this study *pride* was seen either as positive, a sense of achievement, but also as arrogance. Other emotions are also ambivalent by their nature, like surprise, which can be either positive or negative.

The second possible explanation of the contradictions in the findings might be found in the importance that display rules play in societies, cultures and groups. The rules of emotional display - be they cultural, professional or personal - result in what is known in the literature as emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983) - a tension or contradiction even between feelings (subjective experiences) and self-displays of emotions. Furthermore, a second type of tension is found in how people perceive self-displays of emotions in comparison with others' display of emotions. Still, what can be concluded from the descriptive findings of the survey, and from the interviews, is that *hope* and *enthusiasm* are seen valuable and resourceful and they tend to be the most appreciated emotions even though there is a general feeling that, in reality, teachers are hurt and pessimistic.

### **Experience, self-display and other-display of emotions**

In comparing experiences, self-displays and perceived displays of others, the findings suggest that significant differences could be identified in terms of positive emotions. Staff display more *joy* and *surprise* than they actually experience and, also, participants display more *joy*, *enthusiasm*, *satisfaction*, *surprise* and *hope* than they see others displaying. Participants view their emotional display as congruent with the others, only for *compassion* and *pride*. For all negative emotions, staff report significant less negative display than the perceived display of others. Moreover, *disgust*, *irritation*, *embarrassment*, *anger* and being *upset* are significantly less displayed compared with the actual experiences. This seems to show that different regulation levels are differentiated by the low acceptability of negative emotions and the desirability of positive emotions.

Differences between experience and display of both positive and negative emotions, and most significantly for irritation, surprise and *joy*, for which the display seems to be significantly higher than the actual experience, might be due to the fact that the positive emotions are mostly expected and therefore there is a sense of ‘must’ associated with them. *Irritation*, although negative, may be considered socially more acceptable than other negative emotions and that may be why participants regulated it less. Research evidence shows that emotion regulation has an essential function related to balancing multiple goal pursuits (Koole & Kuhl, 2007; Rothermund et al., 2008).

From the comparison between experiences and self-displays of emotions, it appears that respondents tend to be more consistent with their negative emotions

than with their positive emotions. This finding might suggest that the pressure to express positive emotions is higher than the pressure to suppress negative emotions which can be to some extent explained by a market saturated with self-help and positive ‘pop psychology’ books. Similar findings (Sutton et al., 2009) reveal that teachers are much more confident that they can communicate their positive emotions than reduce their negative emotions, and they use a variety of emotion regulation strategies, including preventive and reactive methods, in order to regulate their emotions. It seems that our ‘faked’ emotions are not so much the result of social pressures to suppress negative emotions, but the result of the social pressure to look / behave and even feel happy and positive.

The results concerning the incongruence between emotional display and others’ emotional display can root in people’s stereotypes about emotional display. One theory that could prove helpful in understanding this finding is the attribution theory (Weiner, 1986) which states that we attribute internal and external causes to all events, but we attribute internal causes to positive events and external causes to negative events.

Results reveal prevalent tensions between personal experience and display, and also between personal display and other’s display of affectivity. *Compassion* and *pride* are the only consistent and congruent emotions, but they register very low scores, which may be explained by the different, sometimes opposite, meanings that they hold. Faking the “good” emotions is not surprising and confirms findings from other previous studies on emotional labour in consumer behaviour especially. This is typically part of the job description for many of the service oriented professions. The normative initiatives promoting ‘emotional

literacy' and emotional intelligence at national level in school-based programmes (Weare, 2004) may be contributing to maintaining the politics of the 'educated feelings' Boler (1997).

An important implication for leadership studies and organisational performance is the assumption of the attribution theory (Weiner, 1986) that we will interpret our emotions and others' emotions in order to maintain a positive self-image and whether this, in return, has a significant impact on work and organisational outcomes. This assumption will be further explored in the next section.

### **Relationship between leadership styles, collective emotions and school outcomes**

Before discussing the relationships between leadership practices, collective emotions and school outcomes in the selected sample, a brief summary of the contextualized meanings of school success and performance will be presented. These understandings are valuable in a context in which the importance of using different conceptions, and multiple operational definitions, of effectiveness was raised in the educational research due to large differences in findings between studies exploring school effectiveness (Hill & Rowe, 1996). Four different types of organisational outcomes were assessed in this study: two subjective organisational outcomes, one reflecting staff's perceptions of their school success and the second referring to leadership effectiveness as viewed by staff, extra effort and *satisfaction* given to the staff; and two more objective outcomes, one measuring the graduate rate and the other measuring the progression to higher levels of education. These outcomes are measured through the survey data while the interviews explore in more detail participants' personal views on

what it means for a school to be successful or effective and to what extent the school they are working in fits their own criteria.

### **Contextualized meanings of school success**

One of the key debates in the educational literature is what makes a school successful and what should be the indicators of this success. In the UK, the discursive shift has been made from the ideal of egalitarianism, which emphasizes an education for all, to that of performativity (Arnot & Miles, 2005) aimed at raising standards and widening participation. This shift, and the excessive ‘marketization’ of education, has led to what Bottery (2003) calls a ‘culture of unhappiness’ in British schools. The contested nature of educational outcomes is linked to the identity of education itself. In the neo-liberal vision, education is a product and a service to be marketed (Gunter, 2001) while, according to the democratic ideals and practices, education is a public good that promotes equity and contributes to the creation of a learning society (Ranson, 1993). These contested understandings of what education stands for as well as views of what makes a school successful, are similarly reflected in the accounts provided by the participants in this study. For some, success is measured by number of students enrolled or academic achievement in national exams, for others success means providing individualized and tailored programs for all.

The survey data provide a general overview based on some indicators of school success such: as staff’s perceptions and *satisfaction* with their school, leadership outcomes, and graduation rates, and the overall findings show similar and good rates of graduation and progression to higher levels of education, as well as high scores for perceived school success for all 18 schools.

Nevertheless, the interviews distinguish between at least two different views of school success that are part of the leader's vision and are voiced by both the Head and by the members of the staff. In the inclusive school, the 'success' of a school is given by its capacity to provide for the individual needs of students (egalitarian view of education), whereas, in the second case study school, success is indicated by the school's capacity to attract a large number of students and by academic achievement (performativity-linked success).

Moreover, the Headteacher from School 1, the inclusive school, takes the 'European school' as the golden standard for school success. By this, the Head understands that the school has good facilities (level of hygiene, equipment, furniture etc.) and excellent teaching quality reflected in the use of creative and modern methods of teaching, which are in contrast with the "traditional" teaching and learning and which are also reflected in the teachers' training. On the other hand, as one member of staff points out and as some literature suggests (Arnot & Miles, 2005; Bottery, 2003; Ranson, 1993. 1995), there is a contestation of success per se which is linked to a criticism of the divide between 'good' and 'weak' students. In this latter case, a successful school is not necessarily a school with good academic results, but a school that can provide for all children.

For School 2, perceived school success and leadership outcomes are sensitively higher than those obtained in the general sample. Interviews held in School 2 reveal a general consensus among staff that the school has always been and still is a very good and successful school compared with similar schools, and has a pleasant climate and positive relationships among staff, and between staff and



pupils. Moreover, the Head from School 1 believes that the numbers say everything: the more children enrolled, the more successful the school.

This finding is important as it links to policies of school choice and children allocation. On paper, each school is obliged to enrol students from their catchment area, but it is not forbidden to enrol students from other areas of the city (Headteacher School 1). There is no other form of control over school enrolment, which makes the competition between neighbouring schools fierce.

So, although different schools may emphasize different aspects of school effectiveness and success by having an egalitarian or a performance-oriented vision, in reality, success and effectiveness are affected by the school's and individual teachers' reputation in the community. These indicators are not formally recognized in the form of published league tables of successful or less successful schools. Such league tables are not public information, although organisational evaluations are made on a regular basis by representatives of the Minister of Education (C.N.C.E.I.P, 2010). As some participants suggest, teachers' reputation informs parents' choice, especially in primary schools. Parents' choice seems to be unlimited which, on the positive side, makes the schools accountable to the local communities and to parents, but, on the negative side, it makes schools vulnerable to parents' pressures and expectations and therefore potentially exposed to compromising educational quality. Some interviewees mention that parents and children exercise their power by putting pressures on teachers to give higher marks than deserved and by sometimes 'reminding' teachers' of their lower social status and therefore lack of authority.

All these issues raised by participants have important emotional consequences and implications for leadership practices, as the next section will reveal.

### **Emotions and school outcomes**

The literature on the role of emotions in organisational development and performance is substantial and has been growing for almost twenty years since the publication of Fineman's seminal book on emotions in organisations (1993). In education, the richest research literature is based on concepts like emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) and emotional literacy (Perry & Steiner, 1999; Weare, 2000, 2004). These ability or skill-based approaches to organisational approaches have been criticized both in organisation studies, and in the educational literature (Crawford, 2009), for being prescriptive and insufficient for understanding emotionality at work.

The case study interviews are particularly useful for testing out this relationship and the influence that emotions might have on school outcomes. In School 1, for instance, although views on the impact of emotions on work and on school results are split, all the respondents with teaching responsibilities share the opinion that, when they feel positive, they can perform better, and their attitude towards students is more likely to produce better results. This is in line with evidence provided by Sutton & Wheatley (2003) who argue that teachers' emotions influence teachers' and students' cognitions, motivation, and behaviours. The same claim is made by Leithwood and Beatty (2008), who argue that teachers' emotions have a direct impact on their practices and therefore influence significantly students' learning at classroom level.

Nevertheless, some of the participants acknowledge that there may be other

more important factors that might affect students' performance, and one of these key factors is the family. As one of the interviewees suggests, the school cannot compensate for the lack of support from children's carers. Moreover, most interviewees differentiate between the impact that individual teachers have in the classroom, directly affecting students' emotions and learning, and the general emotional climate in the school that can generate positive outcomes (ibid).

In school 2, the Headteacher claims that it is the school's positive climate that is the major factor in attracting students to join the school, and this is one of the key success indicators of the school. Nevertheless, the other participants could not make a direct and explicit connection between the emotions they experience and express at work and the quality of their work, or the results of their students. The only link that has been suggested is that students might enjoy a class better if the teacher was nice, but still it was not clear whether that was due to the teacher's personality or to the way they express their emotions in relations to children. Similarly, interviewees from School 1 support this claim. When asked about school outcomes and success, without mentioning the possible role of emotions, some of the interviewees from School 1 suggest that school climate and leadership style are the key factors in school success. These results are supported by similar investigation of emotions, such as *anxiety*, *anger*, *boredom*, *pleasure*, *hope*, and *satisfaction*, which are found to be significantly related to learning and achievement (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2008a).

There seems to be a strong agreement among school staff from School 2 about the positive school climate of the school, and about the fact that this is very

important to them and that this is one of the reasons they work in this school. Participants from School 2 also point out that the Head has the most significant role in how the organisational tone is set. The way teachers feel at work impacts on their work, but it is less clear in what way and with what exact effects. One primary school teacher from School 2 explains that emotions affect the performance of the teacher, and the relationships with the students, suggesting that these would impact on students' results as well. The speech therapist believes that, in order for her work to give results, her emotions and how children feel in her laboratory are crucial to the success of the interventions, which are different from the usual classroom learning experiences. However, these views are not shared by all members of staff. The school administrator believes that the motivation of teachers, level of qualifications and their involvement in the school activities, are more important influences on students' results. In addition, when asked whether she thinks that a tense and stressful environment is essential to students' performance in school, she says that there are other more important factors, such as family.

Generally, it appears that people with management and administration roles tend to put more emphasis on the teaching quality and motivation of teachers, and not so much on relationships and positive climate. This finding is supported by other evidence from the literature. The results from a study by Sackney et al. (2000) show that, although gender did not affect perceptions of wellness, job type did affect the respondents' experiences and perceptions of employee wellness within an educational organization. Administrators were generally more positive about their wellness conditions than were teachers or support personnel. It was

concluded that educational organizations in general, and work in schools specifically, have become more complex, which no doubt has affected the wellness of education workers, teachers, administrators and support personnel. A number of leadership implications were noted, including the need for employee input into system decision-making processes and attention to employee relationships (ibid.).

Three of the interviewed participants give examples of schools where the climate is very tense and negative, but which also are considered very successful. According to these participants, it is possible that a school where staff experience negative emotions may deliver very good results, but with an immense emotional cost from the staff. This finding is intriguing as it contradicts some evidence from the literature emphasizes the role of positive climate to school outcomes (Heck & Marcoulides, 1996). By school performance, the authors (ibid.) mean academic outcomes measured by standard achievement scores obtained at school level in various curricular areas. Findings of this study (ibid.) were consistent with previous research undertaken by Lee and Croninger (1994) supporting the belief that schools where positive social and professional relations are developed, are environments where more learning takes place. Findings included the importance of organisational values, social relationships and teachers attitudes, the latter being the strongest predictor of outcomes (Heck & Marcoulides, 1996).

Further evidence from research on self-efficacy suggests that teachers who experience powerlessness, hopelessness and alienation develop lowered senses of self-efficacy in terms of believing they have the power to make a difference

to their students' lives, and attain poorer results in student achievement as a consequence (e.g. Ashton and Webb 1986). In addition to concepts such as emotional intelligence, emotional literacy or self-efficacy, Curchod and Doudin (2009) build on a model based on concepts of emotional competencies of school staff while Gendron (2004) talks about the 'emotional capital' of school and its importance to organisational development.

Moreover, a recent study using mixed methodology in looking at the emotional dimension of learning is Gla"ser-Zikuda et al.'s (2008) investigation of emotions such as *anxiety*, *anger*, *boredom*, *pleasure*, *hope*, and *satisfaction*, which are found to be significantly related to learning and achievement. These findings are supported by previous research (Gla"ser-Zikuda et al., 2005, Pekrun et al., 2002). Other examples of studies looking at the role of emotions in learning are: Turner et al. (2003) emphasize the role of emotion in motivation theories, and MacNail et al. (2008), studying effects of school culture and school climate, find that students achieve higher scores on standardized tests in schools with healthy learning environments.

Although many academics and researchers make a strong claim in linking emotions, and especially positive emotions, to learning outcomes and, more generally, to school outcomes (i.e. Leithwood & Beatty, 2008), it is difficult to identify more precisely how this process takes place and what are the underlying mechanisms that lead to these results. The most common explanation comes from motivation theory (Turner et al., 2003) which argues that emotions are very powerful motivational resources. These explanations could be found in some of the interviews from this study. The only other explanation provided by

the participants suggested mechanisms such as social influence, according to which students might copy teachers' behaviours and emotions. It is not clear, though, whether this is due to the display of positive emotions or whether there are other personality and social factors that might come into equation: such as teacher likability and other personality traits or professional competence.

Further research is necessary to tease out the mechanisms of social influence in the case of teachers' emotions and student outcomes, but the findings of this study confirm previous claims that teachers' emotions are important for student learning.

### **Emotions and leadership styles**

Research evidence suggests that leadership style does not only affect the general climate of school (Day et al., 2009; Devos & Bouckenooghe, 2009; Massaro, 2000), but also, as the present study suggests the specific and individual emotions of school. Furthermore, empirical evidence suggests that leadership practices, such as team cohesion (Hulpia et al., 2009), and certain forms of leadership, such as servant leadership (Cerit, 2009), affects teachers' job *satisfaction*. Moreover, a recent study (Mascall et al., 2008) looking at distributed leadership and academic *optimism* showed that levels of academic optimism were positively and significantly associated with planned approaches to leadership distribution, and conversely, low levels of academic optimism were negatively and significantly associated with unplanned and unaligned approaches to leadership distribution. According to Hoy et al. (2006), academic *optimism* comprises trust, collective self-efficacy of teachers and academic emphasis.

This study looked for evidence to link transformational and transactional practices to specific emotions experienced and displayed by school staff from Romania. In School 1, both the survey findings and the case study shows that *envy* is one of the prevalent, but accepted, emotions experienced at work. This *envy* is suggested to be the result of an insufficiently clear and fair system for teachers to access compensation and reward, and suggests a lack of trust in their leader and in each other. When asked about this, the Headteacher says that *envy* is 'normal' in school and it did not seem that important to be changed. As Crawford points out (2009), in dealing with negative emotions people use social mechanisms to avoid the undesired experience, which may be one of the explanations for the Head's attitude in this case.

All participants in this study point out that school leaders play a significant role in setting the tone for the school climate. Also, the interviews provide some insight into how the Headteacher can influence emotions at school. Some of the views expressed are that the Head can influence positive emotions experienced by staff through individual consideration and through mediating relationships. At the same time, the Headteacher can induce feelings of anxiety, fear and frustration due to the fact that teachers feel the pressure of being accountable for their work to the Headteacher. Previous research brings similar evidence showing that relationships between leader reward and punishment behaviours, and employee attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours, were more functional when the rewards or punishments were administered contingently than when they were administered non-contingently (Podsakoff et al., 2006). Moreover, this evidence shows that leader rewards and punishment behaviours were



strongly related to two variables, which are employees' perceptions of justice and role ambiguity (ibid).

The data collected from the questionnaires and the interviews undertaken in School 2 suggest that leadership is seen as democratic and inspirational, although sometimes the leader might neglect or even hurt people's feelings while focusing on results and performance. Both interview and questionnaire data suggest that staff think their school is successful and, in fact, is one of the best schools in the city, not only for the results, but also for the positive enjoyable climate which is one of the main strengths of the school that attracts so many students to enrol. In teachers' opinion, the positive school climate, and the fact that they enjoy their work, is a direct result of a positive leader who knows how to set the tone for a supportive and pleasant working environment. Also, the interviewees believe it is essential for them to work in a relaxed positive atmosphere and believe that the climate has an impact on their work and which, in turn, affects students' attitude towards learning.

Similarly, Harding and Pribarm (2004) argue that a sustainable and distributed model of educational leadership cannot be achieved without understanding how both feelings and leadership are 'constituted and operate interactively at the level of both individual personal experience and wider social formations... [and] power relations' (ibid, p. 863).

The link between leadership practices and emotions is explored by Slater (2005), who believes that leadership for collaboration is an affective process, underpinned by, and linked to, the emotional domain. The implications of these

findings for policy and practice are significant and will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

### **Leadership, collective emotions and organisational outcomes**

So far, this chapter has explored leadership, emotions and outcomes, their understandings and meanings reflected in participants' views and stories, compared to conceptualisations proposed by the literature and to research evidence from the educational field and beyond. The focus of this section is to bring together the three main themes investigated in this study, to seek to understand what the nature of this complex relationship is, as well as to propose likely mechanisms to explain it.

Recent publications, such as the report on the impact of leadership on pupils' outcomes (Day et al., 2009), make several strong claims about the role of leadership in student outcomes, one of which is that Headteachers improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions.

Both *rewarding considerate leadership*, and *inspirational charismatic leadership*, correlate positively and significantly with leadership outcomes such as extra effort, effectiveness, and *satisfaction* with leadership, with perceived school success and with positive collective emotions such as *joy*, *satisfaction*, *enthusiasm* and *hope*. Hoy et al. (2006) revealed that academic optimism comprises trust, collective self-efficacy of teachers and academic emphasis.

What differentiates *rewarding considerate leadership* from *inspirational charismatic leadership* is that the former has strong but negative correlates with

self-displays of negative emotions, with perceptions of others' displays of negative affectivity and with experiences of negative emotions self-oriented. In contrast, inspirational charismatic leadership does not seem to be so strongly opposed to negative affectivity either experienced or displays, but surprisingly seems to be negatively correlated to *compassion*.

*Avoidant* leadership correlates negatively with positive collective emotions and with leadership outcomes and perceived school success. Moreover, where leaders are *avoidant* and *passive*, self-displays and perceptions of others' displays of negative affectivity are very high.

*Compassion* stands out in the sense that it is negatively associated with *inspirational charismatic leadership*. This unexpected finding might be explained by looking at the significant and positive correlation between *compassion* and experiences of negative emotions that are self-oriented. It seems that the more shame, regret and guilt are experienced by school staff, the more *compassionate* they are. This might have two implications: first, that *compassion* is seen as a personal as well as an organisational weakness because of its association with self-deprecating emotions which might explain the low scores obtained for *compassion* in the general sample. Moreover, the school that was found with the highest scores of *compassion* is underachieving with a large number of social cases and children with learning difficulties. A second implication of this finding that needs to be tested in either longitudinal studies or through an experimental design is that charismatic leaders may not be as effective in *compassionate* environments where self-deprecating emotions are also experienced by staff. This could suggest that charismatic leadership

practices could be associated with some positive emotions such as *pride* and self-confidence, but not with all positive emotions. It can be argued that the relationship between transformational leadership and positive emotions is not self-evident, although there is a solid body of evidence to suggest positive relationships between transformational leadership and teachers' commitment, extra effort, employees' values congruence (Geijsel et al., 2003, Krishnan, 2005), findings supported by studies outside the educational field (Yukl, 1999).

Arnold et al. (2007) look at how transformational leadership impacts on the work of Canadian health care professionals and their results support and add to the range of positive mental health effects associated with transformational leadership and are suggestive of interventions that organizations can make to improve well-being of workers. The results provide broad empirical evidence to support one of the central tenets of transformational leadership theory— that leaders can transform followers' beliefs to enhance well-being.

More than 35 studies have reported positive relationships between transformational leadership and follower performance, creativity, and innovation within schools (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Barnett et al. 1999) and outside the educational field (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996, Boehnke et al., 2003; Jung et al., 2008; Chin, 2007). Barnett et al. (1999) discuss transformational leadership behaviours in Canadian schools, finding that only some transformational behaviours, such as individual concern, were associated with teachers' outcomes such as *satisfaction*, extra effort and perception of leadership effectiveness and, surprisingly, vision/inspiration was negatively associated with student learning culture.

It can be argued that it is self-evident that positive emotions relate to better organisational outcomes. As these findings suggest, the positive and the negative nature of certain emotions can be influenced by context and culture and therefore need to be interpreted carefully. There are two examples that could support this claim: one is *pride*, seen as both negative and positive, although most of the emotion literature defines *pride* as a positive emotion (Michie, 2009), and *compassion*, which could be self-evidently considered as a positive emotion. Nevertheless, in this case, the opposite might apply and *compassion* is perceived as a negative emotion or a sign of weakness.

The interviews with staff from School 1 revealed some tensions between staff and the leader, which sometimes translate into *envy* and gossiping among staff. This system of distributing tasks is seen as an indirect rewarding system because people having leadership positions within the school have better evaluations at the end of the year. But this system might be perceived as insufficiently transparent and fair towards all members of staff and even encouraging favouritism.

These concerns can be linked with issues raised in relationship to leadership, where participants talked about the necessity that a school leader is fair and able to mediate tensed situations. This view of the ideal school leader might be a reflection of these concerns that staff have in relation to the current leadership practices that they think might affect relationships and climate. Similarly, Ross & Gray (2006) prove that transformational leadership had direct and indirect effects on teachers' commitment to community partnership, where the effects were mediated by teachers' collective self-efficacy measured. Transformational

leadership effects on teacher outcomes have been proven in previous studies but how these effects occur were less well known, as Leithwood et al.'s review based on 20 studies suggests (1999). Moreover, Zohar & Tenne-Gazit (2008) tested the social mechanisms through which organizational climate emerge. This article introduces a model that combines transformational leadership and social interaction as antecedents of climate strength (i.e., the degree of within-unit agreement about climate perceptions). The authors emphasize the distinction between individual and group or collective effects of leadership, suggesting the latter are key antecedents of shared group cognitions, including climate perceptions. Therefore, leaders must be aware of the distinction between their individual- and group-level effects on members and develop skills for exercising both. As participants suggest, some ways in which the Head can significantly impact on their school's results are by individually motivating, stimulating and supporting teachers in their initiatives and / or by creating that environment of trust and even competitiveness that encourages and stimulates staff to want to "prove themselves", as one primary school teacher said.

## **Summary**

Data from both the survey and the interviews suggest that the most valued leadership style is not a pure transformational style, but a 'hybrid' type that combines transformational components, such as individual consideration, with transactional practices, such as contingent reward. School 1 has strong transformational components, where the leader has a clear vision for the school and takes the 'European school', with good facilities and excellent teaching quality, as a model but seems to fail in relationships with her staff and in setting

a transparent and fair reward system. Interviews suggest that the key perceived elements to successful school leadership are the Head's ability to develop and maintain good relationships, with a specific focus on fair and clear reward systems; good management and decision making skills, as well as having a clear vision and charisma.

Similarly, evidence from the survey and the case studies reveal that a general pattern can be identified in terms of collective emotions, but different types of emotions can be differentiated at school level. School 2, where the positive emotions are dominant, is perceived as more successful by the staff and it is also the school that attracts more students, whereas in School 1, staff are less satisfied with the leader, according to the survey, and the collective emotions, although generally positive, are also dominated by some negativity that is oriented towards others.

All these accounts recommend that leadership is a key contributor to the collective emotions of school staff, and that positive collective emotions are more likely to lead to a better performance as well.

## 9. Conclusion

A leader is a dealer in hope (Napoleon Bonaparte)

This chapter shows how the research questions have been answered, discusses the empirical and theoretical significance of the study and also suggests some implications for policy and practice.

### Answering the research questions

The responses to each research question are presented on an integrated basis, drawing on all relevant findings; data comparing views from different respondents (Headteachers and school staff), quantitative and qualitative data from questionnaires and interviews, survey and case study data, and evidence provided by the published literature.

### Research question 1: What is the dominant leadership style practiced in schools from Romania?

Descriptive results found in the survey data suggest that charismatic behaviours such as IM, IIA and IIB and also CR are the most common leadership practices. The least common style is laissez-faire leadership. Evidence from the case study confirms the survey results and suggests that being among school staff, developing and maintaining positive relationships and also implementing consistent and transparent rewarding systems appeared to be key to successful and satisfying leadership. The results from the confirmatory factor analysis did not discriminate between transformational and transactional practices as



suggested by the original theory (Bass & Avolio). The Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) found three distinctive leadership styles called: *rewarding considerate* – a ‘hybrid’ style combining contingent reward (transactional) and individual consideration (transformational); *inspirational charismatic* – a ‘pure’ transformational style including charismatic components such as IM, IIA and IIB; and *avoidant* – a style including laissez-faire practices and some aspects of MBE passive (transactional). From a statistical point of view, the strongest factor, best discriminated in terms of theoretical purity (strong loading of similar sub-items under the same factor) and also having a very high reliability was *rewarding considerate* style. The factor with weaker and more mixed loadings, although having good reliability, was *inspirational charismatic* leadership.

These survey results were, to a large extent, confirmed by the case study findings, the latter bringing more information about staff’s views of leadership. Data from the interviews in the two case study schools showed that the staff expressed their preference for a ‘democratic’ leader, as opposed to a ‘dictatorial’ leadership. Both these terms were used by the majority of the participants in the interviews when asked what the current leadership style in their school was. The ‘democratic’ leader, in staff’s opinion, encourages all school teachers to take part in the decision-making process. It was found that this ‘democratic’ leadership style was preferred and was linked to positive atmosphere and positive emotional experiences at work. Still, some staff believed that a ‘dictatorial’ Head can have good results but with huge emotional costs from the staff.

**Research question 2: What configurations of emotional experiences and displays can be identified overall in the studied schools as well as at individual school level?**

The positive emotions (experiences, self-displays and self-displays) are dominant in all schools, but *pride* and *compassion* receive the lowest scores. Some dominant negative emotions such as irritation and upset are not seen as problematic and are considered as a natural part of the work with children as they are not prevalent, but rather situation-related. On the other hand, some negative emotions other-oriented, such as envy, can be problematic as they affect relationships and work outcomes. *Compassion* stands out: negatively linked to both transformational leadership and positive emotions cultures.

Moreover, statistically significant differences are identified between emotional experiences and self-displays, and also between self-displays and perceptions of others' displays, which might suggest that emotion regulation processes intervene for both positive and negative emotions. For instance, *joy* is more displayed than experienced, whereas the display of *irritation* seems to be suppressed or withheld when compared to actual subjective experiences reported by staff in the survey. In contrast, when self-displays are compared with others' displays, the general tendency is that others' express less positive emotions than self and more negativity than the negativity found in self-displays. The only concordance between experience, self-displays, and others' display of emotions, was found in relation to *compassion* and *pride*. Thus, positive emotions tend to be accentuated in the displays, whereas negative emotions tend to be inhibited.

Also, negative displays are less dominant in self-displays, compared with others' displays according to participants' beliefs.

The case studies confirmed the results from the survey, suggesting that positive emotions were dominant, meaning that they are experienced and displayed more often than negative emotions. *Hope* seems to be the dominate emotion and this seems to have a motivational function. *Irritation* and *upset* seemed to be emotions that are part of day to day life and they are triggered mostly by students' misbehaviour. *Envy* seems to be an issue that affects relationships among school staff and it is thought to originate in the fact that some teachers are unfairly promoted or supported by the Headteacher.

Generally, the survey data suggest that, in schools where the positive composite receives very high scores, the negative feelings towards others (like *envy*, *irritation* and *hatred*) have much lower scores. Also, if a school has more negative experiences self-oriented (like *guilt*, *regret*, *shame*, *embarrassment*), usually the collective negative feelings other-oriented (like *envy* and *hatred*) are much less dominant than in other schools. An atypical case is a school with strong positive collective emotions, very low negative experiences self-oriented (like *shame* and *guilt*), but quite strong negative feelings oriented towards (like *irritation*, *envy* and *disgust*).

**Research question 3: Are positive emotions 'better', meaning is there a significant and positive connection between positive emotions and better organisational outcomes?**

In general, positive collective emotions (experiences, self-displays and others' displays of *joy*, *satisfaction* and *enthusiasm* etc.) are found significantly and positively linked to perceived school success and to better leadership outcomes. In the interviews, the participants explain that the most direct effects that emotions have are at classroom level because of the impact that emotions have on students' motivation and learning. Mechanisms of how collective emotions can link to better overall organisational outcomes seem more difficult to identify. *Satisfaction* with school relates to positive emotion culture and dissatisfied staff experience more negative emotions oriented towards others and see more negative emotions displayed by others.

Nevertheless, this pattern could not be found for all positive emotions. For instance, *compassion* does not correlate with any of the outcomes either positively, or negatively. This suggests that over generalizing by using labels of positive and negative when referring to emotions is contestable because the meanings that are given to certain emotions need to be found in the specific context and culture that are researched.

#### **Research question 4: How do different leadership styles link into different organisational emotions?**

The findings reveal an apparent contradiction between survey and interview data in terms of school outcomes. Thus, there are significant differences in the *satisfaction* with school in the two schools that took part in the case studies, yet both schools are perceived successful by their members of staff and the graduation rates are very good and do not differ significantly between the two

schools. This explanation was found in the different meanings that were given to school success. In one school, success was dominantly evaluated by quantitative indicators, as interviewees refer to success in terms of performance, academic achievements of students reflected in results at national exams, and the number of new students enrolled.

In contrast, staff from the other school seem less performance-oriented and describe successful in more qualitative terms saying that a successful school is an ‘inclusive’ school, one that can meet all needs, that can provide individualized educational provision for all. These contrasting models of success can provide a possible explanation for the apparent contradiction that was found in the survey results which suggested that both schools were seen as successful by the staff, yet the *satisfaction* with leadership and with school’s performance was lower in the school where success was described in more qualitative terms.

*Rewarding considerate* leadership, the ‘hybrid’ style that combines transformational practices with transactional practices has the strongest association with positive outcomes. Contingent reward practices are apparently negatively linked to more time spent in Headship. A negative association was found between good outcomes such as perceived school success, *satisfaction* with leadership and *avoidant leadership* style. The larger schools tend to have more charismatic components to the leadership style, whereas *avoidant* leadership is found in smaller schools.

**Research question 5: Is there any significant relationship between certain leadership styles, certain organisational emotions and school development and performance?**

It is hard to tease out the mechanisms that explain the complex relationship between leadership styles, collective emotions and school development and performance, nevertheless results from both the survey and the case studies indicate that leadership style is a key factor in how collective emotions are shaped and that emotions may have an important effect on school outcomes, especially through classroom practices. Findings from the two case studies suggest some means by which a Headteacher can influence collective emotions and how, in turn, emotions can prove beneficial or, on the contrary, detrimental to organisational outcomes. Some of these means mentioned by the interviewees are: a fair rewarding system and transparent procedures for pupil allocation to classes.

The participants in the interviews suggest two means by which a leader can affect individual and collective emotions and these are her ability to create and maintain trust and positive relationships with all staff, on the one hand, and on the other, the ability to develop and implement a clear and fair rewarding system for staff. Moreover, as the staff point out, one process or mechanism that intervenes at classroom level between teachers and students is imitation, which implies that students respond emotionally in the same way teachers related to them and their emotional responses are crucial to motivation and learning experiences.

Surprisingly, *compassion*, one of the emotions that would perhaps be expected to be experienced in schools by teaching staff, did not link with any of the organisational outcomes measures. In addition, it seems that the more ‘purely’ transformational and charismatic a Headteacher is, the less *compassionate* the staff are. This finding might be explained by the fact that *inspirational charismatic* leadership was found significantly more in larger schools compared to smaller schools and it could be argued that smaller schools are a better environment for closer and more *compassionate* relationships to form among staff and between staff and children.

In exploring the relationship between leadership styles, different collective emotions composites, and the outcomes selected for this study, correlational analysis suggests that *rewarding considerate* leadership best relates to positive collective emotions and better school outcomes as they were assessed in this study. Moreover, *avoidant* leadership is negatively associated with both positive emotions and better outcomes. *Inspirational charismatic* leadership is strongly correlated with better organisational outcomes, but negatively linked with *compassion*.

Case study findings similarly imply that a positive relationship exists between leadership practices, staff’s emotions and school outcomes, but it is difficult to identify the actual mechanisms that explain this relationship. Most participants suggest that if teachers’ experiences and displays are positive, these will influence students’ learning behaviours at classroom level through imitation. Also, most of the participants in the interviews acknowledged that the Headteacher is the key determinant, of school climate and collective emotions.

## The empirical significance of the study

This study is original for being the first published research exploring leadership styles and emotions of school staff from Romania and therefore has important practical implications for leadership and teaching training, but also for educational policy. On the one hand, the findings suggests that relationships and rewarding systems are highly valued by school staff and problematic relationships or lack of involvement with staff by Headteachers can lead to feelings of envy and lack of trust. On the other hand, it is suggested that more positive collective and individual experiences and displays are linked to stronger confidence in school success and to *satisfaction* with leadership, and also with perceived leadership effectiveness and extra effort.

Some of the findings could also contribute to a better understanding of the national and professional culture of teachers working in schools from a post-soviet country. One of the surprising findings of this study is that *compassion* – which is a truly altruistic emotion that involves caring, paying attention and understanding the needs of others – stands out as an emotion obtaining very low scores overall in both experiences and social displays. Moreover, *compassion* seems to have no significant connection to school outcomes as they were measured in this study.

If the finding was to be explained by some of the features of the national culture, one might argue that the Romanian society, which has one of the lowest levels of trust in Europe (World Values Survey, 2008), has a long way to go until it learns to encourage and embrace *compassion* as a positive, beneficial emotion



that could contribute to rebuilding the sense of community, belonging and trust among Romanian citizens, after a traumatizing experience of state control and censorship (World Values Survey, 2008). The project of rebuilding a sense of community and trust in Romania might prove very difficult indeed, especially as Romania is fighting to move away from a strong, but dysfunctional, collectivist society trying to regain some balance between the individualistic characteristics that celebrate and respect the individual and the collectivist features that bring citizens together in the national effort to progress and develop.

These aspects of the national Romanian culture are reflected in social trust and the corruption levels. Findings of a study by Rothstein and Eek (2009) class Romania as a low trust/high corruption country compared to Sweden which is seen as a high-trust/low-corruption country (Baltatescu, 2009). Moreover, the Corruption Perception Index issued by Transparency International, Romania scores a low 3.0 on their 0–10 scale (where 10 is least and 0 most corrupt). Their findings suggest that, when people experience deceitful behaviour by public authorities, they do not only lose trust in the authorities in question, but they also come to believe that people in general in such a society are less trustworthy. These effects were the same regardless of whether people have been brought up in a high-trust/low-corruption culture, such as Sweden, or in a low trust/high corruption culture, such as Romania. Though admittedly this is a speculation, low levels of social trust may affect social relationships as well as the national emotion cultures that can be expressed in how people experience and display their *compassion* towards other people.

The organisational literature has been dominated for quite some time by the so called ‘positive organisational scholarship’ which draws from the positive psychology originating in the works of authors like Fromm (1941, 1976) or Maslow (1943) who developed theories on human happiness. This is all very ‘positive’ perhaps up to the point where the social pressures and expectations of happiness have the opposite effect. Evidence from research has shown, for instance, that people suffering from schizophrenia and other mental illnesses have better remissions in non-industrialized countries than patients from Western-European or other industrialized countries because the pressures and the expectations to have a job and live a life that is ‘fulfilling’ or ‘successful’ are lower in non-industrialized societies (Castillo, 1997). It seems difficult to accept negative affectivity as a natural part of being human even when these have dysfunctional effects on both individual and societal levels.

These are sensitive matters that raise serious ethical and moral dilemmas that should not be dismissed just because ‘happiness’ may prove to be a convenient commodity that helps organisations bring more profit. The study reported here tackles this issue as it identifies some prevalent tensions between experiences and displays of positive emotions, suggesting that the pressure for happiness or *joy* is making its presence in the working lives of professionals from Romanian schools. The short and long-term effects of these tensions on the individual schools and society are something to be further explored.

This study design is believed to be replicable for all the methods used. The assessment of leadership styles, for instance, is based on a standardized instrument which has been widely used in research from all over the world

(Saros & Santora, 2001, Tejada et al., 2001). The list selected to evaluate emotions is, again, inspired by existing scales assessing positive and negative affect and take into consideration cultural aspects only in terms of the verbal labels used to designate certain emotions in Romania. Similarly, the identification of experiences, self-displays, and perceptions of others' display, are arguably easily replicable to other contexts, as they are universal social aspects of emotions. The fact that correspondent emotion referring words could be found in English, suggests that at least in English-speaking countries, the exact list could be replicated in order to identify, for example, variations across English-speaking countries.

Furthermore, the mixed method design was thought to strengthen the validity of the findings. The initial framework, sketched for the analysis and integration of findings, was refined throughout the process of data analysis and discussion of findings. The data are diverse both in terms of source, where participants in different roles within the school took part in the study and expressed their views, and also in terms of type: both numerical, and non-numerical data such as verbal or non-verbal data, have been gathered with the purpose of triangulation of findings, but also to provide a richer and more complete overview of the phenomena under investigation. The importance of multilevel modelling in school effectiveness research was stressed by Hill and Rowe (1996) and assumes that sampling must allow for joint estimation of effects at relevant levels of analysis.

## **The theoretical significance of the research**

The study contributes to the understanding of complex organisational phenomena and their interactions that affect school development and performance. A ‘pure’ leadership style, encompassing all the elements of the original theory developed by Bass and Avolio (1994), could not be identified. Rather, a ‘hybrid’ type combining elements of transformational leadership (especially individual consideration) and transactional practices (contingent reward) was found most common. The idea of ‘hybridism’ is central to understanding leadership in the current debate of distributed versus ‘solo’ leadership (Gronn, 2009). This debate refers to a ‘configuration’ of leadership behaviours, labelled as ‘hybrid’ by Gronn (ibid), and comprising parameters, dynamics and relationships between parameters such as number of leadership actors, time, space, context and membership.

### **Hybrid leadership**

In this study, the more ‘pure’ transformational leadership dominantly included elements of charismatic attributes and behaviours, but not features like individual consideration or intellectual stimulation. This is not an uncommon finding as various other studies have found that contingent reward is linked to some transformational features of leadership (Heinitz et al., 2005).

Instead, a ‘hybrid’ type of leadership combining transformational and transactional behaviours, but also ‘democratic’ practices, is more realistic and found more effective and satisfying from the point of view of the school staff. ‘Democratic’ leadership was often used to refer a style that welcomes ideas

from others and teachers' inputs when making decisions. It was found that this leadership style is the opposite of 'dictatorial' leadership – another term used by participants- in which the Head does not listen to others' opinions when making the decisions. Interestingly, both 'democratic' and 'dictatorial' leadership were found to be possibly equally effective, although dictatorial leadership would involve huge emotional costs for teachers.

Some of the theoretical assumptions on which this study is based are referring to definitions of leadership, and associated terms such as management and administration, and also to the contested nature of the leader-follower distinction. More recent leadership theories, such as distributed leadership (Harris, 2009; Leithwood et al., 2008) and participative leadership, call for a reconsideration of the leadership-follower distinction. A general trend in the leadership literature is the increased agreement that leadership effectiveness is not a 'one-man/woman show', but it rather relies on the involvement of staff leading at different organisational levels (Harris, 2004). Although it was not the purpose of this study to investigate distributed leadership, this form is mentioned by one interviewee who believes that leading, creating vision, initiating action should come from the teachers, as well as the Headteacher. This is only a single response, but it was nevertheless surprising to find openness for such forms of leadership in Romanian schools, which have a long tradition of centralized, authoritarian culture of leadership, and where the power distance has been found as still very large in the Romanian school culture (Iosifescu et al., 2002).

The results of this project are believed also to contribute to the understanding of the working and organisational conditions that might enhance or hinder individual and organisational outcomes. It suggests that positive collective emotions are significantly linked to better perceived outcomes and to better graduation rates. It also teases out the dynamic self-other in the experiences and displays of work-related emotions arguing that a relational model of studying emotions in organisations takes into consideration the social triggers and nature of emotions, but also the social phenomena that moderate their occurrence.

The identified composites of collective emotion can add to the discussion regarding the cultural role in the positive-negative divide of emotions. This is the only published study that looks comparatively at experiences, self-displays and perceptions of others' display of emotions in any organisational setting. The findings suggest that negative emotions are more differentiated than positive emotions and in addition, that negative emotions differentiate more in terms of orientation towards self and others. The everyday language confirms this for English language, for example, in which although English contains *more words* with positive than *negative* connotations, the reverse is true of *emotion words* (Ben-Ze'ev, 2001). In contrast with positive emotions which correlate strongly in experiences, displays and perceptions of others' displays, this study revealed that negative emotions are differentiated further in negative self-displays, negative perceived displays of others and negative subjective experiences. In line with this finding, some linguists (Schrauf & Sanchez, 2004) suggest that the cognitive explanation is that we process negative and positive emotions in two channels: positive emotions are processed schematically therefore people

process them more superficially. In contrast, negative emotions require more detailed thinking, and more subtle distinctions. The authors' conclusion was that cross culturally it appears that the cognitive approach to processing emotions is the same, with negative emotions requiring more detail and therefore more words and positive emotions requiring fewer words. This finding from linguistic research confirms the hypothesis that the negative emotions are more differentiated in how they are experienced and displayed and therefore negative emotions will have more words to describe them.

Moreover, evidence from this study suggests that the assumptions of the *false consensus bias* (Ross et al., 1977) and the *false uniqueness bias* (Suls & Wan, 1987), proposed by theorists of social comparison processes, can be applied to the social life of emotions. The *false uniqueness bias* states that we tend to overestimate the commonality of our undesirable or unsuccessful behaviour and opinions. In contrast, the *false consensus bias* refers to our underestimation of how common our abilities and desirable behaviours are. Moreover, this finding is confirmed by research evidence showing that emotional norms are part of our day to day life and emphasize the stereotypicality of our *emotion judgements* (Paez et al., 1996).

### **Positive - negative dichotomy.**

There is a strong discrimination found in the survey data between positive and negative affectivity with one exception, which is *compassion*. This finding, and the fact that different emotions hold different meanings, suggests that any conclusions about the positive -negative dichotomy need to be carefully addressed by taking into consideration contextual factors. With the exception of

*compassion*, positive emotions seem to be less differentiated in terms of experience, self-displays and others' displays, compared with the negative emotions.

### **Inauthentic emotions? 'Faking' the good.**

Emotion regulation is an indication of how we manage our affective experiences and displays. Discrepancies between felt and expressed emotions have a negative influence on performance (Grandey 2003; Hochschild 1983). As Hochschild (1983) argues, the discrepancies between what one feels and what one should feel or need to display are often dictated by "the authorities who are the keepers of feeling rules" (ibid, p.75). This applies to organizational settings as well and emphasizes once more the role of the leader in creating the environments that allow for people to express their true feelings. Another argument, as in the case of positive emotions, is that these discrepancies may play an important role in dealing with stressful situations (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007). This study provides some insight into these issues.

According to the findings, it appears that there is an almost equal tendency to regulate both negative and positive affectivity but in opposite directions: some positive emotions are reported to be stronger in displays than in experiences, whereas negative emotions are less strong in displays than in experiences. The inhibition of emotion known in the literature as 'suppression' is one of the two proposed ways in which we regulated emotions (Gross, 2007). Moreover, when we regulate positive emotions we aim to either maintain (prolonging) or to enhance (increase) the positive experiences (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007). The findings of this study partially confirm this hypothesis and also provide more



information about which emotions are more strongly regulated than others and whether by inhibition or enhancement. Also, this study proposes a step further in looking into emotions in relations to self and others by comparing self-displays with others' display.

All these findings that refer to the relationships between emotional experiences, self-displays and others' display raise important ethical questions related to the consequences of emotional display and the relationships with what some may call the 'authentic' self. It may be that our desire for happiness seems so strong that we accept 'faking' it whenever we are unable to achieve it. Whether this is the case or not, and what are the consequences if this is indeed a reality, could be further investigated in longitudinal studies, through gathering more in-depth qualitative data from a larger number of schools and/or through collecting more outcome data from the participant organisations.

### **The self-other interplay in emotions**

The findings show that for all negative emotions and for some positive emotions there is a strong incongruence between self-displays and perceived displays in others. To date, there is no research published that looks into this relationship between self-displays and others' display of specific emotions and a theoretical framework that can allow for researching this topic will be proposed in a following section in this chapter..

The participant schools vary in how the self-other interplay takes place at organisational level, but generally positive emotions, either self or other oriented, are dominant, with the exception of *compassion*. By dominant I mean

that they are experienced and displayed more than the negative emotions. Very few schools allow for more *compassion*, which may be seen as the ultimate other-oriented emotion. The higher level of compassion was found in one school that it is known by the researcher as being located in a poor area of the city and also having a higher intake of students with disabilities. Also, despite the fact that negative emotions oriented towards others appeared to be generally discouraged, still in one of the case study schools, the levels of *envy* are particularly high compared with other schools. General patterns regarding the dominance of positive emotions can be found throughout the findings, but also that the collective emotions are still very much differentiated at school level, which may have important implications for both leadership and school outcomes. Some of the implications of emotions on leadership practices and organisational development will be discussed in the next sections.

### **Grounded theory models of emotions and leadership**

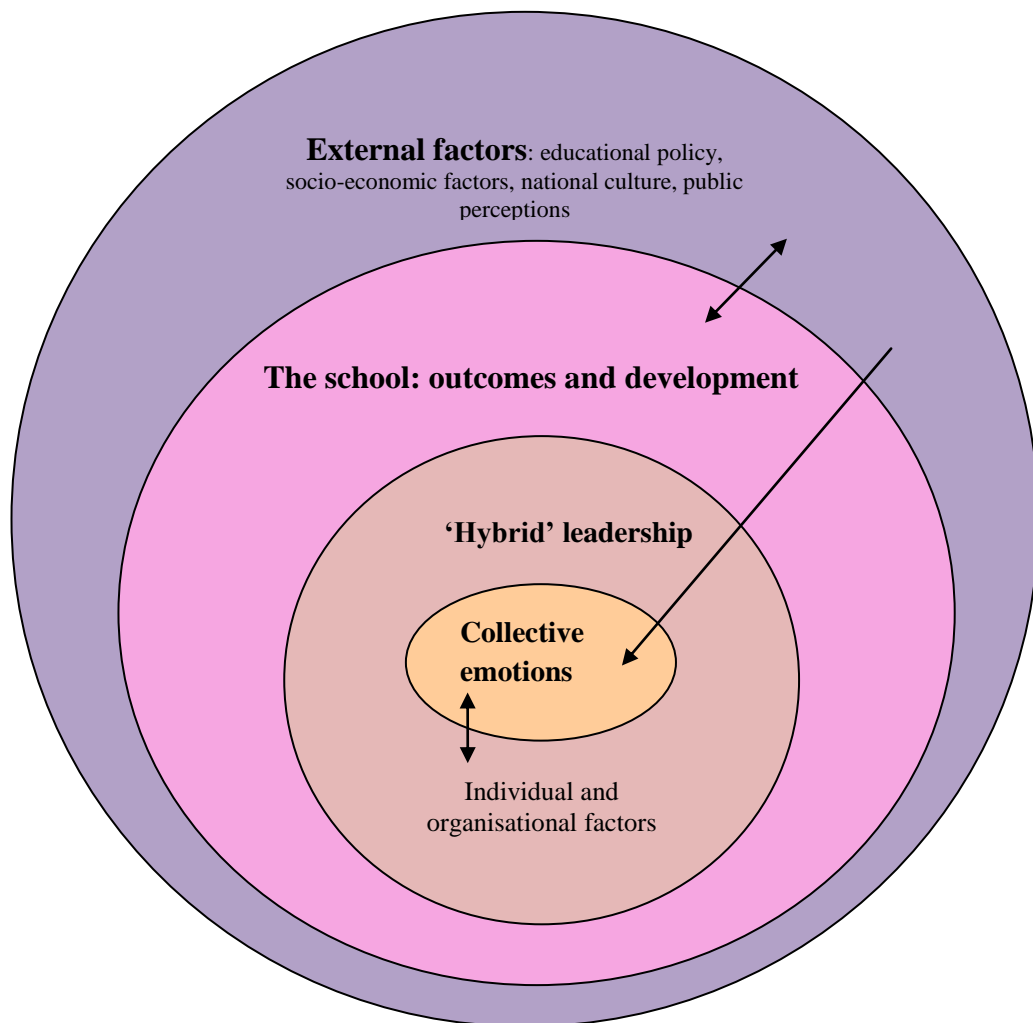
The study proposes an organisational model for the study of leadership and emotions in schools. The model is based on a mixed method design that relies on a framework developed to analyse and integrate findings using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Both emotions and leadership are seen as social phenomena that are a natural, integrated part of the organisational life of any school.

### **An organisational model of emotions and leadership**

It is suggested that the quality of leadership affects the nature of experienced and expressed emotions equally without ignoring the individual and personality

characteristics, other organisational factors as well as external factors such as the economic, social and cultural context which in this case is Romania.

Emotions of staff are at the centre of the organisational life and are strongly linked to leadership practices. As the findings of this study reveal, and in line with recent developments in educational leadership (Gronn, 2009), ‘hybrid’ leadership that combines different leadership practices, adapted to various situations and needs, might prove the most beneficial for school development.



*Figure 9.1* An organisational model of studying leadership and collective emotions in schools

Although some authors might believe that laissez-faire leadership is undesirable in any circumstance, there might be voices to argue that even laissez-faire is wrongly used only in its pejorative meaning and that passive practices could be useful in some situations. This latter conclusion could still be consistent with the idea of ‘hybrid’ leadership, which adjusts to each individual circumstance without being prescriptive, but this relativism could be unproductive for the development of leadership theory and practice by denying the replicable element of it.

Among the individual and organisational factors, collective emotions have an identity of their own that can reflect the school culture in the way positive and negative emotions are balanced in experiences and social displays. Strong statistical correlations between positive collective emotions and *rewarding considerate* leadership as well as the interview data suggest that there may be a mutual relationship of influence between collective emotions and leadership practices. The Headteacher ‘sets the tone’, as one of the interviewees’ says, but at the same time the emotions of staff feed into leadership decisions.

The literature suggests that leadership has an indirect effect on school outcomes (Leithwood et al., 2007). Another assumption or a different formulation of this assertion could be that, in reality, it is the complex and dynamic relationships, exchanges and processes that take place between leadership practices and organisational conditions that are the key determinant of school development and performance.

Finally, the model takes into consideration the external conditions that have an impact on organisational conditions, such as the collective emotions of staff and leadership practices. The findings of this study, for instance, revealed a significant correlation between larger schools and *charismatic inspirational* leadership, whereas *rewarding considerate* leadership was found independent of school size.

### **A relational multidimensional model for studying collective emotions in organisations**

In a working theoretical model (Alba, 2008), the author considers multiple dimensions when exploring the emotional dynamics of the working life of teachers and school staff from schools from Romania.

In this study, I use the term ‘collective emotions’ or ‘organisational emotions’ as generic terms referring to the identified composites or clusters of emotions experienced, displayed and perceived in others’ displaying at work. An emerging concept that can be further explored and tested in future research is that of ‘emotion culture’. This term incorporates three main theoretical dimensions referring to emotion. The following paragraphs will describe and explain how these three dimensions are integrated in the emerged theoretical model, as well as how they grounded in the findings of this study.

- a. ***Social processes*** such as *social comparison* (Festinger, 1954), *attribution* (Weiner, 1986); and *emotion regulation* (Gross, 2007) and *emotion labour* (Hochschild, 1983).

Social comparison and attribution theories state that we associate internal causes to positive events and external causes to negative events. This suggests that people make emotion judgments and think stereotypically in relation to emotion (Paez et al., 1996). Aspects of *emotion regulation* and *emotion labour* were identified in the data by assessing reported emotional experiences which were contrasted with reported self-displays of emotions and significant differences were found for both positive and negative emotions.

A second aspect that was taken into consideration in the development of the proposed model refers to certain indicators or criteria for describing the outcomes of the social processes mentioned above.

- b. **Indicators** or criteria such as *consistency* (when referring to self-self comparisons, comparing experiences with self-displays); and *congruence* (when referring to self-other comparisons, comparing self-displays and perceptions of others' displays).

I define *consistency* as internal coherence between one's subjective experiences or feelings and one's self-displays; and *congruence* as the agreement between one's self-displays and one's perceptions of others' displays. This latter concept is similar to Kelly's term of "consensus" (1967).

As *Figure 9.2* shows, these two indicators help in distinguishing between self-consistent and self-inconsistent emotional cultures, as well as between socially congruent or socially incongruent cultures.

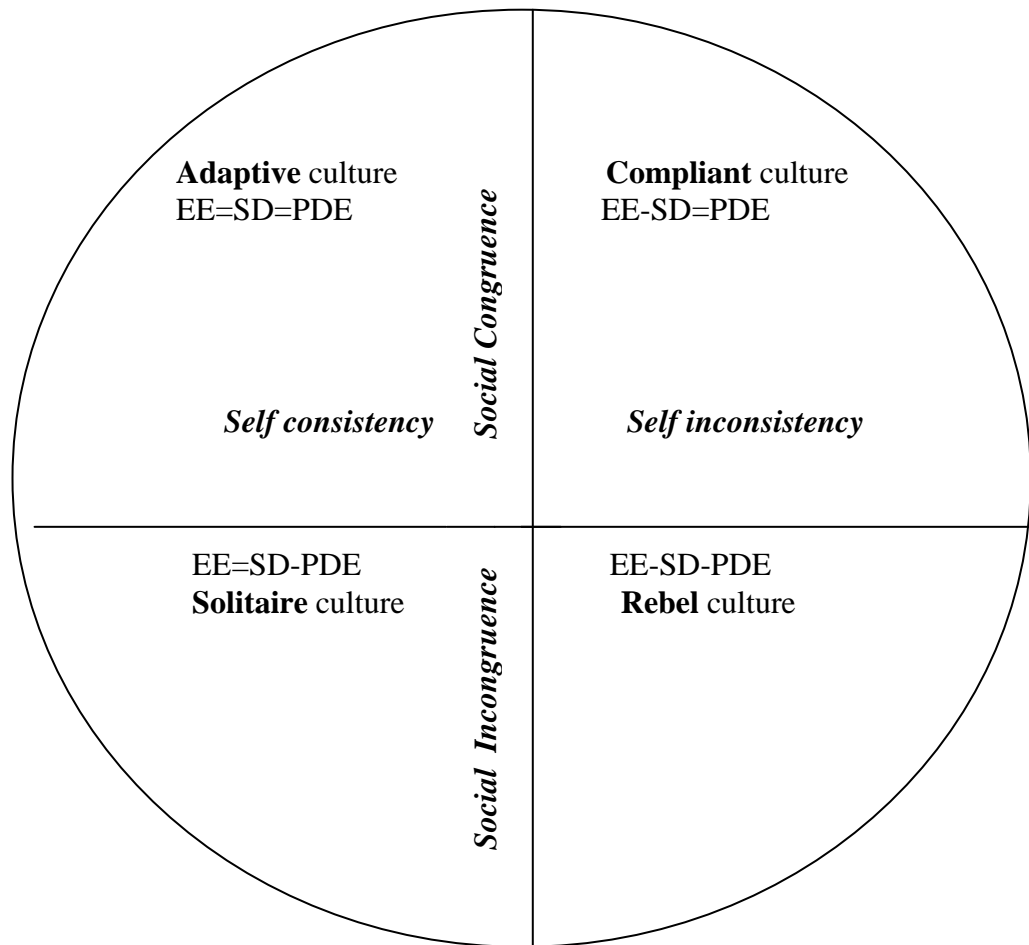


Figure 9.2 Emotion cultures through the lens of personal consistency and social congruence

Although these are general tendencies that can be formulated, based on the majority of emotions that are experienced and displayed at organisational level, more detail can be found in looking at how individual emotions are experienced and expressed. Finally, in order to be able to carry out an in-depth analysis of the emotional cultures and patterns, it is helpful to know the *nature* and the *characteristics* of individual emotions.

- c. The *nature* of emotions: their *polarity* (negative or positive); and *orientation* (self-oriented - i.e. *guilt* and other-oriented - i.e. *hatred*).

In this study, the *polarity* and *orientation* of emotions are identifiable in the list of negative and positive emotions. The survey findings provide support for the negative-positive distinction, suggesting that there is more differentiation and more nuances found in the expressed, displayed and perceived negative emotionality. The findings are in line with previous research (Schrauf & Sanchez, 2004) suggesting that, in general, positive emotions are less differentiated compared to negative emotions. The findings of this study support this claim showing that negative emotions cluster under four different groups, whereas positive emotions cluster only under two groups. This shows that the emotion that can be considered the ultimate other-oriented emotion - *compassion* - is distinct from all other positive emotions in the population under study.

Based on these three dimensions mentioned above (social processes, indicators and the nature of emotions), four types of *collective emotions* could be identified. (*Figure 9.2*). The term *emotion culture* is a working term that takes into account personal experiences of emotions, as well as the role of other in regulating one's own emotions. A description of these *cultures* can be found in Chapter 5.

These are not pure types and can be further developed and tested in other organisational or cultural contexts.

## **Implications and recommendations for policy and practice**

This project started with the intention of exploring how emotions of school staff link into leadership practices, and how this relationship is reflected in several



organisational outcomes that were selected for measurement in the participant schools. Findings rely on participants' perspectives of the issues under study and revealed a variety of contextualized meanings of both leadership and work-related emotions, as well as controversial meanings of what school success and effectiveness represent for staff. Because of that, I suggest that the findings have significant implications for several areas of policy and practice at local level, but also have implications for the national educational system overall. These national and local implications of the findings will be discussed next for each of the following areas:

- a. Accountability and educational outcomes
- b. Self-management and decentralisation
- c. Leadership development
- d. Organisational development

### **Accountability and outcomes**

Despite its strong focus on academic performance in the evaluation of teachers (OECD, PISA 2006), Romania's low levels of educational achievement, school autonomy and students' self-efficacy (ibid), are an indication that the present educational system is failing to produce the desired results. As PISA study shows (ibid), overall scores in science, reading and mathematics for pre-university education in Romania are among lowest in Europe (ibid). Moreover, Romania has low levels of educational achievement, school autonomy and students' self-efficacy when compared with other countries of the world with more than 40% of 15-year-old students performing at Level 1 or below (OECD, PISA 2006).

Although mechanisms are put in place, and organisations have been created to evaluate the effectiveness of school organisations in terms of student achievement and institutional development, the results of these evaluations do not constitute public documents that can be accessed by members of the community or other interested parties. As the findings of this study reveal, at local level, the reputation of schools, of their Headteachers and/or their individual teachers, are often the basis for parents' decision-making processes in selecting the schools for their children. A transparent mechanism that can allow information on the results of school evaluations to be fed back to the schools and the communities, needs to be developed and applied consistently to all schools of this type that provide education for children between 6-14 years, all at primary and lower-secondary levels.

Moreover, this study revealed at least two main understandings of school success: a pragmatic, individualistic ethos that is translated in the number of pupils enrolled and the academic performance (School 2) and one that has in the centre an egalitarian educational ethos according to which a school should provide for all needs. From what this study showed, the school that embraced the egalitarian view of education had less success in attracting students and creating new classrooms compared with the school where the focus was on marketing and promotion. The educational policy should be able to implement a consistent, uncorrupted and objective organisational evaluation process that allow schools with different visions to have a fair chance in the educational market by providing parents with an objective overview of what each school's weaknesses and strengths are.

### **Self-management and decentralisation**

Self-management and decentralisation are central themes in the current debate around the reformation of the Romanian educational system (Levacic, 2009). In the attempt to capture school staff's expectations of leadership, and views on current leadership practices, this study revealed some difficult themes relevant to the decentralisation process that started in Romania 20 years ago after the fall of the Communist regime.

One of the key characteristics of centralized systems is, as Bush (2008) points out, that they allow for 'little discretion to schools and local communities' (ibid, p. 4). Decentralisation, on the other hand, means reducing the involvement of central government in planning and providing education (ibid, p.5). In relation to decentralisation of the educational system, Romania is in an apparent state of contradiction. On the one hand, the schools are financed through the local councils and function in an unregulated market in which parents have the freedom of choosing between schools without restriction, which allows for fierce competition between schools. On the other hand, the Headteacher is more of an administrator and manager, which, as some authors imply, allows for little innovation in leadership practice (Bush, 2008). A serious and open public debate is necessary in order to discuss the balance of power needed in managing schools between national and local educational authorities.

### **Leadership development and training**

As already mentioned, the implications of self-management for school leadership and management are important (Bush, 2008), as the levels and types of responsibilities differ between centralised and decentralised systems. This is

also one of the key findings of this study, suggesting that there are different opinions of what level of autonomy a school and a Headteacher should have. Despite understandable disagreement, the Romanian government seems to be determined to engage in the decentralisation process, as recent strategic documents propose (MECTS, 2007).

Moving towards a decentralised system means that the way Headteachers are appointed, and teachers are employed, should change radically. If Romania is to continue the decentralisation process of its education, the system needs to prepare for new methods of selection for Headteachers and staff. Open advertisement and competition for the posts (Bush, 2008) should take the place of intransparent, and sometimes corrupt, mechanisms for occupying leadership posts (SAR, 2008). The proposed new educational policy supports a decentralisation model advising that staff selection should be made at school level, rather than being decided by local or central Government bodies.

Moreover, this study focused on headship, as it was expected that, in Romanian schools, leadership is very much concentrated in the hands of one person who, as some previous studies suggest (SAR, 2008) still make use of 'old' practices relying on central directives in order to make decisions. This study reveals that the Headteacher, despite the limitations in autonomy, is seen as a key contributor to staff's commitment to school and to creating positive and satisfactory emotional experiences and relationships. Also, the Headteacher's vision seems to be essential in attracting a large number of students, and this was particularly reflected in the comparison between the two selected schools that share the same catchment area. While School 2 manages to attract a large

number of students, as the Head and the teachers seem to focus on student achievement and on satisfying parents' needs for their children, School 1 seems to be less successful in reconciling its egalitarian and inclusive vision with the demands of the educational market. The Headteacher of School 1 herself admits that she is engaged with too many activities that are related to her professional development outside the school. Meeting the individual needs of a leader are very important, as this Case Study 1 shows, but in order for a leadership development programme to be successful in meeting national and community needs, succession planning needs to be put in place in order to provide a more systematic approach to leadership recruitment and development (Bush, 2008) rather than a strictly personalised approach that responds to the aspiration of one individual only (ibid).

Clear vision, dedication and passion for the vision of responding to community needs, the ability to create and maintain positive and rewarding relationships with the staff seem to be the key ingredients of a successful leadership. These ideal characteristics confirm that attributes of transformational leadership, as well as behaviours such as contingent reward, which are found to be the behaviours that are most important expected from a school Head.

The findings of this study further suggest various ways forward for the Headteachers to follow in order to improve their leadership styles and hence to contribute more to school development and performance. Clearer reward systems, good relationships with staff, and setting a positive tone for the organisational climate, are thought to be key expectations that staff have from their Headteacher. This suggests that training design could take into

consideration all aspects of both transformational and transactional leadership, but with more emphasis on developing abilities to provide contingent reward and create relationships that allow for individual consideration towards member of staff. Moreover, it is recommended that leaders should not be passive, avoidant or absent among their staff, if they wish to be efficient and effective in their roles.

### **Organisational development**

The expansion of ‘positive psychology’, originating in Maslow’s work on motivation (1954) and developed by Seligman (1991), has had an important impact on organisational studies, through the development of the so called ‘positive organisational scholarship’ (Luthans & Avolio, 2009; Cameron et al., 2003). In the USA’s educational system, this trend has been translated into lessons on ‘positive thinking’ as part of the social and emotional learning curriculum (Merrell et al., 2008) as well as into leadership training developed in the generic organisation studies (Cameron, 2003).

Emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995) and emotional literacy (Steiner, 2000), have become to some extent the norm, the ideal which leaders and staff should aim for. One of the messages of this study is that what one could label as negative emotionality, in addition to being a natural fact of life, can be equally valuable and motivational in some work-related situations. Emotions, therefore, can be studied in school settings by taking into consideration actual individual and collective experiences and displays, along with the social processes that take place in any organisational context, without prescriptively suggesting or imposing certain ‘desirable’ emotions. Rather than building ‘emotionally

literate' environments, we might wish to create schools that allow for authentic emotions to be both experienced and displayed within an agreed social code.

Recent evidence (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009) suggests that a leader's ability to respond effectively to patterns of shared emotions that arise during strategic change, and other emotionally turbulent organizational processes, depends on the leader's ability to use emotional aperture. Teachers and Headteachers may be made aware of the nature and importance of such emerging collective emotions, of their role in school life and the overall organisational development, and especially of the individual role that the Headteacher play in creating the environment for authentic, yet motivational emotions in both staff and students.

## **Summary**

A first contribution of this study is a better understanding of leadership and schooling in a context that has been under researched, that of the 1-8 form schools from Timisoara, Romania. This piece of research succeeded in giving a voice to the staff and the Headteachers in expressing their experiences of working in schools from Timisoara, Romania. This small study reflects, even if only partially, the realities of the emotions of teachers and non-teachers involved in the education of the nation's children.

The implications for policy and training are also significant for showing that collective emotions of school staff matter for organisational development and performance, and that Headship is key to this process. The use of a mixed methods approach, with a strong emphasis on the integration of findings, proved useful, not only for the study's validity through data triangulation, which was

one of the initial aims for using such a design, but also provided benefits in terms of completeness and mutual illumination of data collected by different methods. This study used a mixed methodological approach, and integrates findings from different types of data, as well as comparing and contrasting views of different types of participants, however the nature of this work is very much contextual.

Although the topic of emotions in organisational research in general, and in educational research in particular, is not new, an organisational approach to the study of emotions and leadership in education is less common. This is one of a very small number of studies designed to capture the perceived emotions experienced and displayed in schools and to look at the role of these specific emotions in relation to organisational development and school leadership.

The study produced some emerging theoretical models that can be further developed and tested in future studies. One is an organisational model that can be applied to the study of leadership and emotions in schools. This framework allows for context specific understandings of both leadership and emotional experiences avoiding the prescriptive approach to emotionality and emotions on work settings. A second model is a multidimensional relational approach to the study of collective emotions that can be applied to the study of work-related emotions. Both these models allowed for the identification of culture and context-specific features that contribute to a better understanding of the work-life of Headteachers, teachers and school staff in some Romanian schools in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.



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# Appendices

## *Appendix 4.1. Letter to the District School Inspectorate*

15.05.2006

Attn: Dr Sandu Golcea, General School Inspector

Dear Dr Golcea,

I am writing to kindly ask for your support with a study regarding the organisational culture of schools from Timsoara. This study is part of the doctoral activity that I undertake at the University of Warwick, United Kingdom.

The research aims to include Headteachers and school staff from 25 schools from Timsoara district. The study will be conducted between June 2006 and June 2007 providing that the Headteacher give their approval for taking part. School participation is voluntary.

For more information, please see the enclosed leaflet.

Yours sincerely,

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INFORMATION SHEET FOR HEAD-TEACHERS AND SCHOOL STAFF 24/05/2006

### **An Investigation into School Culture<sup>1</sup>**

#### A PILOT STUDY

You are invited to take part in a study that aims to explore the relationship between leadership style, the school culture and school performance.

**Thank you for your participation.**

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#### **What are the aims of the study?**

This study is part of a doctoral research that is currently undertaken at the University of Warwick, UK, and seeks to understand the relationship between leadership style, the affective dimension of school culture and the organisational performance by exploring the views of head-teachers and school staff and by undertaking ethnographical field work. This pilot particularly aims to test the methods and instruments that will be used in the final stage of the research in which a total number of 30 schools from Timis county will be included.

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<sup>1</sup> The research follows the research ethical requirements set by the University of Warwick

**Who is organising the research?**

The research student of this study is Anca Alba who is a Postgraduate Research Fellow at Warwick Institute of Education UK, under the supervision of Professor Alma Harris, the Director of the Institute.

**Which participants will be recruited?**

The participants in this study are head-teachers, teachers, administrative and technical staff in schools from Timis, Romania. The study aims to randomly recruit a total number of 30 schools. All head-teachers, along with 10-20 % of the teachers and other member of staff who will be randomly selected will be asked to take part in the study. The researcher will endeavour to ensure there is a balance type of school (Schools I-VIII, High-schools, vocational and technical colleges), size, and location (urban/rural) within the sample.

**What will I be asked to do?**

The head-teachers will be asked to:

1. provide access to school and to briefly inform the staff about the purpose of the research
2. to provide access to strategic documents: managerial plan, regulament de ordine interioara
3. to take part in an interview that will last between 30-45 mins
4. to fill in a questionnaire that will take approximately 30-40 mins

Teachers will be asked to:

1. fill in 2 questionnaires that will take approx. 30 min
2. to take part in an interview that will last between 30-45 min

The interviews will be undertaken by the research student responsible with this study and will be audio-recorded, and transcribed for analysis.

The researcher will also ask permission to take part of some of the regular activities of the school: staff meeting and classes taking photos and collecting observational data.

**Are there any risks to me?**

There are no risks involved in participation in this research. Your personal details will be kept confidential and anonymous and you will be identified in the research only by an ID number. There will be no record linking your actual identity with your responses.

**What will happen to the results of the study?**

The data resulted from the interviews will be analysed using a qualitative analysis software called NVivo. The data resulted from the questionnaires will analysed using SPSS. All other data collected will be analysed following the document analysis procedures. The research report will be presented within the University of Warwick. The findings will be used to develop study for the next stage of this research project.

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**Contact for further information**

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#### **Appendix 4.2 Invitation letter for schools**

24/05/2006

Dear Madam/Dear Sir,

You are invited to take part in a pilot study that aims to explore the organisational culture of your school. This study is conducted by Ms Anca Alba who is enrolled in a doctoral programme at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. Your participation, the participation of your school and of your school staff are voluntary.

The data collected in this pilot study will serve to the design and conduction of the actual research starting in November 2006 and ending in June 2007 and which will include a number of approximate 30 schools from Timis county, Romania.

For further details about the research, please see the information leaflet enclosed [Same as in letter for School Inspectorate]. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

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#### **Appendix 4.3 Sample of items from the MLQ 5X form**

<http://www.mindgarden.com/products/mlq.htm>, last accessed 15 February 2009

##### **Example Items and Scale for the Rater Form**

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

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

<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>Not At All</b>	<b>Once in a While</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Fairly Often</b>	<b>Frequently, if not always</b>

<b>1.</b>	<b>Talks optimistically about the future</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>2.</b>	<b>Spends time teaching and coaching</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>3.</b>	<b>Avoids making decisions</b>					

*Appendix 4.4 Principal component analysis with MLQ pilot results*

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	21.552	47.893	47.893	21.552	47.893	47.893	
2	4.703	10.450	58.343	4.703	10.450	58.343	
3	4.223	9.384	67.727	4.223	9.384	67.727	
4	2.768	6.152	73.879	2.768	6.152	73.879	
5	2.128	4.729	78.608	2.128	4.729	78.608	
6	1.825	4.055	82.663	1.825	4.055	82.663	
7	1.573	3.496	86.158	1.573	3.496	86.158	
8	1.499	3.332	89.490	1.499	3.332	89.490	
9	1.050	2.334	91.824	1.050	2.334	91.824	
10	.797	1.771	93.595				
11	.755	1.679	95.273				
12	.643	1.428	96.701				
13	.579	1.287	97.989				
14	.373	.829	98.818				
15	.311	.692	99.510				
16	.221	.490	100.000				

*Appendix 4.5 School Climate Questionnaire for Staff [Pilot study]*

**Section A**

How much would you agree with the following? Please tick the appropriate box

5 – strongly agree

4 – agree

3 – neither agree or disagree

2 – disagree

1 – strongly disagree

No crt / Item	5	4	3	2	1
1. I enjoy working in this school					
2. I feel free to express my thoughts and feelings in front of the headteacher					
3. I feel free to express my thoughts and feelings in front of my colleagues					
4. I feel free to express my thoughts and feelings in front of my students					
5. I think our voice as staff members is heard in this school					
6. There is a feeling of trust among colleagues in this school					
7. The headteacher plays the most important role in creating a positive atmosphere in the school					
8. I think the climate in the school has a positive impact on students' achievement					
9. I remember at least one moment when I expressed my angry in front of my colleagues					
10. We, as staff members are treated with respect in this school					
11. I think this school is successful					
12. I know all teachers by their names					
13. I can talk to someone when some a problem arises in my work					
14. I often feel on my own in the school					
15. I have at least one friend among my colleagues					

16. I am happy with my job					
17. All staff is treated with respect					
18. I would like to work in another school					
19. This school is a fun place to work in					
19. Teachers' well-being is an important factor for school success					
20. The general atmosphere in the school is positive					
21. The headteacher should pay more attentions to staff's well being					
22. Negative emotions can sometimes be helpful in solving problems					
23. I have never been embarrassed by anything in front of my colleagues					
24. I think it is not appropriate for us as staff members to display our feelings at work					
25. I am passionate about my work					

**Section B (Leadership style - same as in questionnaire for headteachers)**

Please tick the appropriate box:

**Section C.**

1. Are you a:
  - a. teacher
  - b. clerical/admin staff
  - c. technical staff
  - d. other staff \_\_\_\_\_
2. Gender:
  - a. female
  - b. male
3. For how long have you been working in this school?
  - a. less than 1 year
  - b. 1-2 years
  - c. 2-4 years
  - d. 4-6 years
  - e. more than 6 years
4. If you are a teacher, what is your discipline?  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Do you have any leadership roles within the school?
  - a. yes
  - b. no
6. If yes, please state what type of role  
\_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your assistance.

***Appendix 4.6 The Emotions Questionnaire [Main data collection]***

You are invited to take part in a study which aims to explore the relationship between leadership styles, emotions experienced and displayed by staff and school development and performance. The following questionnaires will take around 20-30 minutes to fill in. Your participation is much appreciated.

**1. To what extent do you personally experience (even if not displaying) the following emotions in the work place. Please tick the appropriate box.**

Item	Almost all the time 0	Often 1	Sometimes 2	Rarely 3	Almost never 4
1. Anger					
2. Boredom					
3. Compassion					
4. Contempt					
5. Disgust					



6. Embarrassment					
7. Enthusiasm					
8. Envy					
9. Fear					
10. Grief					
11. Guilt					
12. Hatred					
13. Hope					
14. Irritation					
15. Joy					
16. Pride					
17. Regret					
18. Sadness					
19. Shame					
20. Surprise					

2. To what extent do you personally feel comfortable displaying in the workplace the following emotions. Please tick the appropriate box.

Item	Almost all the time 0	Often 1	Sometimes 2	Rarely 3	Almost never 4
1. Anger					
2. Boredom					
3. Compassion					
4. Contempt					
5. Disgust					
6. Embarrassment					
7. Enthusiasm					
8. Envy					
9. Fear					
10. Grief					
11. Guilt					
12. Hatred					
13. Hope					
14. Irritation					
15. Joy					
16. Pride					
17. Regret					
18. Sadness					
19. Shame					
20. Surprise					

3. To what extent have you noticed other staff displaying the following emotions. Please tick the appropriate box.

Item	Almost all the time 0	Often 1	Sometimes 2	Rarely 3	Almost never 4
1. Anger					
2. Boredom					
3. Compassion					
4. Contempt					
5. Disgust					
6. Embarrassment					
7. Enthusiasm					
8. Envy					
9. Fear					
10. Grief					
11. Guilt					
12. Hatred					

13. Hope					
14. Irritation					
15. Joy					
16. Pride					
17. Regret					
18. Sadness					
19. Shame					
20. Surprise					

**Part II of the questionnaire was the same as in pilot.**

***Appendix 4.7 Interview Schedule Staff [Pilot study]***

**[Emotions]**

1. Could you tell me a little bit about your teaching/working experience in this school?
2. How would you best describe the school?
3. Are there any stories/myths that are told about your school?
4. What about characters of figures from the past? (a person who played an important role in the history of your school)
5. How would you describe the general atmosphere in your school?
6. Is your school a fun place to work in?
7. How do you find your job? (Stressful? Enjoyable? Challenging?)
8. What do you think are the most enjoyable moments for you? What about your headteacher? Colleagues? And for the students?
9. What are the least enjoyable moments for you, headteacher? What about your staff and students? Could you give me an example?
10. How do you react in these situations?
11. How important are emotions in the work place?
12. What kind of emotions do you think contribute to school success?
13. What kind of emotions do you think hinder school success?
14. What do you think is appropriate and what not in terms of emotional display?
15. What factors contribute in your opinion to a positive school climate?
16. How important do you think is heateachers' role in creating the school atmosphere? What about teachers' role?
17. Are there any specific activities designed to enhance staff's well being?
18. How would you react in difficult situations? Could you give me some examples?
19. How did the headteachers and other members of staff react to that event?
20. Which are in your opinion the places in your school where people feel most free to discuss about their experiences, and feelings and thoughts? (Corridors? Classrooms? Staff room? Courtyard? Smoking area? Headteachers office? Departmental offices?)

**[School performance]**

1. What makes a successful school?
2. To what extent is your school successful?
3. What would you like to change about the school?
4. What do you think are the strengths of your school?

**[Leadership styles]**

1. How would you describe the leadership style practiced in your school? Could you give some examples that illustrate this?
2. How do you think the leadership style affects your work and you personally?
3. What makes a successful leader?
4. What are the main areas of interest for school leadership team?
5. What approach do you think is most encouraged in your school? Competition? Collaboration?
6. How does the headteacher contribute to people getting more involved into school life? What else could the leadership team do?
7. Do you think you have more of a visionary leader or more of a manager?
8. If you were to choose one value that you think is important in for your leadership team which would that be?
9. What do you most value in your work?

## **Interview schedule – Head-teachers and Deputy Head-teachers [Pilot study]**

### **[Emotions]**

21. Could you tell me a little bit about your school?
22. Are there any stories/myths that are told about your school?
23. What about characters of figures from the past? (a person who played an important role in the history of your school)
24. How would you describe the general atmosphere in your school?
25. Is your school a fun place to work in?
26. How do you find your job? (Stressful? Enjoyable? Challenging?)
27. What do you think are the most enjoyable moments for you? What about your staff?  
And for the students?
28. What are the least enjoyable moments for you, your staff and students? Could you give me an example?
29. How do you react in these situations?
30. How important are emotions in the work place?
31. What kind of emotions do you think contribute to school success?
32. What kind of emotions do you think hinder school success?
33. What do you think is appropriate and what not in terms of emotional display?
34. What factors contribute in your opinion to a positive school climate?
35. How important do you think is your role in creating the school atmosphere?
36. Are there any specific activities designed to enhance staff's well being?
37. How would you react in difficult situations? Could you give me some examples?
38. How did the teachers and the other staff react to that event?
39. Which are in your opinion the places in your school where people feel most free to discuss about their experiences, and feelings and thoughts? (Corridors? Classrooms? Staff room? Courtyard? Smoking area? Headteachers office? Departmental offices?)

### **[School performance]**

5. What makes a successful school?
6. To what extent is your school successful?
7. What would you like to change about the school?
8. What do you think are the strengths of your school?

### **[Leadership]**

1. Do you think you are a successful leader?
2. What makes you a good leader? Or what hinders you for being more successful?
3. What style / styles of leadership do you think you practice? Could you give some examples to illustrate this?
4. What are the main areas of interest for you as a school leader?
5. What approach do you think is more efficient for your staff? Competition?  
Collaboration?
6. What do you think motivates staff/teachers to get involved in school life?
7. Do you think you are more of a visionary leader or more of a manager?
8. If you were to choose one value that you think is important in your work, which would that be?

## ***Appendix 4.8 Interview Schedule. [Main data collection] - 09 10 2007***

### **Interview schedule, Headteacher**

1. Tell me about how you decided to become a teacher.
2. When did you start to work in this school?
3. For how long have you been a head in this school?
4. How would you describe yourself as leader?
5. Which are the most important activities for you as a head?
6. Which are the most pleasant activities as a head? How about the least pleasant?
7. Which are the characteristics of a good headteacher?

8. What does a successful school mean to you? Or how would you describe a successful school?
9. What are, in your opinion, the factors that lead to a successful school?
10. How do you see the head's role in providing the success of a school?
11. How important is the school climate for you?
12. How can a head influence school climate?
13. What are the pleasant emotions you experience at work? How about the least pleasant?
14. What pleasant emotions do you think your colleagues experience at work? How about unpleasant emotions?
15. To what extent do the emotions experienced at work affect work outcomes?
16. Where do you feel most comfortable in school? How about least comfortable?
17. What are the external criteria by which a school is formally assessed?
18. How would you place your school according to these external criteria?
19. What would you like to change in your school in the future?
20. What do you like most about your school?
21. Do you have any questions regarding the study, any comments or anything else?

**Interview schedule, staff**

1. Tell me about how did you decide to become a teacher?
2. When did you start to work in this school?
3. Which are the most pleasant activities as a head? How about the least pleasant?
4. Which are, in your opinion, the most important activities of a head?
5. Which are the characteristics of a good Head?
6. What does a successful school mean to you? Or how would you describe a successful school?
7. What are, in your opinion, the factors that lead to a successful school?
8. To what extent does the leadership style influence your work?
9. How can a head influence school climate?
10. What are the pleasant emotions you experience at work? How about the least pleasant?
11. What pleasant emotions do you think your colleagues experience at work? How about unpleasant emotions?
12. To what extent do the emotions experienced at work affect work outcomes?
13. How important is the school climate for you?
14. To what extent does the school climate affect your activity?
15. Where do you feel most comfortable in school? How about least comfortable?
16. What are the external criteria by which a school is formally assessed?
17. How would you place your school according to these external criteria?
18. What would you like to change in your school in the future?
19. What do you like most about your school?
20. Do you have any questions regarding the study, any comments or anything else?

**Appendix 4.9 Normality tests for MLQ factors**

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Contingent reward	.170	174	.000	.915	174	.000
Intellectual stimulation	.138	174	.000	.945	174	.000
Management by exception passive	.154	174	.000	.958	174	.000
Management by exception active	.120	174	.000	.970	174	.001
Laissez-faire	.175	174	.000	.855	174	.000
Idealized influence behaviour	.140	174	.000	.940	174	.000
Idealized influence attribute	.137	174	.000	.896	174	.000
Inspirational motivation	.130	174	.000	.917	174	.000
Individualized consideration	.104	174	.000	.956	174	.000
Effectiveness	.206	174	.000	.829	174	.000
Satisfaction	.282	174	.000	.774	174	.000
Extra effort	.141	174	.000	.903	174	.000

a Lilliefors Significance Correction